

G l e n c o e

WORLD HISTORY



Reading Essentials and Study Guide

Student Workbook



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To the Teacher

Glencoe World History Reading Essentials and Study Guide is designed to help you use recognized reading strategies to improve your reading-for-information skills. For each section of the student textbook, you are alerted to key terms and are asked to draw from prior knowledge, organize your thoughts with a graphic organizer, and then follow a process to read and understand the text. The *Reading Essentials and Study Guide* was prepared to help you get more from your textbook by reading with a purpose.



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Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 1, Section 1

For use with textbook pages 19–25

EARLY HUMANS

KEY TERMS

- prehistory** the period in human history before writing was developed (*page 19*)
- archaeology** the study of past societies through an analysis of what people have left behind (*page 19*)
- artifacts** objects that archaeologists examine, such as tools, pottery, paintings, weapons, buildings, and household items (*page 20*)
- anthropology** the study of human life and culture (*page 20*)
- fossils** remains of humans, plants and animals (*page 20*)
- australopithecines** (“southern apes”) the earliest humanlike creatures that lived in Africa three to four million years ago (*page 21*)
- hominids** humans and other creatures that walk upright (*page 21*)
- Homo erectus*** (“upright human being”) a hominid species that emerged around 1.5 million years ago and used fire and larger tools (*page 21*)
- Homo sapiens*** (“wise human being”) a hominid species that emerged around 250,000 years ago and developed into two subgroups, Neanderthals and *Homo sapiens sapiens* (*page 21*)
- Neanderthals** a subgroup of *Homo sapiens* whose remains were first found in the Neander Valley in Germany (*page 21*)
- Homo sapiens sapiens*** (“wise, wise human beings”) the first anatomically modern humans that appeared in Africa between 150,000 and 200,000 years ago (*page 22*)
- Paleolithic Age** (“Old Stone Age”) the early period of human history (approximately 2,500,000 to 10,000 B.C.) when humans used simple stone tools (*page 22*)
- nomads** people who moved from place to place in search of food (*page 23*)

DRAWING FROM EXPERIENCE

Have you ever wondered about the earliest humans? How did they get their food and clothing? What did they use for shelter?

In this section, you will learn about the early stages of human development. You will also learn how scientists analyze the remains that early humans left behind and what they have learned from these remains.

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 1, Section 1 (continued)

ORGANIZING YOUR THOUGHTS

Use the diagram below to help you take notes. Three stages in early human development are described in this section. Identify and summarize these stages.

| | Stage 1 | Stage 2 | Stage 3 |
|------------------|---------|---------|---------|
| Name of hominids | 1. | 4. | 7. |
| Time period | 2. | 5. | 8. |
| Location(s) | 3. | 6. | 9. |

READ TO LEARN

- **Before History** (page 19)

Prehistory is the period of human history before writing was developed. Because there are no writings to tell us what happened during this time, scientists must study other things to learn about early humans. **Archaeology** is the study of past societies through an analysis of what people left behind. Archaeologists dig up and study the tools, pottery, paintings, weapons, buildings, and household items that people used. These objects are called **artifacts**. **Anthropology** is the study of human life and culture. Anthropologists use artifacts and human **fossils** (the remains of humans) to find out how early people lived.

Archaeologists and anthropologists use scientific methods to help them with their work. For example, they learn what early people ate by analyzing the bones, skins, and plant seeds that they find. They also need to determine how old the objects are. This is called *dating a find*. One method is radiocarbon dating. This method dates (determines the age of) an object by measuring the amount of radioactive carbon (C-14) left in it. This method can only be used for dating objects that are less than 50,000 years old. Another method is thermoluminescence dating. This method dates objects by measuring the light given off by electrons in the soil around the objects. This method helps scientists date objects as far back as 200,000 years ago. Scientists have also begun to use biological methods, such as DNA testing, to learn more about the lives of early people.

10. How do archaeologists and anthropologists determine the age of the objects they find?

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 1, Section 1 (continued)

- **Early Stages of Development** (page 21)

Archaeologists and anthropologists use their discoveries to create theories about early human history. According to the current theory, there were three stages in the development of early humans. The earliest humanlike creatures lived in Africa three to four million years ago. They were called **australopithecines** or “southern apes” by their discoverer, Donald Johanson. They lived in eastern and southern Africa. They were the first hominids to make stone tools. **Hominids** are humans and other creatures that walk upright. Archaeologists have recently discovered a skull that they think is from yet another form of hominid. They think it is about 3.5 million years old. It is called Kenyanthropus platyops (the flat-faced man of Kenya).

The second stage in human development is marked by the appearance of **Homo erectus** (“upright human being”). These hominids emerged about 1.5 million years ago in Africa. Then they moved into Europe and Asia. They used fire and made larger and more varied tools.

The third stage in human development began about 250,000 years ago. This stage is marked by the emergence of **Homo sapiens** (“wise human being”). Neanderthals and *Homo sapiens sapiens* both developed from *Homo sapiens*.

The remains of **Neanderthals** were first discovered in the Neander Valley in Germany. Remains have also been found throughout Europe and Southwest Asia. Neanderthals lived between 100,000 and 30,000 B.C. They used a variety of stone tools and buried their dead. They also made clothes from animal skins.

Homo sapiens sapiens (“wise, wise human being”) appeared in Africa 150,000 to 200,000 years ago. They were the first anatomically modern humans (people who looked like us). By 30,000 B.C., they had replaced the Neanderthals. They spread gradually from Africa to other parts of the world. All humans today belong to the subgroup *Homo sapiens sapiens*.

11. What two subgroups developed from *Homo sapiens*?

- **The Hunter-Gatherers of the Old Stone Age** (page 22)

Early humans used tools made of stone. The period in history when humans used simple stone tools is called the **Paleolithic Age** (“Old Stone Age”). This period lasted from about 2,500,000 to 10,000 B.C. During this period, humans used hunting and gathering to get their food. They gathered

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 1, Section 1 (continued)

wild nuts, berries, fruits, wild grains, and green plants. They hunted and ate various animals, such as buffalo, horses, reindeer, and fish. They were **nomads** (people who moved from place to place). They moved in order to find food. Both men and women were responsible for finding food. Men probably did most of the hunting of large animals. Women may have gathered berries, nuts, and grains, so that they could stay closer to their camps.

Paleolithic people found shelter in caves. They also created shelters made of wood poles or sticks covered with animals hides. They used fire to stay warm and to protect themselves from wild animals. They also used fire to cook food. Archaeologists believe that friction (rubbing two pieces of wood together) was probably the earliest method for starting fires. Fire allowed humans to survive during the Ice Ages. During the most recent Ice Age, ice covered large parts of Europe, Asia, and North America. This Ice Age lasted from about 100,000 B.C. to 8000 B.C.

Paleolithic people also created art. Cave paintings have been found in various parts of the world, including Lascaux in southwestern France and Altamira in northern Spain. Most cave paintings focused on large animals, such as lions, oxen, and panthers. According to archaeologists, these cave paintings were done between 25,000 and 12,000 B.C.

12. How did Paleolithic people get their food?

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Chapter 1, Section 2

For use with textbook pages 27–31

THE NEOLITHIC REVOLUTION AND THE RISE OF CIVILIZATION

KEY TERMS

Neolithic Revolution the revolution that occurred in the Neolithic Age, the period of human history from 8000 to 4000 B.C. (page 27)

systematic agriculture the growing of food on a regular basis (page 28)

domestication the adaptation of animals for human use (page 28)

artisans skilled workers who made products such as weapons and jewelry (page 29)

Bronze Age the period of history from around 3000 to 1200 B.C. that was characterized by the widespread use of bronze (page 30)

culture the way of life of a people (page 30)

civilization a complex culture in which large numbers of human beings share a number of common elements (page 30)

monarchs kings or queens who rule a kingdom (page 30)

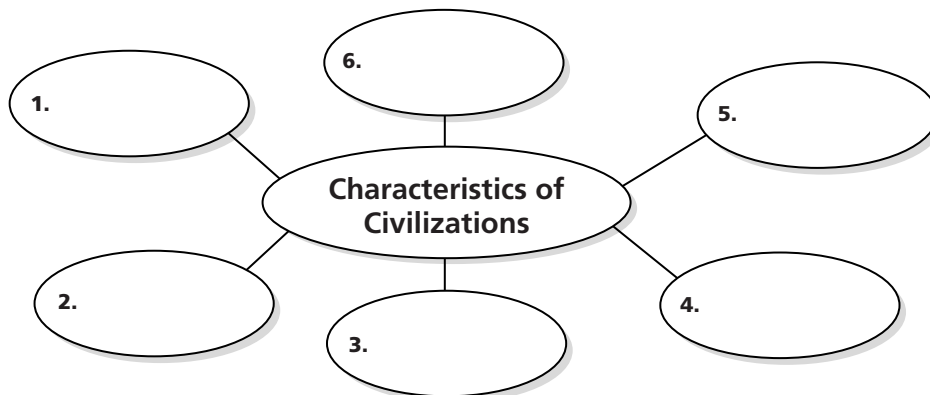
DRAWING FROM EXPERIENCE

Imagine that you are asked to make a display that is a representation of your culture. What items would you include? Why?

In the last section, you read about the early stages of human development. You also learned about the culture (way of life) of Paleolithic people. In this section, you will learn about the culture of people in the Neolithic Age. You will also learn how the Neolithic Revolution set the stage for the rise of civilization.

ORGANIZING YOUR THOUGHTS

Use the concept web below to help you take notes. A civilization has six main characteristics. Name the characteristics.



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Chapter 1, Section 2 (continued)

READ TO LEARN

• The Neolithic Revolution

At the end of the last Ice Age, around 8000 B.C., a major change took place. People began to plant and grow food on a regular basis—what we call **systematic agriculture**. They also began to tame and keep animals as a source of meat, milk, and wool. This adaptation of animals for human use is called **domestication**. The change from gathering food and hunting animals to planting crops and taming animals is called the **Neolithic Revolution**, because it took place in the Neolithic Age. The Neolithic Age is the period of human history from 8000 to 4000 B.C. Some historians believe this revolution was the single most important development in human history. It gave humans greater control over their environment. It also meant that they could stop being nomads and live in settled communities.

Between 8000 and 5000 B.C., systematic agriculture developed in different parts of the world. People in Southwest Asia began to grow wheat and barley and to domesticate (tame) pigs, cows, goats, and sheep. Farming spread from southwestern Asia into Europe, Egypt, and parts of India. A different kind of farming developed in parts of Africa. Root crops, such as yams, and tree crops, such as bananas, were grown in central Africa. In Southeast Asia and in southern China, rice began to be grown. In the Western Hemisphere, Mesoamericans (people who lived in present-day Mexico and Central America) grew beans, squash, and maize (corn). They also domesticated dogs and fowl during this period.

Because people were no longer forced to move from place to place to find food, they began to live in settlements. Historians call these settlements Neolithic farming villages. Two of the largest ones were Jericho, in Palestine near the Dead Sea, and Catal Huyuk, in what is present-day Turkey. People often had more food than they needed right away. This made it possible for people to do things other than farming. For example, some people became artisans. **Artisans** were skilled workers who made items such as weapons and jewelry. These items could be traded with other people. In Catal Huyuk, shrines and statues show that religion had an important role in the lives of Neolithic people.

The Neolithic Revolution led to other changes. People began to build houses and to store food and other goods. They could trade the food and goods for other things. People began to specialize in different crafts, and a division of labor developed. Fibers from plants, such as flax and cotton, were used to make cloth. The relationship between men and women also changed. Men became more active in farming and herding animals. Women cared for the children, wove cloth, and performed other tasks that they could do in the home settlement. As a result, men began to play a more dominant role.

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Chapter 1, Section 2 (continued)

Between 4000 and 3000 B.C., people began to use metals, which gave them even more control over their environments. Copper was the first metal that was used to make tools. After 4000 B.C., people in western Asia learned how to make bronze, by combining copper and tin. The period from around 3000 to 1200 B.C. is called the **Bronze Age** because of the widespread use of bronze. The period after around 1000 B.C. is known as the Iron Age because of widespread use of iron tools and weapons.

7. What changes took place during the Neolithic Age?

• The Emergence of Civilization (page 30)

The **culture** of a people is the way of life that they follow. Neolithic settlements developed from villages with simple cultures to large civilizations. A **civilization** is a complex culture in which large numbers of human beings share a number of common elements. Historians have identified the basic characteristics of civilizations. Six of these characteristics are cities, government, religion, social structure, writing, and art.

In each civilization, a significant part of the population lived in cities. Governments organized armies to protect the people and made laws to regulate their lives. In the first civilizations, rulers led governments. These rulers were usually **monarchs** (kings or queens who rule a kingdom).

All of the new civilizations developed religions to explain their world. Priests performed rituals to please gods and goddesses. Rulers claimed that the gods gave their power to them. Some rulers even claimed to be gods.

New social structures developed in the new civilizations. Rulers and an upper class of priests, government officials, and warriors were at the top. Below this upper class was a large group of free people-farmers, artisans, and craftspeople. At the bottom was a slave class.

Writing was important in these new civilizations. Rulers, priests, and merchants used writing to keep accurate records. Writing also became a means of creative expression. The world's first works of literature were written. Art was also a characteristic of the new civilizations. People began to build temples as places for worship and sacrifice. They built pyramids as places to bury kings and other important people. They also began to use painting and sculpture to portray gods and goddesses or natural forces.

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Chapter 1, Section 2 *(continued)*

8. How are civilizations different from simpler cultures?

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Chapter 2, Section 1

For use with textbook pages 37–43

CIVILIZATION BEGINS IN MESOPOTAMIA

KEY TERMS

city-state cities and the countryside around them, which were the basic units of Sumerian civilization (page 39)

ziggurat a massive stepped tower with a temple on top (page 39)

theocracy a government by divine authority (page 39)

empire a large political unit or state, usually under a single leader, that controls many people or territories (page 40)

patriarchal a form of society dominated by men (page 41)

polytheistic a belief in many gods (page 42)

cuneiform (“wedge-shaped”) the Sumerian system of writing (page 42)

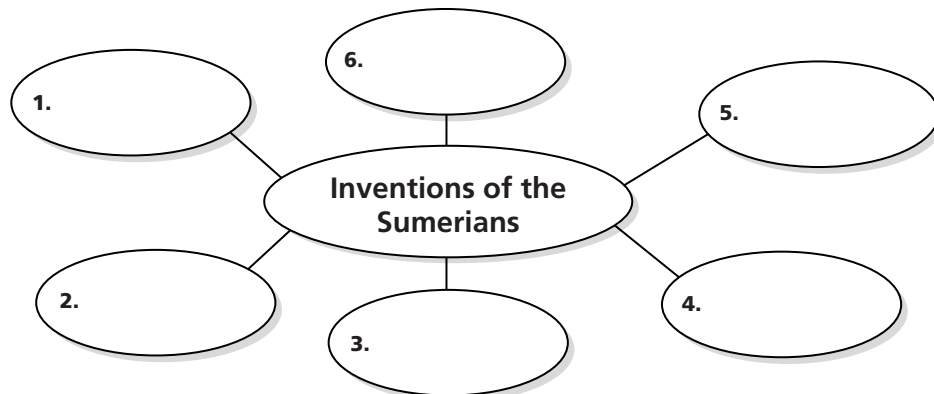
DRAWING FROM EXPERIENCE

What do you think life would be like if you did not have a system of writing? How would you communicate? What problems would result?

In this section, you will learn about the beginning of civilization in Mesopotamia. You will learn about the Sumerians, the people who invented the first writing system. You will also learn about the first empires in this region.

ORGANIZING YOUR THOUGHTS

Use the concept web below to help you take notes. Name six inventions of the Sumerians.



Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 2, Section 1 (continued)

READ TO LEARN

- **The Impact of Geography** (page 37)

The valley between the Tigris and Euphrates Rivers is called Mesopotamia. Mesopotamia means the land “between the rivers.” Mesopotamia was at the eastern end of the Fertile Crescent. The Fertile Crescent is an area from the Mediterranean Sea to the Persian Gulf. Early civilizations began in this area, because it had land with rich soil.

The soil in Mesopotamia was rich because of the two rivers. Each spring, the rivers overflowed their banks. The floods left layers of silt, the material deposited by the rivers. The people of Mesopotamia learned how to control the flow of the rivers. They created irrigation and drainage ditches. This made it possible for them to grow crops on a regular basis. They were able to grow an abundance of food, which allowed people to live together in cities.

Ancient Mesopotamia included three general areas: Assyria, Akkad, and Sumer. The Sumerians were the creators of the first Mesopotamian civilization.

7. Where was Mesopotamia located?

- **The City-States of Ancient Mesopotamia** (page 38)

By 3000 B.C., the Sumerians had started several cities in southern Mesopotamia. Three of these cities were Eridu, Ur, and Uruk. The cities controlled the countryside around them. These **city-states** were the basic units of Sumerian civilization. Walls made out of mud bricks surrounded the cities. The Sumerian people also used mud bricks to build their houses and other buildings. They also invented the arch and the dome.

The most important building in a Sumerian city was the temple. The temple was dedicated to the chief god or goddess of the city. The temple was often built on top of a ziggurat. A **ziggurat** is a massive stepped tower. The temples and related buildings were the center of Sumerian cities. Priests and priestesses supervised the temples, so they had a great deal of power.

The Sumerians believed that the gods ruled the cities. This made their city-states theocracies. A **theocracy** is a government by divine authority. Eventually, kings began to rule the Sumerian city-states. The Sumerians believed that kings got their power from the gods. Kings led armies and supervised building and irrigation projects.

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Chapter 2, Section 1 (continued)

Most of the Sumerians were farmers, but the Sumerians also learned how to make metal goods, pottery, and wool cloth. The Sumerians began to trade their goods for copper, tin, and timber. The invention of the wheel around 3000 B.C. made it easier to take goods from place to place.

Sumerian city-states had three major social groups: nobles, commoners, and slaves. The nobles were the kings and priests and their families. Commoners included farmers, fishers, merchants, and craftspeople. Slaves belonged to palace and temple officials. Rich landowners also used slaves to farm their lands.

8. Which people had the most power in the Sumerian city-states?

- **Empires in Ancient Mesopotamia** (page 40)

City-states began to fight other city-states for control of land and water. Other groups also invaded city-states. The land of Mesopotamia was very flat, so it was easy to invade. To the north of the Sumerian city-states were people called the Akkadians. Their leader's name was Sargon. Around 2340 B.C., the Akkadians overran the Sumerian city-states. They set up the first empire in world history. An **empire** is a large political unit or state, usually under a single leader, that controls many peoples or territories.

People from the neighboring hills eventually attacked the Akkadian Empire. It ended about 2100 B.C., and the system of warring city-states returned. In 1792 B.C., a new empire began to control much of Mesopotamia. The leadership of this empire came from Babylon, a city-state south of Akkad. The king of Babylon was Hammurabi. He gained control of Sumer and Akkad. After he died in 1750 B.C., weaker kings were unable to keep the Babylonian Empire united, and it finally fell to new invaders.

9. What two empires gained control of the Sumerian city-states?

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 2, Section 1 (continued)

• The Code of Hammurabi (page 41)

One of Hammurabi's most important achievements was a collection of laws. These laws are called the Code of Hammurabi. Penalties were severe, but they were different for each class of people. Lower class people (commoners) were punished more severely than upper class people (nobles). The principle of retribution ("an eye for an eye, tooth for a tooth") was the basis for many of the laws.

A large category of the laws focused on marriage and the family. Society in Mesopotamia was **patriarchal**. This means that men dominated it. Men ruled their wives and children. A woman who neglected her home could be drowned. A child who struck his father could have his hand cut off. Hammurabi's law code covered almost every aspect of people's lives.

10. What principle was the basis for many of the laws in Hammurabi's code?

• The Importance of Religion (page 42)

The climate in Mesopotamia was harsh. There were heavy rains, scorching winds, and famines. Floods were heavy and unpredictable. The people knew that they could not control these things, so they believed that supernatural forces controlled their world. They believed that there were almost three thousand gods and goddesses. Their religion is called **polytheistic**, because they believed in many gods. Human beings were supposed to obey and serve the gods. They could never be sure what the gods might do to help or hurt them.

11. Why did the people of Mesopotamia believe that supernatural forces controlled their world?

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 2, Section 1 (continued)

• The Creativity of the Sumerians (page 42)

The Sumerians invented many things that still affect our lives today. Perhaps their greatest invention was their writing. Their system of writing is called **cuneiform** (“wedge-shaped”). They made wedge-shaped marks on clay tablets. The tablets were then baked or dried in the sun. These tablets could last a long time. Many of the tablets have lasted until modern times and have been found by archaeologists.

The people of Mesopotamia used writing to keep records. Cuneiform writing was taught in schools that trained scribes. The schools were in operation by 2500 B.C. Boys from wealthy families learned to be scribes as a way to start their careers. Scribes often became leaders of their cities, temples, and armies. Students learned how to write by copying the same writings over and over again.

Writing allowed people to pass knowledge from person to person and generation to generation. It also made it possible to record poems and other forms of literature. The most famous piece of Mesopotamian literature is the *Epic of Gilgamesh*. It is a poem about a legendary king named Gilgamesh.

The Sumerians also invented devices to help them in their daily lives. The wagon wheel made it easier to get people and goods from place to place. The potter’s wheel, the sundial, and the arch are other examples of Sumerian inventions. The Sumerians were also the first people to make bronze out of copper and tin. They also made outstanding achievements in math and astronomy.

12. Why was writing important to the Sumerians?

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 2, Section 2

For use with textbook pages 45–53

EGYPTIAN CIVILIZATION: “THE GIFT OF THE NILE”

KEY TERMS

- dynasty** a family of rulers whose right to rule is passed on within the family (*page 47*)
- pharaoh** (“great house” or “palace”) the most common title of Egyptian monarchs (*page 47*)
- bureaucracy** an administrative organization with officials and regular procedures (*page 48*)
- vizier** (“the steward of the whole land”) the official in charge of the government bureaucracy in ancient Egypt (*page 48*)
- mummification** a process of slowly drying a dead body to prevent it from rotting (*page 48*)
- hieroglyphics** (“priest-carvings” or “sacred writings”) the Greek name for the earliest Egyptian writing (*page 52*)
- hieratic script** a simplified version of hieroglyphics that was used for business transactions, record keeping, and the general needs of daily life in Egypt (*page 52*)

DRAWING FROM EXPERIENCE

What do you think of when you hear the words “ancient Egypt”? What do you think life was like in ancient Egypt?

In the last section, you learned about the early civilization of Mesopotamia. In this section, you will learn about Egyptian civilization in the Nile Valley.

ORGANIZING YOUR THOUGHTS

Use the chart below to help you take notes. Historians have divided Egyptian history into three major periods, the Old Kingdom, Middle Kingdom, and New Kingdom. List the major accomplishments and events that occurred during these periods.

| Egyptian Periods | Accomplishments and Events |
|------------------|----------------------------|
| Old Kingdom | 1. |
| Middle Kingdom | 2. |
| New Kingdom | 3. |

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 2, Section 2 (continued)

READ TO LEARN

- **The Impact of Geography** (page 45)

The Nile is the longest river in the world. It begins in Africa and empties into the Mediterranean Sea. About a hundred miles before it reaches the sea, it splits into two branches. This split forms a triangle of land, called a delta. The Nile Delta is called Lower Egypt. The land to the south is called Upper Egypt. The point where the delta splits is called the tip of the delta. The most important cities in Egypt developed at the tip of the delta.

The yearly flooding of the Nile was called the “miracle” of the Nile. Unlike the floods in Mesopotamia, the Nile floods were predictable. When the river flooded, it left a deposit of mud on both sides of the river. This created an area of rich soil. Farmers were able to grow a surplus of food in the Nile Valley. This surplus made Egypt prosperous. The Nile also made it easy to travel throughout the land.

Egypt had natural barriers that protected it from invasion. The barriers were the deserts to the west and east; the Red Sea to the east; the cataracts (rapids) to the south; and the Mediterranean Sea to the north. These barriers and the regularity of the Nile floods made the Egyptian people feel secure. They also had confidence in the stability of things.

4. How did the Nile affect life in ancient Egypt?

- **The Importance of Religion** (page 46)

Religion also made Egyptians feel secure. Like the people of Mesopotamia, they were polytheistic. Their most important gods were sun gods and land gods. They believed that the sun god had different forms and names, depending on his role. Two names for the sun god were Atum and Re. Egyptian rulers had the title Son of Re, because they were seen as earthly forms of Re.

Two of the river and land gods were Osiris and Isis. Osiris was a symbol of resurrection (coming back to life). A famous Egyptian myth says that Osiris was killed by his brother Seth, who cut his body into pieces and threw them into the Nile. Osiris’s wife, Isis, found the pieces, and she and the other gods brought Osiris back to life. Egyptians believed that they could be reborn after they died, like Osiris.

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 2, Section 2 (continued)

5. Which gods were most important to the Egyptians?

• The Course of Egyptian History (page 47)

Historians have divided Egyptian history into three major periods, known as the Old Kingdom, Middle Kingdom, and New Kingdom. These periods were times of stability. Between these periods were times of chaos and invasion, known as Intermediate periods.

Egyptian history begins around 3100 B.C., when King Menes united Upper and Lower Egypt into one kingdom. King Menes also created the first dynasty. A **dynasty** is a family of rulers whose right to rule is passed on within the family.

The Old Kingdom lasted from about 2700 to 2200 B.C. It was a time of prosperity and splendor. The monarchs of the Old Kingdom were powerful rulers. The most common title for Egyptian monarchs was **pharaoh**. The word pharaoh originally meant “great house” or “palace.” The Egyptians believed that pharaohs were gods. By obeying their pharaoh, they believed that they were helping to keep their world stable. Pharaohs had unlimited power to rule their people, but they developed a bureaucracy to help them rule. A **bureaucracy** is an administrative organization with officials and regular procedures. The most important official was the **vizier** (“the steward of the whole land”). He reported directly to the pharaoh and was in charge of the government bureaucracy.

One of the greatest achievements of Egyptian civilization was the building of the pyramids. This took place during the Old Kingdom. Pyramids were tombs for the bodies of dead pharaohs. The tombs were stocked with food and other supplies. The Egyptians believed that human beings had two bodies, a physical one and a spiritual one. The spiritual body was called the *ka*. If the physical body was preserved after death and its tomb was stocked with food and supplies, the *ka* could return. To preserve the physical body after death, the Egyptians used mummification. **Mummification** is the process of slowly drying a dead body to prevent it from rotting.

The largest of the pyramids was built at Giza around 2540 B.C. It was built by King Khufu and is called the Great Pyramid. Tradition says that it took 100,000 Egyptians 20 years to build the Great Pyramid. Guarding this pyramid is a huge statue, known as the Great Sphinx. It has the body of a lion and a human head. The Great Pyramid still stands as a symbol of the power of the Egyptian pharaohs.

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 2, Section 2 (continued)

The Old Kingdom eventually collapsed. It was followed by a period of chaos that lasted about 150 years. Around 2050 B.C., a new dynasty gained control of Egypt. This marked the beginning of the Middle Kingdom. The Middle Kingdom lasted until 1652 B.C. and was a time of stability. During the Middle Kingdom, Egypt conquered Nubia and sent armies to Syria and Palestine. The pharaohs of the Middle Kingdom were concerned about their people. They drained the swampland in the Nile Delta to give the people more land to farm. They also dug a canal to connect the Nile and the Red Sea. This aided trade and transportation.

The Middle Kingdom ended around 1652 B.C. when the Hyksos invaded Egypt. The Hyksos were people from western Asia who used horse-drawn chariots. They ruled Egypt for almost a hundred years. The Egyptians learned some important skills from the Hyksos. They learned how to make bronze tools and weapons. They also learned how to use chariots.

Eventually a new dynasty of pharaohs used the new skills and weapons to drive out the Hyksos. The New Kingdom lasted from about 1567 to 1085 B.C. During the period of the New Kingdom, Egypt created an empire and became the most powerful state in Southwest Asia. The pharaohs of the New Kingdom built new temples. Hatshepsut, the first woman to become pharaoh, built a great temple at Deir el Bahri, near Thebes.

There were also problems during the New Kingdom. The pharaoh Amenhotep IV forced the people to worship a single god, Aton. He closed the temples of the other gods, and changed his own name to Akhenaton ("It is well with Aton"). After he died, the new pharaoh, Tutankhamen, restored the old gods. But the problems caused by Amenhotep's changes led to a loss of Egypt's empire.

Under Ramses II, the Egyptians tried to regain control of their earlier empire, but they were only partly successful. During the thirteenth century B.C., "Sea Peoples" invaded the Egyptian Empire and it came to an end. The New Kingdom itself ended in 1085 B.C.

For the next thousand years, Libyans, Nubians, Persians, and Macedonians dominated Egypt. In the first century B.C., the pharaoh Cleopatra VII tried to regain Egypt's independence. But she was defeated, and Egypt became part of the Roman empire.

6. What is mummification, and why did the Egyptians use it?

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 2, Section 2 (continued)

• Society in Ancient Egypt (page 51)

Egyptian society was organized like a pyramid. The pharaoh was at the top. Under him was a small upper class of nobles and priests. Below the upper class were merchants, artisans, scribes, and tax collectors. Merchants traded goods up and down the Nile. Some of them also traded with other countries. Artisans made many different goods, such as paper, stone dishes, painted boxes, wooden furniture, linen clothes, and gold, silver and copper items.

Most of the people in Egypt were in the lower classes. They were mainly peasants who farmed the land. They paid taxes from the crops they grew, and they lived in small villages. They also served in the military and were forced to work on building projects.

7. How was Egyptian society like a pyramid?

• Daily Life in Ancient Egypt (page 52)

Ancient Egyptians had a positive attitude toward daily life. They married young, and a man normally had only one wife. If a marriage ended in divorce, the wife was compensated. Men were the masters in their houses, but women were well respected. Wives were in charge of the household and the education of children. They kept control of their property and inheritance even after they married. Some women operated businesses. Upper-class women could become priestesses, and four queens became pharaohs.

Parents arranged marriages for their children. The main purpose of marriage was to produce children, especially sons. Only sons could carry on the family name. But daughters were also valued.

8. How were women treated in Ancient Egypt?

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 2, Section 2 (continued)

- **Writing and Education** (page 52)

Writing in Egypt began around 3000 B.C. The Greeks called the earliest Egyptian writing **hieroglyphics**. Hieroglyphics means “priest-carvings” or “sacred writings.” Hieroglyphics used both pictures and more abstract forms. It was complex and took a long time to learn. It was used for writing on temple walls and in tombs. A simpler version of hieroglyphics was developed. It is called **hieratic script** and was used for business and in daily life. At first, hieroglyphics were carved in stone. Later, hieratic script was written on papyrus. Papyrus was a paper made from the papyrus reed that grew along the Nile.

Egyptian scribes taught the art of writing. At the age of 10, boys from upper class families went to schools run by scribes to learn to read and write. Girls stayed at home and learned housekeeping skills from their mothers.

9. What is hieratic script?

- **Achievements in Art and Science** (page 52)

Pyramids, temples, and other monuments show the artistic ability of the Egyptians. Artists and sculptors followed particular formulas in style. This gave Egyptian art a distinctive look.

Egyptians also made advances in mathematics and science. They used geometry and learned how to calculate area and volume. This helped them build the pyramids. They also developed a 365-day calendar, and became experts in human anatomy. They used splints, bandages, and compresses to treat fractures, wounds, and disease.

10. What advances did the Egyptians make in math and science?

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 2, Section 3

For use with textbook pages 54–60

NEW CENTERS OF CIVILIZATION

KEY TERMS

pastoral nomads nomads who domesticated animals for food and clothing (page 55)

monotheistic the belief in one god (page 59)

DRAWING FROM EXPERIENCE

What are the Ten Commandments? When do you think they were established? What do you think was their purpose? What purpose do you think they have today?

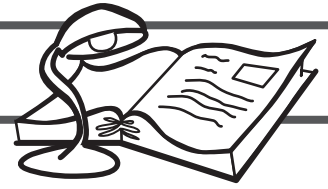
In the last section, you learned about the civilization of Ancient Egypt. In this section, you will learn about some other early civilizations, including the Phoenicians and the Israelites. The Ten Commandments were the basis of the law of the Israelites.

ORGANIZING YOUR THOUGHTS

Use the chart below to help you take notes. The achievements of the Hittites, Phoenicians, and Israelites still affect our lives today. Identify at least one achievement of each civilization that still affects us today.

| Civilization | Achievement |
|--------------|-------------|
| Hittites | 1. |
| Phoenicians | 2. |
| Israelites | 3. |

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 2, Section 3 (continued)

READ TO LEARN

- **The Role of Nomadic Peoples** (page 54)

On the fringes of the civilizations of Mesopotamia and Egypt, there were still nomads who survived by hunting and gathering and herding animals. **Pastoral nomads** domesticated animals for food and clothing. They moved along regular routes to find food for their animals.

The Indo-Europeans were one of the most important nomadic peoples. They probably originated somewhere in the steppe region north of the Black Sea or in Southwest Asia. Around 2000 B.C., they began to move into Europe, India, and western Asia. One group of Indo-Europeans combined with the native peoples of Asia Minor and Anatolia to form the Hittite kingdom.

Between 1600 and 1200 B.C., the Hittites created their own empire. The Hittites were the first of the Indo-Europeans to use iron. This allowed them to use weapons that were stronger and cheaper to make. The Hittites even threatened the power of the Egyptians. But around 1200 B.C., new invaders called “the Sea Peoples” destroyed the Hittite Empire.

4. What are pastoral nomads?

- **The Phoenicians** (page 55)

The Phoenicians lived in the area of Palestine along the Mediterranean coast. Because of their location, trade was the basis of their economy. After the downfall of the Hittites and Egyptians, they were able to expand their trade. They improved their ships and became a trade empire. They sailed into the Atlantic Oceans and even went as far as Britain and the west coast of Africa. They set up colonies in the Mediterranean. Their most famous colony was Carthage, which was located on the North African coast.

The Phoenician culture is best known for its alphabet. Phoenicians developed a system of writing that used 22 different signs to represent the sounds of their language. These signs (letters) could be used to spell all of the words in their language. This alphabet was passed on to the Greeks. The Roman alphabet that we use today is derived from this alphabet.

5. What was the basis of the Phoenician economy?

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 2, Section 3 (continued)

• The “Children of Israel” (page 56)

Another group of people, the Israelites, lived to the south of the Phoenicians. They played only a minor role in the politics of the region, but their religion became a major world religion. This religion, known today as Judaism, influenced the religions of Christianity and Islam. Much of the history and beliefs of the Israelites are recorded in what Christians call the Old Testament.

According to their history, the Israelites came from Mesopotamia to Palestine, which they called Canaan. Their lifestyle was based on grazing flocks and herds. Because of a drought, they moved to Egypt. In Egypt they became slaves until Moses led them out. They wandered in the desert for many years and finally returned to Palestine. They were organized in tribes. Between 1200 and 1000 B.C., the tribes formed a united kingdom known as Israel.

By the time of King Solomon, the Israelites controlled all of Palestine and made Jerusalem their capital. Solomon ruled from about 970 to 930 B.C. He expanded the government and army and encouraged trade with other countries. He is best known for building a temple in Jerusalem.

After Solomon’s death, the northern and southern tribes split into two separate kingdoms. The ten northern tribes became the Kingdom of Israel. Their capital was at Samaria. The two southern tribes became the Kingdom of Judah. Their capital was Jerusalem. In 722 B.C., the Assyrians attacked the Kingdom of Israel. Many Israelites were sent to other parts of the Assyrian Empire. These Israelites merged with other peoples and lost their identity. They are called the “ten lost tribes.”

The Kingdom of Judah survived the Assyrians. But the Chaldeans defeated the Assyrians and then conquered the Kingdom of Judah. Jerusalem was completely destroyed in 586 B.C. Many of the people of Judah were sent to Babylonia as captives. Finally, the Persians conquered the Chaldeans and allowed the people of Judah to return to Jerusalem. The Kingdom of Judah stayed under Persian control until the fourth century B.C. The people of Judah eventually became known as the Jews, and their religion became known as Judaism.

The Jews were **monotheistic**. This means that they believed in one God. They called him Yahweh. He was the creator of the world and everything in it. The stars, moon, rivers, wind, and other natural forces were not gods. The Jews believed that when Moses led the Israelites out of Egypt, God made a covenant, or contract, with them. To fulfill the covenant, they needed to obey the law of God, called the Ten Commandments. The Jews also believed that God sent prophets to his people to teach them and warn them. The prophets said that God wanted people to live justly and care for the poor. The Ten Commandments and the words of the prophets became the basis for modern laws and ideas of social justice.

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 2, Section 3 (continued)

The Jewish religion was unique among the religions of western Asia and Egypt. The other religions were polytheistic, and only priests had access to the gods and their wishes. In the Jewish tradition, God's wishes had been written down. No single person could claim that he alone knew God's will. This knowledge was open to anyone who could read Hebrew. Unlike most of the other peoples of Southwest Asia, the Jews would not accept the gods of their conquerors. To obey their God, they might even have to refuse to obey their conquerors.

6. How was the Jewish religion different from other religions in western Asia and Egypt?

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 2, Section 4

For use with textbook pages 61–64

THE RISE OF NEW EMPIRES

KEY TERMS

satrapy a province in the Persian empire (*page 63*)

satrap (“protector of the kingdom”) the governor of each province, who collected taxes, provided justice, and recruited soldiers (*page 63*)

monarchy government under the rule of a king or queen (*page 64*)

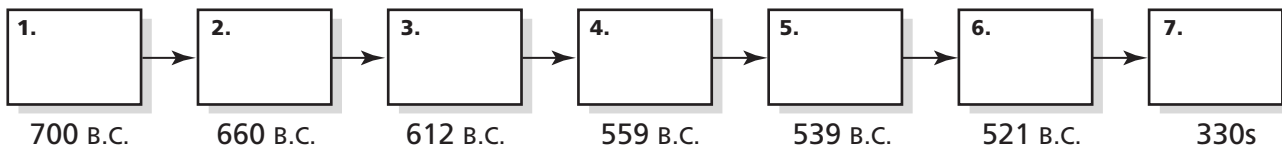
DRAWING FROM EXPERIENCE

What do you think of when you hear the word “empire”? Are there any empires today? Are “superpowers” empires? Why or why not?

In the last section, you learned about the civilizations of the Hittites, Phoenicians, and Israelites. In this section, you will learn about the empires that conquered the Israelites

ORGANIZING YOUR THOUGHTS

Use the time line below to help you take notes. List the major events in Assyrian and Persian history.



Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 2, Section 4 (continued)

READ TO LEARN

- **The Assyrian Empire** (page 61)

Assyria is located on the upper Tigris River. The Assyrians used iron weapons to conquer other people and build an empire by 700 B.C. The Assyrian Empire included Mesopotamia, parts of the Iranian Plateau, sections of Asia Minor, Syria, Palestine, and Egypt.

The Assyrian Empire was well organized. The Assyrians developed a system of communication throughout the empire. Relays of horses carried messages along a network of posts. A message could be sent to the king from anywhere in the empire and receive an answer within a week. Ashurbanipal, one of the last Assyrian kings, built one of the world's first libraries at Nineveh. The Assyrian army was large, well organized, and disciplined. It was the first large army to use iron weapons. The Assyrians treated the people they conquered cruelly.

The Assyrian Empire did not last long, however. In 612 B.C., it fell to the Chaldeans and Medes, who were people who lived in the East.

8. How did the Assyrians communicate throughout their empire?

- **The Persian Empire** (page 62)

After the fall of the Assyrian Empire, the Chaldeans made Babylonia the most important state in western Asia. The king of the Chaldeans was Nebuchadnezzar. He rebuilt Babylon as the center of his empire and made it one of the great cities of the ancient world.

In 539 B.C., Babylon fell to the Persians. The Persians were an Indo-European people who lived in what is now southwestern Iran. The Persians were nomads who were organized in groups. One family was able to unite the groups. Cyrus, who was a member of that family, created a powerful Persian empire that stretched from Asia Minor to western India.

Cyrus ruled from 559 to 530 B.C. The people of his time called Cyrus "the Great." He was an unusual ruler, who ruled with great wisdom and compassion. He allowed the Jews, who had been brought to Babylon in the sixth century B.C., to return to Jerusalem. He had a respect for other cultures. When he built his palaces, he used Assyrian, Babylonian, and Egyptian designs and methods.

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 2, Section 4 (continued)

The rulers after Cyrus added to the Persian Empire. His son Cambyses invaded Egypt. Darius, who ruled from 521 to 486 B.C., added a province in India. He then moved into Europe and conquered Thrace. The Persian Empire became the largest empire that the world had ever seen.

Darius divided the empire into 20 provinces, called **satrapies**. A governor, or **satrap**, ruled each province. Satrap means “protector of the kingdom.” The satraps collected taxes, provided justice, and recruited soldiers. Like the Assyrians, the Persians used a relay of horses to take messages throughout the empire. The roads were well maintained. The Royal Road went from Lydia to Susa, the chief capital of the empire.

The power of the Persian Empire depended upon the military. By the time of Darius, the Persian kings had created an army of professional soldiers. It had a cavalry of ten thousand and an infantry of ten thousand. These groups were called the Immortals because there were always ten thousand in each group. If one soldier died, he was immediately replaced.

Persians kings had many wives and children. For example, Artaxerxes II had 115 sons. The sons of the kings had no real power, so they were always plotting to gain the throne. Nine of the rulers after Darius were murdered. For example, Xerxes II reigned for only 45 days before his half-brother murdered him in bed. Over time, these struggles for the throne weakened the **monarchy** (government under the rule of a king or queen). During the 330s B.C., the Persian Empire fell to the Greek ruler Alexander the Great.

The Persians’ religion was called Zoroastrianism. According to Persian tradition, Zoroaster was born in 660 B.C. His teachings were written down in the *Zend Avesta*, the sacred book of Zoroastrianism. The followers of Zoroaster were monotheistic. Their god was called Ahuramazda (the “Wise Lord”). He was the creator, but Ahriman, an evil spirit, opposed him. Zoroaster taught that humans could choose between good and evil. He also taught that there would be an end to the struggle between good and evil and that Ahuramazda would triumph.

9. Why was Cyrus called “the Great”?

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 3, Section 1

For use with textbook pages 71–79

EARLY CIVILIZATION IN INDIA

KEY TERMS

monsoon a seasonal wind pattern in southern Asia (page 72)

Sanskrit a writing system developed by the Aryans (page 74)

raja an Aryan prince or leader (page 74)

caste system a set of rigid social categories or classes that determines a person's occupation, economic potential, and position in society (page 75)

caste the English term for an Indian social class (page 75)

Hinduism the religion of the majority of the Indian people that originated in the religious beliefs of the Aryans (page 77)

reincarnation the belief that the individual soul is reborn in a different form after death (page 77)

karma the force generated by a person's actions that determines how the person will be reborn in the next life (page 77)

dharma the divine law in Hinduism that requires all people to do their duty (page 77)

yoga ("union") a method of training designed to lead to union with Brahman (page 77)

ascetics people who practiced self-denial to achieve an understanding of ultimate reality (page 78)

nirvana ultimate reality in Buddhism (the end of the self and a reunion with the Great World Soul) (page 78)

Buddhism a religion founded in India in the sixth century B.C. by Siddhartha Gautama, known as the Buddha (page 78)

DRAWING FROM EXPERIENCE

What kind of climate do you live in? How does the climate affect the way you live?

In this section, you will learn about the early civilizations in India and how the climate of India influenced those civilizations.

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 3, Section 1 (continued)

ORGANIZING YOUR THOUGHTS

Use the diagram below to help you take notes. The caste system in India had five major divisions. List the five divisions, starting from the top of the social scale.

| The Caste System of India |
|----------------------------------|
| 1. |
| 2. |
| 3. |
| 4. |
| 5. |

READ TO LEARN

- **The Land of India** (page 71)

The Indian subcontinent is shaped like a triangle and “hangs” from the southern ridge of Asia. The geography of India is diverse. In the far north are the Himalaya, the highest mountains in the world. South of the Himalaya region is the rich valley of the Ganges River. This was one of the chief regions of Indian culture. To the west is the Indus River valley. Today it is a dry plateau, but in ancient times, it had a more moderate climate and was the cradle of Indian civilization. South of these two river valleys is the Deccan. It is a plateau that extends from the Ganges Valley to the southern tip of India. The interior of the plateau is hilly and dry. India’s western and eastern coasts are lush plains. They have historically been some of the most densely populated regions of India.

The most important feature of India’s climate is the monsoon. A **monsoon** is a seasonal wind pattern in southern Asia. The summer monsoon blows warm, moist air from the southwest. The winter monsoon blows cold, dry air from the northeast. The summer monsoon brings heavy rains. Indian farmers depend on these rains to grow their crops. If the rains come early or late, or if there is too much or too little rain, crops are ruined and many people starve.

6. How do monsoons affect life in India?

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 3, Section 1 (continued)

• India's First Civilization (page 72)

Early civilization in India began in river valleys. Between 3000 B.C. and 1500 B.C., the valleys of the Indus River had a flourishing civilization. Archaeologists have found the remains of more than a thousand settlements in this region. There were two major cities, Harappa and Mohenjo-Daro. The civilization in these cities lasted for hundreds of years. Historians call it Harappan or Indus civilization.

At its height, Harappa had 35,000 people. Mohenjo-Daro probably had around 35,000 to 40,000 people. Both cities were carefully planned. The main streets ran in a north-south direction and were crossed by smaller east-west streets. The cities were divided into large walled neighborhoods. Most buildings were made of mud bricks. Public wells provided the people with a regular supply of water. Houses had drains that were connected to a sewer system under the streets. A system of chutes took trash from houses to garbage bins.

It took a well-organized government to maintain these cities. Harappan rulers based their power on a belief in divine assistance. Religion and politics were closely linked. The palace and the temple were located in the same citadel, or fortress, at Harappa.

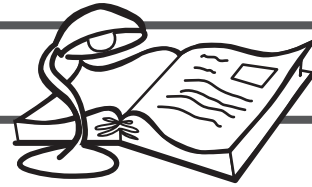
The Harappan economy was based on farming. The Indus River flooded each year and provided rich soil for growing crops. The chief crops were wheat, barley, and peas. The Harappans traded with city-states in Mesopotamia. Much of this trade was carried by ship through the Persian Gulf.

7. In what ways were the cities of Harappa and Mohenjo-Daro well planned?

• The Arrival of the Aryans (page 74)

Around 1500 B.C., a group of Indo-European nomads moved from central Asia into northern India. These people were known as the Aryans. They conquered the Harappans and created a new Indian society based on their own culture. They were experts in warfare. They eventually gained control of most of India.

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 3, Section 1 (continued)

After settling in India, the Aryans stopped being pastoral nomads and became farmers. The creation of the iron plow and the use of irrigation made it possible for them to turn the jungle along the Ganges River into farmland. The basic crops in the north were wheat, barley, and millet. Rice was grown in the river valleys. Grain and vegetables were grown in the south. Cotton and spices, such as pepper, ginger, and cinnamon, were also grown.

By 1000 B.C., the Aryans had developed a system of writing. This writing system is called Sanskrit. They used Sanskrit to write down the legends and religious rituals that had been passed down from generation to generation. The early writings of the Aryans show that the Aryans were often at war. Aryan leaders, known as **rajās** (princes), attacked each other's fortresses and seized women, cattle, and other treasures.

8. How did the Aryans change after they settled in India?

• Society in Ancient India (page 75)

During the time of the Aryans, a system of social classes developed in India. This system has lasted, with only minor changes, to the present day. The **caste system** was a set of rigid social categories that determined a person's occupation, economic potential, and position in society. It was based in part on skin color. There were five major divisions of Indian classes, or **castes**, in ancient times. At the top was the priestly class, whose members were known as Brahmins. The second caste was the Kshatriyas, or warriors. The third-ranked caste was the Vaisyas, or commoners. Most Vaisyas were merchants or farmers. The fourth caste was the Sudras. This was the largest group of Indian people. The Sudras were dark-skinned native people, not Aryans. Most of them were peasants or people who did other forms of manual labor. They had only limited rights in society. At the lowest level were the Untouchables. They were given degrading jobs that other Indians would not do, like collecting trash and handling dead bodies. They were not considered human. No Indian would touch or eat food handled by an Untouchable.

Life in ancient India centered on the family. The family was the basic unit in society. The ideal was an extended family, with three generations (grandparents, parents, and children) living under one roof. Indian society was patriarchal. Only men could inherit property. Women were not allowed to serve as priests, and generally, only men were educated. Upper-class young

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 3, Section 1 (continued)

men were not supposed to marry until they completed 12 years of study. Divorce was usually not allowed. Husbands could take a second wife if the first wife could not bear children. Children were important because they were expected to take care of their parents as they grew older. When a man died, his wife was expected to follow the ritual of *suttee*. In ancient India, the dead were placed on heaps of material called pyres, which were then set on fire. Suttee required a wife to throw herself on the fire with her dead husband's body.

9. How were women treated in ancient India?

- **Hinduism** (page 77)

Hinduism is the religion of the majority of the Indian people. It had its origins in the religious beliefs of the Aryans. Most of our information about their religion comes from the Vedas. The Vedas were collections of hymns and other religious rituals. Early Hindus believed in the existence of a single force in the universe called *Brahman*. It was the duty of the individual self, or *atman*, to seek to know Brahman.

Hinduism contains the idea of reincarnation. **Reincarnation** is the belief that the individual soul is reborn in a different form after death. After being reincarnated a number of times, the soul reaches its final goal, which is union with Brahman. Important to this process is the idea of karma. **Karma** is the force generated by a person's actions that determines how a person will be reborn in the next life. The concept of karma is ruled by the **dharm**, or the divine law. The law requires all people to do their duty. Duties vary depending on a person's status in society. Reincarnation provided a religious basis for the caste system. It justified the privileges of the people in the higher castes. They believed that they deserved their privileges because of what they had done in earlier lives.

Hindus developed the practice of yoga. **Yoga** is a method of training designed to lead to union with Brahman. In fact, yoga means "union." Over time, the Hindu religion came to have hundreds of gods and goddesses. The three chief ones were Brahma the Creator, Vishnu the Preserver, and Siva the Destroyer. Many Hindus regard the gods as different expressions of Brahman. Through devotion at temples, Hindus seek not only salvation but also a way to gain the ordinary things they need in life.

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Chapter 3, Section 1 (continued)

10. What is reincarnation, and how does it help to justify the caste system?

• **Buddhism** (page 78)

In the sixth century B.C., a new religious doctrine appeared in northern India. It is called **Buddhism** because it was founded by Siddhartha Gautama, also known as the Buddha or “Enlightened One.” Siddhartha was born around 563 B.C. in the foothills of the Himalaya. He was the son of a ruling family and appeared to have everything. But in his late twenties, he decided to spend his life seeking the cure for human suffering. At first, he followed the example of the ascetics. **Ascetics** are people who practice self-denial to achieve an understanding of ultimate reality. He later turned instead to an intense period of meditation. While meditating, Siddhartha believed that he finally reached enlightenment as to the meaning of life. He spent the rest of his life preaching what he had discovered. His teachings became the basic principles of Buddhism.

Siddhartha believed that the physical world was an illusion. Once people let go of the things of this world, pain and sorrow could be forgotten. Then comes *bodhi*, or wisdom. Achieving wisdom is a key step to achieving nirvana. **Nirvana** is the ultimate reality—the end of the self and a reunion with the Great World Soul. The core of Siddhartha’s message is contained in the Four Noble Truths and the Eightfold Path. He accepted the idea of reincarnation but rejected the Hindu caste system. He taught that all human beings could reach nirvana. This made Buddhism appealing to the people at the lower end of the social scale. Siddhartha also rejected the multitude of gods in Hinduism. He forbade his followers to worship him or his image. After he died in 480 B.C., his followers spread his message throughout India. Buddhist monasteries were established to promote his teaching.

11. What parts of Hinduism did Siddhartha accept, and what parts did he reject?

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Chapter 3, Section 2

For use with textbook pages 81–86

NEW EMPIRES IN INDIA

KEY TERMS

Silk Road one of the main trade routes in the ancient world that was used to transport goods, such as silk, from China across central Asia to Mesopotamia (page 81)

pilgrim people who travel to religious places (page 85)

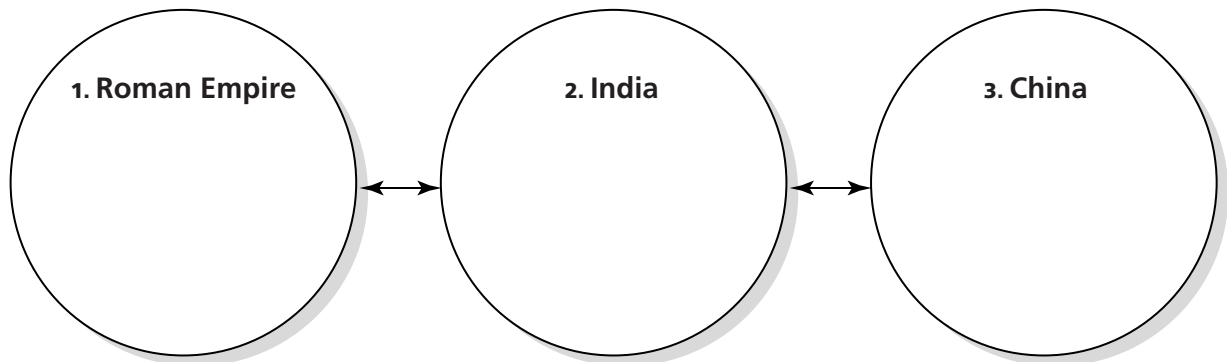
DRAWING FROM EXPERIENCE

Have you ever thought about the way we count? Why do we count in tens? Where did the decimal system come from?

In the last section, you learned about the early civilizations in India. In this section, you will learn about two empires that arose in India, the Mauryan and Gupta Empires. The decimal system of counting in tens was developed during the Gupta Empire.

ORGANIZING YOUR THOUGHTS

Use the diagram below to help you take notes. Trade developed between the Roman Empire, India, and China. List the items that were exported from each of these areas.



Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 3, Section 2 (continued)

READ TO LEARN

- **The Mauryan Dynasty** (page 82)

The Aryans did little to bring peace and unity to India. Between 1500 and 400 B.C., there were many wars between the Aryan rajars. After 400 B.C., India was attacked from the outside. First came Persia, which extended its empire into western India. Then came the Greeks and Macedonians. Alexander the Great had heard about the riches of India, and he invaded India in 327 B.C. But his soldiers refused to continue fighting, and they left almost as quickly as they came. This invasion, however, led to the first dynasty to control India.

Chandragupta Maurya, who ruled from 324 to 301 B.C., founded the new dynasty. He drove out the foreign forces and set up his capital at Pataliputra in northern India. He divided his empire into provinces that were ruled by governors. He had a large army and a secret police that followed his orders.

Asoka was the grandson of Chandragupta Maurya. The Mauryan Empire flourished under his rule, and he is considered to be the greatest ruler in the history of India. He converted to Buddhism and used Buddhist ideals to guide his rule. He set up hospitals for both people and animals. He had trees planted and shelters built along the roads to provide shade and rest for travelers. During the time of Asoka, India's role in trade began to expand. India became a crossroads in a trade network that extended from the Pacific to Southwest Asia and the Mediterranean Sea. After Asoka's death in 232 B.C., the Mauryan Empire began to decline. In 183 B.C., the last Mauryan ruler was killed by one of his military commanders.

4. Why is Asoka considered to be the greatest ruler in Indian history?

- **The Kushan Kingdom and the Silk Road** (page 83)

After the collapse of the Mauryan Empire, new kingdoms arose along the edges of India, in what is now Afghanistan. In the first century A.D., nomadic warriors seized power and established the Kushan kingdom. For the next two centuries, the Kushans spread over northern India. In the rest of India, other kingdoms fought for control.

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Chapter 3, Section 2 (continued)

The Kushans prospered because of the trade that passed through their land. Most of the trade was between the Roman Empire and China. It was shipped along a route called the **Silk Road**. The Silk Road was about 4000 miles long and reached from the city of Changan in China across central Asia to Mesopotamia. One section of the Silk Road passed through the mountains northwest of India. The route ended at Antioch in Syria on the Mediterranean Sea. Goods were shipped from Antioch across the Mediterranean to Greece and Rome. Only luxury goods were carried on the Silk Road, because camel caravans were difficult, dangerous, and thus expensive.

Chinese merchants traded silk, spices, teas, and porcelain. Indian merchants sent ivory, textiles, precious stones, and pepper. The Romans traded woolen and linen clothes, glass, and precious stones. Silk was China's most valuable product and what the Romans particularly wanted. That is why the trade route was called the Silk Road.

- How did the Silk Road make the Kushans prosperous?

- **The Kingdom of the Guptas** (page 84)

The Kushan kingdom came to an end in the third century A.D., when invaders from Persia overran it. In 320, a prince named Chandragupta created a new kingdom in the central Ganges Valley. He was not related to the earlier Chandragupta Maurya. His son Samudragupta expanded the empire into surrounding areas. The new kingdom of the Guptas became the dominant power in northern India. It also had loose control over central India. This made it the greatest state since the Mauryan Empire. The Gupta Empire had a series of good kings and created a new age of Indian civilization. Visitors from other lands admired the culture. One of these visitors was Faxian, a Buddhist monk from China who traveled to India in the fifth century. He admired the rulers, their tolerance of Buddhism, and the prosperity of the country. The Gupta Empire traded with China, Southeast Asia, and the Mediterranean. Cities were built along the main trade routes throughout India. These cities became wealthy from trade and from the pilgrims who traveled across India to visit the major religious centers. **Pilgrims** are people who travel to religious places.

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Chapter 3, Section 2 (continued)

The Gupta Empire did not last, however. Invasions by the Huns in the late fifth century A.D. reduced the power of the empire. A military leader in the seventh century revived the empire for a while, but the empire fell apart after his death. Northern India would not be reunited for hundreds of years.

6. Why were the cities in the Gupta Empire wealthy?

• The World of Indian Culture (page 85)

The Indian culture has produced great works in literature, architecture and science. The Vedas are the earliest known works of Indian literature. These were originally passed down orally from generation to generation. After the development of Sanskrit writing, the Vedas were written down. India's great historical epics, the *Mahabharata* and the *Ramayana*, were also written down. The *Mahabharata* is the longest poem in any written language. It describes a war between cousins in Aryan society. The most famous section is the Bhagavid Gita. It is a sermon by the god Krishna before a major battle. The *Ramayana* is much shorter than the *Mahabharata*. It is the story of the fictional ruler Rama. Both the *Mahabharata* and the *Ramayana* contain religious and moral lessons. To this day, they continue to inspire the people of India. One of ancient India's most famous authors was Kalidasa, who lived during the Gupta Dynasty. One of his poems, *The Cloud Messenger*, remains one of the most popular Sanskrit poems.

India also made major achievements in architecture. Three types of structures were developed to foster the spread of Buddhism: pillars, stupas, and rock chambers. Many stone pillars were built to mark sites related to events in Buddha's life. The stupas were originally intended to hold relics of Buddha, such as a lock of hair. They were built in the form of burial mounds and became places for devotion. Rock chambers were developed to house monks and to serve as halls for religious ceremonies. The rooms were carved out of rock cliffs on the sides of mountains.

Ancient Indians also made advances in astronomy and mathematics. They charted the movements of the heavenly bodies. They knew that the Earth was round and that it rotated on its axis and revolved around the sun. Indian mathematicians introduced the concept of zero and used a symbol (0) for it. Aryabhata, the most famous Indian mathematician of the Gupta Empire, was one of the first mathematicians known to have used algebra. After Arabs

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Chapter 3, Section 2 (continued)

conquered parts of India, Arab scholars adopted the Indian number system. European traders borrowed it from the Arabs, and it spread through Europe in the 1200s. It is the system that we use today and is called the Indian-Arabic numeral system.

7. Who was one of the first mathematicians to use algebra?

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Chapter 3, Section 3

For use with textbook pages 88–97

EARLY CHINESE CIVILIZATIONS

KEY TERMS

Mandate of Heaven a belief during the Zhou dynasty that kings received their authority to command, or mandate, from Heaven (page 91)

Dao the proper “Way” that a king was expected to rule in order to please the gods and protect the people (page 92)

filial piety the duty of members of a family to subordinate their needs and desires to those of the male head of the family (page 93)

Confucianism a system of ideas based on the teachings of Confucius (page 95)

Daoism a system of ideas based on the teachings of Laozi (page 96)

Legalism a philosophy that stressed harsh laws and punishments (page 97)

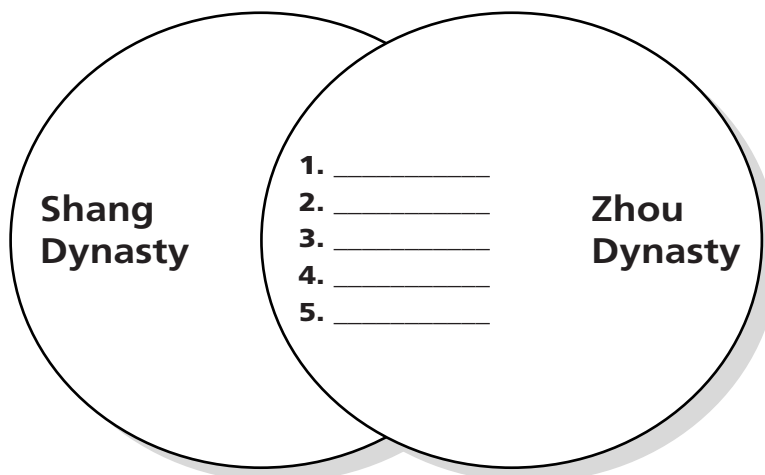
DRAWING FROM EXPERIENCE

Do you think people are basically good or basically evil? Are strict laws necessary to keep order and make people obey?

In the last two sections, you learned about the early civilizations and empires of India. In this section, you will learn about early civilizations in China and the philosophies they developed.

ORGANIZING YOUR THOUGHTS

Use the diagram below to help you take notes. The Shang and Zhou dynasties had several similarities. List five similarities in the area where the two circles overlap.



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Chapter 3, Section 3 (continued)

READ TO LEARN

- **The Geography of China** (page 88)

The Huang He, or Yellow River, is more than 2900 miles long. It extends from Mongolia to the Pacific Ocean. The Chang Jiang, or Yangtze River, is more than 3400 miles long. It flows across central China and empties into the Yellow Sea. The valleys of these two rivers became one of the great food-producing areas of the ancient world. Not all of China is fertile land, however. Only 10 percent of the total land is suitable for farming. Much of the rest of the land consists of mountains and deserts.

The mountains and deserts have played an important role in Chinese history. They served as barriers that separated the Chinese people from other Asian people. In the regions created by the mountains and deserts, there were peoples of Mongolian, Indo-European, and Turkish backgrounds. There were often conflicts between these groups and the Chinese.

6. What role have the mountains and deserts played in Chinese history?

- **The Shang Dynasty** (page 89)

Chinese civilization began with the Xia dynasty over four thousand years ago. Little is known about this dynasty. It was replaced by a second dynasty, the Shang, which lasted from about 1750 to 1122 B.C. The Shang dynasty was primarily a farming society. An aristocracy whose major concern was war ruled it. An **aristocracy** is an upper class whose wealth is based on land and whose power is passed from one generation to another.

There were large cities in Shang China. The cities had huge walls, royal palaces, and large royal tombs. The Shang king ruled from the capital city of Anyang. His kingdom was divided into territories with aristocratic warlords (military leaders) in charge of each territory. The king chose these leaders and could remove them. The king controlled large armies, which often fought on the fringes of the kingdom.

The Shang rulers believed that they could communicate with the gods to get help with their affairs. Priests scratched questions on bones to get answers from the gods. These bones were called oracle bones. The priests stuck heated metal rods into the bones, which caused the bones to crack. The priests then

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Chapter 3, Section 3 (continued)

interpreted the cracks as answers from the gods. The Chinese had a strong belief in life after death. Humans were sacrificed to win the favor of the gods and to provide companions for the king and his family on their journey to the next world. From the belief in an afterlife came the idea of the veneration of ancestors (sometimes called “ancestor worship”). The Chinese believed that the spirits of ancestors could bring good or evil to the living members of a family. So it was important to treat the spirits well.

The king and his family were at the top of Shang society. Aristocratic families helped them. The aristocrats waged war, served as officials, and were also the chief landowners. The majority of the people were peasants who farmed the land of the aristocrats. Shang society also included a small number of merchants and artisans. The Shang are well known for their mastery of the art of bronze casting. Thousands of bronze objects from this period have survived. These are some of the most admired creations of Chinese art.

7. What were some of the religious beliefs during the Shang dynasty?

• The Zhou Dynasty (page 91)

Eventually the ruler of the state of Zhou revolted against the last of the Shang rulers and established a new dynasty. The Zhou dynasty lasted for almost eight hundred years (1045 to 256 B.C.). It was the longest dynasty in Chinese history. The Zhou dynasty continued the political system of the Shang rulers. At the head of the government was the Zhou king. Like the Shang rulers, he divided the kingdom into territories governed by officials that he appointed. These officials were aristocrats. The king was in charge of defense and controlled large armies.

The Zhou kings also made some changes. The Zhou dynasty claimed that it ruled China because it had the **Mandate of Heaven**. It was believed that Heaven kept order in the world through the Zhou king. Thus, the Zhou king had a *mandate*, or authority to command, from Heaven. The king was chosen by Heaven because of his talent and virtue. He was expected to rule according to the proper “Way,” called the **Dao**. It was his duty to keep the gods pleased to protect the people from bad harvests or disasters. If he failed, he could be overthrown. This gave people the “right of revolution.” The king was not a divine being himself and could be replaced. The Mandate of Heaven led to a pattern of *dynastic cycles*. From the beginning of Chinese history to A.D. 1912,

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Chapter 3, Section 3 (continued)

China was ruled by a series of dynasties. Each dynasty said that it ruled with the Mandate of Heaven. It established its power, ruled successfully for many years, and then began to decline. Rebellions or invasions would cause it to collapse, and a new dynasty would take over. Then the cycle would be repeated.

The Zhou dynasty followed this cycle of rise, decline, and collapse. Some of the territories in the Zhou kingdom became powerful states and challenged the Zhou ruler. In 403 B.C., civil war broke out. This began a time in Chinese history called the “Period of the Warring States.” By this time, warfare in China had changed. Iron weapons were being used. Foot soldiers (the infantry) and soldiers on horseback (the cavalry) made their first appearance. The cavalry was armed with crossbows, a Chinese invention of the seventh century B.C. In 221 B.C., one of the warring states, the state of Qin, took control and created a new dynasty.

During the Zhou dynasty, peasants worked on land owned by lords (aristocrats), but they also had land of their own. A class of artisans and merchants lived in walled towns. Merchants did not operate freely but were considered the property of the lords. There was also a class of slaves. Trade consisted mainly of the exchange of local goods that were used on an everyday basis. Eventually, it increased to include goods from distant lands, such as salt, iron, cloth, and luxury items. One of the most important items that the Chinese traded was silk.

By the sixth century B.C., irrigation was in wide use. Large water projects controlled the flow of rivers and spread water evenly to the fields. The use of iron led to the development of iron plowshares. This made it possible to plow land that had not yet been used for farming. Because of these advances in farming, the population of China rose as high as fifty million people during the Zhou dynasty.

The family was the basic economic and social unit in China. The Chinese believed in the idea of **filial piety**. *Filial* refers to sons and daughters. Filial piety is the duty of members of the family to subordinate their needs and desires to those of the male head of the family. Every family member had his or her place. People needed to work together to farm the land. Children were important because they worked in the fields when they were young. Later, sons were expected to take over the physical labor on their family’s land and take care of their parents as the parents got older. Men were important because they worked in the fields and provided food for their families. They were also the warriors, scholars, and government officials. Women raised the children and worked in the home.

Perhaps the most important cultural contribution of ancient China was the development of a written language. By the time of the Shang dynasty, the Chinese had developed a simple script that is the ancestor of the complex written language that the Chinese use today. It was primarily pictographic

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Chapter 3, Section 3 (continued)

and ideographic in form. Pictographs are picture symbols, usually called characters, that form a picture of the object they represent. Ideographs are characters that combine two or more pictographs to represent an idea.

8. What was the Mandate of Heaven and how did it lead to dynastic cycles?

• The Chinese Philosophies (page 94)

Toward the end of the Zhou dynasty, three major schools of thought, or philosophies, developed in China. Chinese philosophers were concerned about the world in which people lived and how to create a stable order in the world. **Confucianism** is a system of ideas developed by Confucius, known to the Chinese as the First Teacher. Confucius was born in 551 B.C. He lived during a time of chaos in China. He provided a set of ideas about how to restore order to society. His interest in philosophy was ethical and political, not spiritual. His concern was with human behavior. According to Confucius, the key to proper behavior was to behave in accordance with the Dao (Way). Duty and humanity were important elements of the Dao. The concept of duty meant that all people had to subordinate their own interests to the broader needs of the family and the community. This concept of duty is often expressed as a “work ethic.” If each person worked hard to fulfill his or her duties, society would prosper. The concept of humanity consisted of a sense of compassion and empathy for others. Confucius taught, “Do not do unto others what you would not wish done to yourself.” Confucius believed that government should not be limited to people of noble birth, but should be open to all men. His ideas did not have much effect in his lifetime. But after his death in 479 B.C., his message spread widely throughout China. Until the twentieth century, almost every Chinese pupil studied his sayings.

Daoism was a system of ideas based on the teachings of Laozi. According to tradition, Laozi, or the Old Master, lived during the time of Confucius. Scholars do not know if Laozi actually existed. But the ideas that people associate with him became popular in the fifth and fourth centuries B.C. The main ideas of Daoism are contained in the *Tao Te Ching* (The Way of the Dao). Like Confucianism, Daoism does not concern itself with the meaning of the universe. It is concerned about proper forms of behavior. Its ideas about human behavior are very different from those of Confucius, however. Daoists believe that the true way to follow the will of Heaven is not action but inaction. The

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Chapter 3, Section 3 (continued)

best way to act in harmony with the universe is to act spontaneously and let nature take its course by not interfering with it.

A third philosophy that became popular in China was **Legalism**. Legalists believed that human beings were evil by nature. They could only be brought to follow the correct path by harsh laws and punishments. Legalists believed that a strong ruler was needed to create an orderly society. The ruler did not need to have compassion for the needs of the people. Fear of harsh punishment would cause the people to serve the interests of the ruler. This would maintain order and stability in society.

9. What three philosophies developed in China near the end of the Zhou dynasty?

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Chapter 3, Section 4

For use with textbook pages 98–103

RISE AND FALL OF CHINESE EMPIRES

KEY TERMS

regime the government in power (page 99)

censorate a division of the bureaucracy in the Qin dynasty that had inspectors who checked on government officials to make sure they were doing their jobs (page 99)

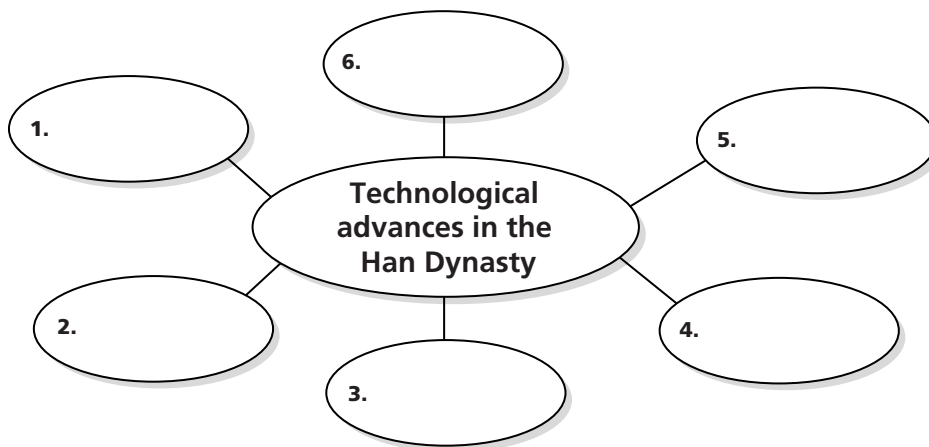
DRAWING FROM EXPERIENCE

Have you ever applied for a job? What questions did you have to answer? What criteria do you think employers should use when choosing people for jobs?

In the last section, you learned about the early civilizations in China. In this section, you will learn about two Chinese empires, the Qin and Han dynasties. Both dynasties chose their government officials on the basis of merit rather than birth.

ORGANIZING YOUR THOUGHTS

Use the web organizer below to help you take notes. New technology added to the economic prosperity of the Han Era. List six inventions or areas of technological progress during the Han dynasty.



Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 3, Section 4 (continued)

READ TO LEARN

- **The Qin Dynasty (221–206 B.C.)** (page 98)

From about 400 to 200 B.C., there were civil wars in China. Powerful states fought each other and ignored the Zhou kings. The Qin state gradually defeated the other states. In 221 B.C., the Qin ruler started a new dynasty. This ruler’s name was Qin Shihuangdi, which means “the First Qin Emperor.” The Qin dynasty made many changes in Chinese politics. Legalism was adopted as the regime’s philosophy. (A **regime** is a government in power.) Anyone who opposed the new regime was punished or executed. The Qin dynasty was a centralized state. The central bureaucracy was divided in three parts: the civil division, the military division, and the **censorate**. The censorate had inspectors (censors) who checked on government officials to make sure they were doing their jobs. Below the central government were two levels of administration—provinces and counties. Officials at these levels did not inherit their positions but were appointed by the emperor. The censors kept a close watch over these officials and reported to the emperor. If the officials were found guilty of wrongdoing, they were executed.

Qin Shihuangdi unified the Chinese world. He created a single monetary system and built a system of roads throughout the entire empire. His armies advanced to the south and extended the border of China to the edge of the Yuan River, or Red River, in modern-day Vietnam. His major concern was in the north. In the area south of the Gobi, there were people known to the Chinese as the Xiongnu. They were nomadic people and fought on horseback. The Xiongnu became a threat to the Chinese communities near the northern frontier. The Chinese began to build walls to keep them out. Qin Shihuangdi added to these walls. He linked the existing walls together to create “The Wall of Ten Thousand *Li*” (a *li* is about a third of a mile). Today this is known as the Great Wall of China. The great wall that we see today was actually built 1500 years later, however. Most of Qin Shihuangdi’s walls were constructed of loose stone and sand and disappeared long ago.

Qin Shihuangdi died in 210 B.C., and his dynasty was overthrown four years later. The fall of the Qin dynasty was followed by a period of civil war. This period did not last long, and was followed by a new dynasty.

7. What changes did the Qin dynasty make in Chinese politics?

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Chapter 3, Section 4 (continued)

• The Han Dynasty (202 B.C.-A.D. 220) (page 100)

Liu Bang founded the Han dynasty in 202 B.C. Liu Bang was a peasant who became known by his title, Han Gaozu (“Exalted Emperor of Han”). The Han dynasty was one of the greatest and longest dynasties in Chinese history. Han Gaozu discarded the harsh policies of the Qin dynasty. Confucian principles, rather than Legalism, became the philosophy for the new government. The Han dynasty did not change all of the systems of government, however. It kept the three divisions of the central government. It also kept the system of provinces and counties. Most important, it kept the system of choosing officials on the basis of merit rather than birth. The Han dynasty introduced the civil service examination and started a school to train officials. Students were expected to learn Chinese history, law, and the teachings of Confucius. During the Han dynasty, the population increased rapidly to over sixty million people.

The Han emperors, especially Han Wudi, expanded the Chinese empire. They added the southern regions below the Chang Jiang to the empire. Part of what is now northern Vietnam became part of the empire. The Han armies went westward into central Asia and extended the Chinese boundary there. They also drove the Xiongnu back to the north. After Han Wudi’s death in 87 B.C., China experienced almost 150 years of peace.

The Han period was a time of prosperity. Peasants began to suffer, however. They were forced into military service or labor of up to one month per year. The growing population eventually reduced the size of the average farm plot to about one acre per person, which was barely enough to survive. Many poor peasants were forced to sell their land and become tenant farmers. The aristocrats once again controlled the land.

Technological advances were made during the Han Era. Progress was made in textile manufacturing, water mills for grinding grain, and iron casting. Iron casting led to the invention of steel. Paper was also developed during the Han dynasty. The rudder and fore-and-aft rigging for ships were invented. Ships could sail into the wind for the first time. This led to a major expansion of trade. Trade was established with countries as far away as India and the Mediterranean.

Over time, the Han Empire began to decay. Rulers became weak, and the aristocrats forced more and more farmers to become tenants. By A.D. 170, peasant uprisings and wars caused the Han dynasty to collapse. In 190, rebel armies sacked the Han capital, Luoyang. In 220, a general seized control but was unable to stay in power. China plunged again into civil war, and there were new invasions by northern peoples. The next great dynasty would not arise for four hundred years.

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Chapter 3, Section 4 (continued)

8. In what way was the government of the Han rulers different from the government of the Qin Emperor? In what ways was it similar?

• **Culture in Qin and Han China** (page 103)

The Qin and Han dynasties were also known for their cultural achievements. The main Confucian writings were made into a set of classics during this time. These writings became required reading for generations of Chinese schoolchildren.

Perhaps the most remarkable achievement of the Qin period was discovered in 1974. Underground pits were found about a mile east of the burial mound of the First Qin Emperor. They contained a vast army made of terra-cotta (hardened clay). Archaeologists believe it was a re-creation of Qin Shihuangdi's imperial guard and was meant to be with the emperor on his journey to the next world. There are more than six thousand figures in the first pit alone, along with horses, chariots, and seven thousand bronze weapons. The terra-cotta figures are slightly larger than life-size. The detail on the uniforms is realistic, and the heads were modeled individually to reflect the different ethnic types in the army.

9. What do archaeologists think was the purpose of the terra-cotta figures found near the burial mound of the First Qin Emperor?

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Chapter 4, Section 1

For use with textbook pages 109–113

THE FIRST GREEK CIVILIZATIONS

KEY TERMS

epic poem a long poem that tells the deeds of a great hero (*page 112*)

arete the Greek term for excellence, which heroes strove to attain (*page 113*)

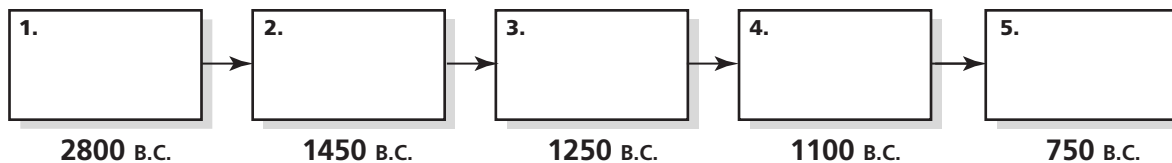
DRAWING FROM EXPERIENCE

Do you enjoy reading poems? What kinds of literature do you like the most? Why?

In this section, you will learn about the early civilizations of Greece. You will also learn about the writings of Homer, one of the great poets of all time.

ORGANIZING YOUR THOUGHTS

Use the time line below to help you take notes. Identify five important events in the development of Greek civilization.



Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 4, Section 1 (continued)

READ TO LEARN

- **The Impact of Geography** (page 109)

Compared with Mesopotamia and Egypt, Greece is small. It consists of a peninsula and many surrounding islands that total an area about the size of Louisiana. It is made up of small plains and river valleys surrounded by high mountains. The mountains influenced Greek history, because they separated Greeks from each other. This caused different Greek communities to develop their own ways of life. The small size of these communities encouraged people to be involved in politics. But the rivalry between the communities led to warfare. The sea also influenced Greek history. Greece has a long seacoast with many harbors, so the Greeks became seafarers. Greeks also lived on many islands off the Greek mainland. They sailed into the Aegean, the Mediterranean, and the Black Seas. They later established colonies that spread Greek civilization throughout the Mediterranean world.

6. How did the mountains and the sea influence Greek history?

- **The Minoan Civilization** (page 110)

By 2800 B.C., a Bronze Age civilization existed on the large island of Crete, southeast of the Greek mainland. It flourished between 2700 and 1450 B.C. It was called the Minoan civilization by the English archaeologist, Arthur Evans, who discovered it. He named it after Minos, the legendary king of Crete. Evans discovered a huge palace complex on Crete at Knossos. The remains of this complex revealed a rich culture. The palace contained vases, ivory figurines, and jewelry. The rooms were decorated with paintings that showed sporting events and nature scenes. Storerooms held gigantic jars of oil, wine, and grain. The Minoans were traders, and their ships took them to Egypt and southern Greece.

The Minoan civilization on Crete was suddenly destroyed around 1450 B.C. Some historians believe that a tidal wave triggered by a volcanic eruption was responsible. Most historians, however, believe that the destruction was the result of an invasion by mainland Greeks known as Mycenaeans.

7. Why is the Bronze Age civilization on Crete called the Minoan civilization?

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 4, Section 1 (continued)

• The First Greek State: Mycenae (page 111)

The term Mycenaean comes from Mycenae, a fortified site in Greece that was discovered by the German archaeologist Heinrich Schliemann. Mycenae was one of several centers in the Mycenaean civilization. This civilization flourished between 1600 and 1100 B.C. The Mycenaeans were part of the Indo-European peoples. Over time, they gained control of Greece and developed a civilization.

The Mycenaean civilization was made up of powerful monarchies. These monarchies were independent of each other, but they probably formed a loose alliance. Each monarch lived in a fortified palace center. These centers were built on hills and were surrounded by gigantic walls. The royal families lived within the walls. The rest of the population lived outside.

The Mycenaeans were warriors. They took pride in their heroic deeds in battle. Mycenaean paintings often show war and hunting scenes. The Mycenaeans also developed a trade network. Some historians believe that the Mycenaeans conquered Crete. Some of the Aegean islands also came under Mycenaean control. We know about some of the military adventures of the Mycenaeans through the poetry of Homer. According to Homer, Mycenaeans, led by Agamemnon, the king of Mycenae, sacked the city of Troy around 1250 B.C.

By the late thirteenth century B.C., Mycenaean Greece was in serious trouble. Mycenaean states fought one another, and major earthquakes caused widespread damage. In the twelfth century B.C., invaders moved into Greece from the north. By 1100 B.C., Mycenaean civilization had collapsed.

8. What troubles did the Mycenaean civilization have before it collapsed?

• The Greeks in a Dark Age (page 112)

After the collapse of Mycenaean civilization, Greece entered a period when food production dropped and population declined. Historians call this period the Dark Age, because there are few records to tell us what happened during this time. This period lasted from about 1100 to 750 B.C.

During the Dark Age, many Greeks left the mainland and sailed across the Aegean Sea to various islands. Many went to the western shores of Asia Minor. They settled in an area called Ionia, which is in modern-day Turkey.

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 4, Section 1 (continued)

Two groups settled in other parts of Greece. The Aeolian Greeks colonized the island of Lesbos and the territory near the mainland. The Dorians settled in southwestern Greece and on some of the Aegean islands, including Crete.

Some important events occurred in this Dark Age. There was a revival of trade. Iron replaced bronze as a way to make weapons. This made weapons affordable for more people. Farming tools that were made of iron helped increase food production.

In the eighth century B.C., the Greeks adopted the Phoenician alphabet. They made all of their words with a combination of twenty-four letters. This made learning to read and write simpler. Near the end of the Dark Age, the work of Homer appeared. Homer was one of the truly great poets of all time. He wrote the *Iliad* and the *Odyssey*. These were the first epic poems of early Greece. An **epic poem** is a long poem that tells the deeds of a great hero. Homer based his poems on stories that had been passed down from generation to generation. He used stories about the Trojan War to write the *Iliad* and the *Odyssey*. Homer taught values, such as courage and honor. The heroes in his poems strove for excellence, which the Greeks called **arete**. Arete is won in a struggle or contest. By fighting, the hero protects his family and friends, preserves his own honor, and earns his reputation. Homer's heroes became the ideal for Greek males. His poems were used to educate young men for generations to come.

9. Why was the period after the collapse of the Mycenaean civilization called the Dark Age?

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 4, Section 2

For use with textbook pages 115–120

THE GREEK CITY-STATES

KEY TERMS

- polis** the Greek word for a city-state (*page 115*)
- acropolis** a fortified area at the top of a hill in a Greek city-state (*page 115*)
- agora** an open area below the acropolis where people would assemble and where the market was located (*page 115*)
- hoplites** heavily armed infantry soldiers (*page 116*)
- phalanx** a rectangular formation used by hoplites to create a wall of shields (*page 116*)
- democracy** rule of the many (*page 118*)
- oligarchy** rule by the few (*page 118*)
- helots** people captured by the Spartans (*page 118*)
- ephors** a group of five men who were elected each year by the Spartans and who were responsible for the education of the youth and the conduct of all citizens (*page 119*)

DRAWING FROM EXPERIENCE

How is the city you live in (or the nearest city) arranged? Where is the center of the city? In what part of the city are most business activities carried on? Where are the city's government offices? Where are the residential areas?

In the last section, you read about the beginnings of Greek civilization. This section focuses on the culture and politics of Greek city-states.

ORGANIZING YOUR THOUGHTS

Use the chart below to help you take notes. Reform-minded aristocrats made major changes in the society and politics of early Athens. Describe the reforms of the following leaders.

| Leader | Reforms |
|-------------|---------|
| Solon | 1. |
| Pisistratus | 2. |
| Cleisthenes | 3. |

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 4, Section 2 (continued)

READ TO LEARN

- **The Polis: Center of Greek Life** (page 115)

Greek villages gradually expanded and became city-states. The Greek word for a city-state is **polis**. Our word *politics* comes from this Greek word. The polis was a town, a city, or even a village, along with its surrounding countryside. By 750 B.C., the polis became the center of Greek life. The main gathering place in the polis was usually a hill. At the top of the hill was a fortified area called an **acropolis**. The acropolis was a place of refuge during attacks. Sometimes it was also a religious center where temples were built. Below the acropolis was an **agora**. The agora was an open area where people could assemble and where the market was located.

The polis was a community of people who had a common identity and common goals. The polis consisted of three main groups: citizens with political rights (adult males), citizens with no political rights (women and children), and noncitizens (slaves and people from foreign lands). The citizens of a polis had rights, but they also had responsibilities. Citizens were expected to be loyal to the state. This loyalty had a negative side. City-states distrusted one another, and this eventually led to the downfall of Greece.

A new military system developed in Greece. In earlier times, nobles (aristocrats) on horseback had fought wars. By 700 B.C., the military system was based on hoplites. **Hoplites** were heavily armed infantry soldiers (foot soldiers). Each carried a round shield, a short sword, and a spear about nine feet long. Hoplites marched into battle in a rectangular formation called a **phalanx**. This formation created a wall of shields to protect the hoplites.

4. What three groups made up a polis?

- **Greek Colonies** (page 116)

Between 750 and 550 B.C., many Greeks moved to distant lands. The growth of trade and the need for good farmland were two reasons that people moved. Each colony that they formed became a new polis. New Greek colonies were formed in southern Italy, southern France, eastern Spain, and northern Africa. The Greeks also set up colonies in Thrace, to the north, and along the shores of the Black Sea. One important city that they established was Byzantium, which later became Constantinople (now Istanbul).

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Chapter 4, Section 2 (continued)

Colonization spread the Greek culture throughout the Mediterranean. It also led to an increase in trade and industry. The Greeks exported pottery, wine and olive oil. In return, they received grains and metals from the west. They also received fish, timber, wheat, metals, and slaves from the Black Sea region.

5. What were some of the results of Greek colonization?

• Tyranny in the City-States (page 117)

The increase in trade and industry created a new group of wealthy people in many city-states. These men wanted political power, but they found it difficult to get more power because of the aristocrats. This led to the rise of tyrants in the seventh and sixth centuries B.C. Tyrants were not necessarily wicked, as our word *tyrant* implies. Greek tyrants were rulers who seized power from the aristocrats. The new group of wealthy men supported the tyrants. So did the poor peasants who were in debt to the aristocrats. Tyrants gained power by using hired soldiers. After gaining power, they built new marketplaces, temples and walls.

By the end of the sixth century B.C., the tyrants had fallen out of favor. But their rule was important in Greek history. It ended the rule of the aristocrats in many city-states. This allowed many new people to be involved in government. In some city-states, this led to the development of **democracy**, rule of the many. Other city-states remained committed to rule by the few, or **oligarchy**. The differences in these two forms of government can be seen in Sparta and Athens, the two most famous and powerful Greek city-states.

6. Why was the rule of the tyrants important in Greek history?

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 4, Section 2 (continued)

- **Sparta** (page 118)

Like other Greek city-states, Sparta needed more land. But instead of starting new colonies, the Spartans conquered other Greeks. First they conquered the Laconians. Later, around 730 B.C., they conquered the Messenians. The Laconians and Messenians were captured and were forced to work for the Spartans. These captured people were known as **helots**.

Between 800 and 600 B.C., the lives of the Spartans were rigidly organized and tightly controlled. Males spent their childhood learning military discipline. At age 20, they entered the army. Even if they married, they continued to live in the military barracks until age 30. At 30, Spartan men were allowed to vote and live at home, but they stayed in the army until age 60. While their husbands lived in the barracks, Spartan women lived at home. They were expected to exercise and remain fit to bear and raise healthy children. Because of their separation from their husbands, Spartan women had greater freedom and power in the household than other women in Greece. Many Spartan women supported the strict Spartan values and expected their husbands and sons to be brave in war.

The Spartan government was an oligarchy headed by two kings. The kings led the Spartan army on its campaigns. A group of five men, who were elected each year, was responsible for the education of the youth and the conduct of all citizens. These men were known as the **ephors**. There was also a council of elders, which included the two kings and 28 citizens over the age of 60. The council of elders decided on the issues that would be presented to an assembly made up of male citizens. The assembly voted on the issues, but did not debate.

Spartans had little contact with the outside world. They were not allowed to travel abroad, except for military reasons. Foreigners were discouraged from visiting Sparta. Spartan citizens were also discouraged from studying philosophy, literature, or the arts. The art of war was the only art that was encouraged.

7. How was the Spartan government organized?

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 4, Section 2 (continued)

- **Athens** (page 120)

Early Athens was ruled by a king. By the seventh century B.C., however, Athens had become an oligarchy under the control of aristocrats. There was an assembly of citizens, but it did not have much power. Many Athenian farmers were sold into slavery, because they were unable to pay their debts to the aristocrats. There were cries to cancel the debts and give land to the poor. By the end of the seventh century B.C., Athens was on the verge of civil war. The aristocrats reacted to this crisis in 594 B.C. They gave full power to Solon, a reform-minded aristocrat. Solon cancelled all land debts and freed people who were slaves because of their debts. However, he did not take land from the rich and give it to the poor.

Pisistratus, an aristocrat, seized power in 560 B.C. He gave aristocrats' land to the peasants in order to please the poor. He also aided Athenian trade to please the merchants. His son succeeded him, but the Athenians rebelled against his son in 510 B.C. Two years later, Cleisthenes gained control.

Cleisthenes was a reformer and created a new council of five hundred. This council supervised foreign affairs, oversaw the treasury, and proposed laws. The Athenian assembly was given final authority to pass laws after free and open debate. The assembly was made up of all male citizens. Cleisthenes's reforms laid the foundations for Athenian democracy.

8. What was government like under Cleisthenes?

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 4, Section 3

For use with textbook pages 121–125

CLASSICAL GREECE

KEY TERMS

Age of Pericles the period in Greek history between 461 and 429 B.C. when Athens' power and brilliance was at its height (*page 123*)

direct democracy a democratic system in which people participate directly in government decision making through mass meetings (*page 123*)

ostracism the Athenian practice of banning a person from the city for 10 years, if at least six thousand members of the assembly wrote the person's name on pottery fragments, called *ostrakon* (*page 123*)

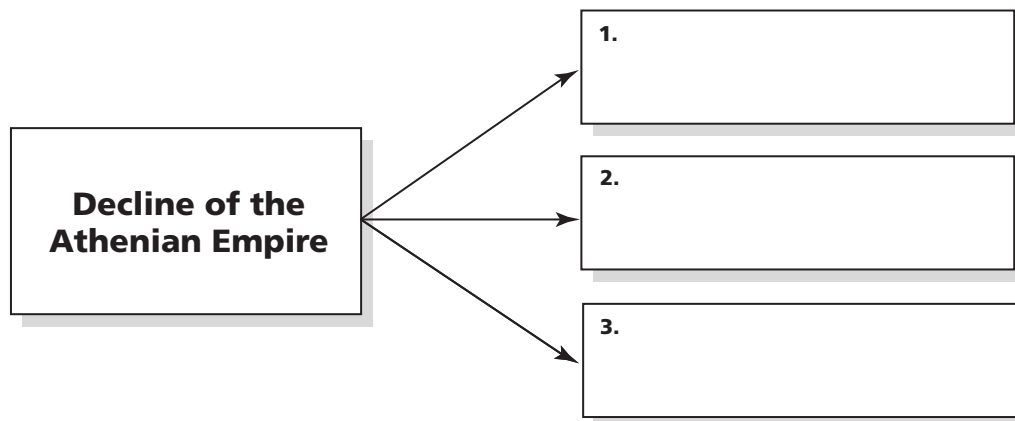
DRAWING FROM EXPERIENCE

In what areas of life, if any, do you think women today still need to achieve equality with men? Why do you think so?

In the last section, you read about Sparta and Athens. This section focuses on the triumphs and decline of the Greek city-states.

ORGANIZING YOUR THOUGHTS

Use the diagram below to help you take notes. Name three results of the Peloponnesian War.



Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 4, Section 3 (continued)

READ TO LEARN

- **The Challenge of Persia** (page 121)

As the Greeks spread throughout the Mediterranean, they came in contact with the Persian Empire. The Persians had already conquered the Ionian Greeks in Asia Minor. In 499 B.C., the Ionian cities tried to revolt against the Persians. The Athenian navy assisted them. The revolt was unsuccessful, but it led the Persian ruler Darius to seek revenge. In 490 B.C., the Persians landed on the plain of Marathon, about 26 miles from Athens. The Athenian army attacked and defeated the Persians.

After Darius died in 486 B.C., Xerxes became the new Persian ruler. Xerxes led an invasion of Greece in 480 B.C. The Athenians were forced to abandon their city, but the Greek navy managed to defeat the Persian fleet. A few months later, early in 479 B.C., the Greeks formed the largest Greek army up to that time. They defeated the Persian army at Plataea, northwest of Athens.

4. What two Persian rulers invaded Greece?

- **The Growth of the Athenian Empire** (page 123)

After the defeat of the Persians, Athens took over the leadership of the Greek world. In 478 B.C., the Athenians formed the Delian League. This was an alliance against the Persians. Its headquarters was on the island of Delos, but its chief officials were Athenians. The Delian League continued the attack against the Persian Empire. Eventually, it liberated nearly all of the Greek states in the Aegean that were under Persian control. In 454 B.C., the Athenians moved the treasury of the Delian League from Delos to Athens. By controlling the Delian League, Athens created an empire.

Between 461 and 429 B.C., Athens expanded its new empire. This period in Greek history is called the **Age of Pericles**. Pericles was a dominant figure in Athenian politics during this time. Democracy flourished, and Athens was at the height of its power and brilliance.

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 4, Section 3 (continued)

5. What was the Delian League?

• **The Age of Pericles** (page 123)

In the Age of Pericles, every male citizen in Athens played a role in government. The form of government was a direct democracy. A **direct democracy** is a democratic system in which people participate directly in government decision-making through mass meetings. In Athens, every male citizen over the age of 18 was a part of the assembly and voted on all major issues. Most residents of Athens were not citizens, however. Meetings of the assembly were held every 10 days on a hillside east of the Acropolis. The assembly passed all laws, elected public officials, and made final decisions on war and foreign policy. Pericles made it possible for poor citizens to take part in public affairs, by making lower-class male citizens eligible for public office and by paying office-holders. On a daily basis, a large body of city officials ran the government. Ten officials, known as generals, were the directors of policy. These officials were elected, so they could be reelected or removed from office. The Athenians also developed the practice of **ostracism**. If a person was considered harmful to the city, he could be banned from the city for 10 years, if at least six thousand members of the assembly wrote his name on pottery fragments (called *ostrakon*).

Under Pericles, Athens became the center of Greek culture. The Persians had destroyed much of the city during the Persian Wars. Pericles used the Delian League treasury to rebuild the city. New temples and statues were built. Art, architecture, and philosophy flourished. Athens' achievements alarmed the other Greek states, especially Sparta. This eventually led to a new war.

6. What was Athenian government like during the Age of Pericles?

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 4, Section 3 (continued)

• The Great Peloponnesian War (page 124)

After the defeat of the Persians, the Greek world became divided into two main parts: the Athenian Empire and Sparta. Sparta and its allies feared the Athenian Empire. A series of disputes between Athens and Sparta led to the beginning of the Great Peloponnesian War in 431 B.C. Pericles knew that the Spartan army could beat the Athenians in open battle. So the Athenians decided to stay behind the walls of their city. In the second year of the war, a plague broke out in Athens and killed more than a third of the people. Pericles himself died in 429 B.C. Despite these losses, the Athenians held out for 25 years. In 405 B.C., the Athenian navy was destroyed at Aegospotami. Within the next year, Athens surrendered. The great war was over, and the Athenian Empire was destroyed.

The Great Peloponnesian War weakened all of the Greek states. It also ruined any possibility of cooperation among them. During the next 66 years, Sparta, Athens, and Thebes struggled for control. In the process, they ignored the growing power of Macedonia. This would eventually cost them their freedom.

7. What was the basic cause of the Great Peloponnesian War?

• Daily Life in Classical Athens (page 125)

In the fifth century B.C., Athens had the largest population of the Greek city-states. Before the plague in 430 B.C., there were about 150,000 citizens living in Athens. About 43,000 of them were adult males who could vote. There were about 35,000 foreigners in Athens during this time. There were also about 100,000 slaves. Slavery was very common. Most people owned at least one slave. Most slaves worked in the fields or in the home as cooks or maids. Some slaves were owned by the state and worked on construction projects.

The Athenian economy was based on farming and trade. Athenians grew grains, vegetables, and fruit. Wine and olive oil were exported. The Athenians also raised sheep and goats for wool and milk. Because of its large population, Athens had to import from 50 to 80 percent of the grain it used. This made trade very important.

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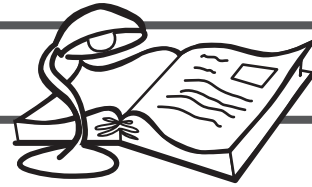


Chapter 4, Section 3 *(continued)*

Women were citizens who could take part in religious festivals. Otherwise, they were excluded from public life. They could not vote or own property. They married early, at age 14 or 15. A woman was expected to bear children and take care of her family and her house. Women were strictly controlled. If they left the house, they had to have a companion. They were not given any formal education, but some still managed to learn how to read and play musical instruments.

8. What was the role of women in ancient Athens?

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 4, Section 4

For use with textbook pages 127–133

THE CULTURE OF CLASSICAL GREECE

KEY TERMS

- ritual** a religious ceremony or rite (*page 128*)
- oracle** a sacred shrine where a god or goddess revealed the future through a priest or priestess (*page 128*)
- tragedy** a serious play or drama (*page 129*)
- philosophy** (“love of wisdom”) an organized system of thought (*page 130*)
- Socratic method** a teaching method used by Socrates in which a question and answer format leads pupils to see things for themselves by using their own reason (*page 130*)

DRAWING FROM EXPERIENCE

Do you have a philosophy, or set of ideas, about what is important for having a good life? What are your ideas? What helped you form your ideas?

In the last section, you read about the Greek city-states. In this section, you will learn about Greek religion, philosophy, drama, and art.

ORGANIZING YOUR THOUGHTS

Use the chart below to help you take notes. Early Greek philosophers tried to explain the universe. For each of the philosophers below, summarize their basic beliefs or teachings.

| Philosopher | Beliefs/Teachings |
|-------------|-------------------|
| Pythagoras | 1. |
| Socrates | 2. |
| Plato | 3. |
| Aristotle | 4. |

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 4, Section 4 (continued)

READ TO LEARN

- **Greek Religion** (page 127)

Religion was very important in Greek life. Temples were the major buildings in Greek cities. The Greeks thought that twelve main gods lived on Mount Olympus, the highest mountain in Greece. One of these twelve was Zeus, who was the chief god and father of the gods. Greek religion did not focus on morality. The Greeks believed that the spirits of most people went to an underworld ruled by the god Hades, regardless of what the people had done in life. Greeks performed rituals to please the gods. **Rituals** are religious ceremonies or rites. The Greek rituals combined prayers with gifts to the gods. The Greeks also held festivals to honor the gods and goddesses. Athletic games often took place at the festivals. All Greeks were invited to these games. The first games of this kind were held at the Olympic festival in 776 B.C.

The Greeks used oracles to learn the will of the gods. An **oracle** was a sacred shrine where a god or goddess revealed the future through a priest or priestess. The most famous was the oracle of the god Apollo at Delphi. A priestess at Delphi listened to questions. Her responses were thought to be inspired by Apollo and were interpreted by priests. Many people traveled to Delphi to consult the oracle of Apollo.

5. What was an oracle?

- **Greek Drama** (page 129)

The Greeks created drama as we know it. Plays were presented in outdoor theaters as part of religious festivals. The first Greek dramas were **tragedies** (serious plays or dramas). They were presented in a trilogy (a set of three plays) built around a common theme. The only complete trilogy that we still have today is the *Oresteia* by Aeschylus. Another great Athenian playwright was Sophocles. His most famous play was *Oedipus Rex*. A third important Athenian dramatist was Euripides. He was controversial. He questioned traditional values and portrayed war as brutal and barbaric. Greek tragedies dealt with universal themes still relevant today. They were concerned with such problems as the nature of good and evil and the rights of individuals.

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Chapter 4, Section 4 (continued)

Greek comedy developed later than tragedy. It was used to criticize politicians and intellectuals. It was intended both to entertain and to provoke a reaction. The plays of Aristophanes are examples of Greek comedy.

6. Why are Greek tragedies still relevant today?

• Greek Philosophy (page 130)

Philosophy is an organized system of thought. It comes from a Greek word that means “love of wisdom.” Many early Greek philosophers tried to explain the universe on the basis of unifying principles. In the sixth century B.C., Pythagoras taught that the essence of the universe was in music and numbers.

Socrates was a philosopher who left no writings. We know about him from his pupils. He believed that the goal of education was to improve the individual. His teaching method is still called the **Socratic method**. He used a question-and-answer format to lead pupils to see things for themselves by using their own reason. This belief in the individual’s ability to reason was an important contribution of the Greeks. Socrates questioned authority. This got him into trouble. He was accused of corrupting the youth of Athens and was sentenced to die by drinking hemlock, a poison.

Plato was one of Socrates’ students. He is considered by many to be the greatest philosopher of Western civilization. Unlike Socrates, Plato wrote a great deal. His main question was: How do we know what is real? He believed that a higher world of eternal Forms has always existed. The objects that we perceive with our senses are simply reflections or shadows of the ideal Forms. Reality is found in the Forms themselves.

Plato wrote about government in a work entitled *The Republic*. Plato did not trust the workings of democracy. In Plato’s ideal state, people were divided into three groups. At the top was an upper class of philosopher-kings. The second group was a class of warriors who protected society. The third group contained all the rest, the masses. Plato also believed that men and women should have the same education and equal access to all positions.

Plato established a school in Athens called the Academy. Aristotle was one of his pupils. He did not accept Plato’s theory of ideal forms. He thought that by examining objects, we could perceive their form. But he did not believe that the forms existed in a separate, higher world of reality. He was interested

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 4, Section 4 (continued)

in analyzing and classifying things. He wrote about many subjects, including ethics, logic, politics, poetry, astronomy, geology, biology, and physics.

Unlike Plato, Aristotle did not try to create an ideal form of government. He tried to find the best form of government by analyzing existing governments. For his *Politics*, Aristotle looked at the constitutions of 158 states and found three good forms of government: monarchy, aristocracy, and constitutional government. He thought constitutional government was the best form for most people.

7. What is the Socratic method?

• The Writing of History (page 132)

History, as a systematic analysis of past events, was created by the Greeks. The Greek historian Herodotus wrote the *History of the Persian Wars*. This is considered to be the first real history in Western civilization. Herodotus traveled widely to get his information and was a master storyteller.

Many historians today consider Thucydides to be the greatest historian of the ancient world. Thucydides was an Athenian general who fought in the Great Peloponnesian War. A defeat in battle sent him into exile, where he wrote his *History of the Peloponnesian War*. He saw war and politics in purely human terms. He examined the causes and the course of the Peloponnesian War clearly and fairly. He placed a great emphasis on the accuracy of his facts. He also believed that the study of history is of great value in understanding the present.

8. Who were two great historians of ancient Greece?

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Chapter 4, Section 4 (continued)

- **The Classical Ideals of Greek Art** (page 132)

Greek art has influenced the art of the Western world for centuries. Classical Greek art was concerned with expressing eternal ideals. In architecture, the most important form was the temple. The most famous temple was the Parthenon. It was built between 447 and 432 B.C. It is regarded as the greatest example of the classical Greek temple. It shows the principles of classical architecture: the search for calmness, clarity, and freedom from unnecessary detail.

Greek sculpture also developed a classical style. Greek sculptors did not try to achieve realism, but rather a standard of ideal beauty. Polyclitus, a fifth-century sculptor, wrote down rules for proportions in a work known as the *Doryphoros*. His theory said that the use of ideal proportions could produce an ideal human form.

9. What did Classical Greek sculptors try to achieve in their sculptures?

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 4, Section 5

For use with textbook pages 138–143

ALEXANDER AND THE HELLENISTIC KINGDOMS

KEY TERMS

Hellenistic Era the new age created by Alexander the Great, during which the Greek language and culture spread to other parts of the world (page 141)

Epicureanism the philosophy founded by Epicurus, including the belief that happiness is the goal of life and that the pursuit of pleasure is the means to achieve happiness (page 143)

Stoicism the philosophy founded by Zeno, including the belief that happiness is found when people gain inner peace by living in harmony with the will of God (page 143)

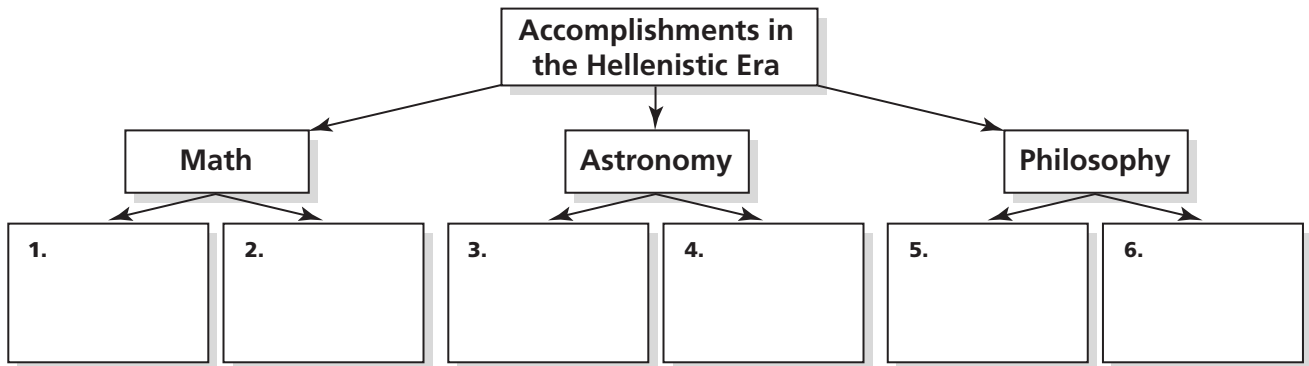
DRAWING FROM EXPERIENCE

Do you enjoy visiting art museums? What styles of sculptures and paintings do you enjoy looking at the most? Why are they your favorites?

In the last section, you read about Greek contributions to philosophy, drama, and art. This section focuses on the Hellenistic culture.

ORGANIZING YOUR THOUGHTS

Use the diagram below to help you take notes. The Hellenistic Era was a period of cultural accomplishment in many areas. List two accomplishments in each of the following areas.



Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 4, Section 5 (continued)

READ TO LEARN

- **The Threat of Macedonia** (page 138)

The Greeks thought their northern neighbors, the Macedonians, were barbarians. The Macedonians were rural people who were organized in groups, not city-states. By the end of the fifth century B.C., however, Macedonia became a powerful kingdom.

In 359 B.C., Philip II became king. He built a powerful army and made Macedonia the chief power of the Greek world. The Athenians tried to stop him. They allied with other Greek states and fought the Macedonians at the Battle of Chaeronea in 338 B.C. The Macedonian army crushed the Greeks. Philip quickly gained control of all of Greece. This brought an end to the freedom of the city-states. Philip then insisted that the Greek states form a league and help him in a war with Persia. But he was assassinated before he could invade Asia.

7. What did Philip want the Greek states to do?

- **Alexander the Great** (page 139)

Philip's son, Alexander the Great, was only 20 when he became king of Macedonia. After his father's death, Alexander quickly invaded the Persian Empire. In 334 B.C., he entered Asia Minor with an army of thirty-seven thousand men, both Macedonians and Greeks. By the next year, he had freed the Ionian Greek cities of western Asia Minor from the Persians. By the winter of 332 B.C., Syria, Palestine, and Egypt were under his control. He built Alexandria as the Greek capital of Egypt. In 331 B.C., Alexander fought a battle with the Persians at Gaugamela, not far from Babylon. After this victory, Alexander took control of the rest of the Persian Empire. Over the next three years, he moved east and northeast, as far as modern Pakistan. In 326 B.C. he crossed the Indus River and entered India. However, his soldiers were weary and refused to go farther. Alexander returned to Babylon, where he planned more campaigns. In June 323 B.C., he died at the age of 32.

Alexander created a new age, the **Hellenistic Era**. The word *Hellenistic* is derived from a Greek word that means "to imitate Greeks." During this period in history, the Greek language and culture spread to many other parts of the world.

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 4, Section 5 (continued)

8. Why is the new age that was created by Alexander called the Hellenistic Era?

• **The Hellenistic Kingdoms** (page 141)

The empire that Alexander had created fell apart soon after his death. The Macedonian generals struggled for power. By 300 B.C., any hope of unity was dead. Four Hellenistic kingdoms emerged: Macedonia, Syria, the kingdom of Pergamum in western Asia Minor, and Egypt.

Many cities were founded by Alexander and by the Hellenistic rulers after him. Alexandria, the city that Alexander founded in Egypt, was the largest city in the Mediterranean region by the first century B.C. Hellenistic rulers encouraged Greek colonists to move to the new cities in Southwest Asia. Architects, engineers, dramatists, and actors were all in demand in the new cities. Many Greeks and Macedonians were happy to seek their fortunes in the new cities. The new cities of the Hellenistic Era helped to spread Greek culture throughout Asia.

9. What were the four kingdoms that emerged during the Hellenistic Era?

• **Hellenistic Culture** (page 142)

The Hellenistic Era was a period of cultural accomplishment in many areas. Alexandria became a center for poets, writers, philosophers, and scientists. The library there was the largest in ancient times. Architects and sculptors had many opportunities in the new cities. Hellenistic kings were very willing to spend their money to beautify their cities. Greek buildings, like baths, theaters and temples, soon lined the streets of the new cities. Thousands of statues were erected in towns and cities all over the Hellenistic world. Hellenistic sculptors moved away from the idealism of classical Greek art to a more realistic and emotional art.

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 4, Section 5 (continued)

Great progress was made during the Hellenistic Age in astronomy and mathematics. One astronomer, Aristarchus, developed the theory that the Sun is at the center of the universe and that Earth revolves around the Sun. Another astronomer, Eratosthenes, determined that Earth was round. He also calculated that Earth’s circumference was 24,675 miles, which is within 185 miles of the actual figure. The mathematician Euclid wrote the *Elements*, a textbook on plane geometry. His work has been used up to modern times. The most famous scientist of the Hellenistic period was Archimedes. He established the value of the mathematical constant pi. He was also a practical inventor and built a number of devices to repel attackers during sieges.

Athens remained the center of philosophy in the Hellenistic world. Two new systems of thought developed in Athens during this time. Epicurus founded a school in Athens near the end of the fourth century B.C. His philosophy came to be known as **Epicureanism**. He believed that happiness was the goal of life. The means to achieving happiness was the pursuit of pleasure. Pleasure was not the same as satisfying one’s physical desires. It was freedom from worry and emotional turmoil. To achieve this kind of pleasure, people had to free themselves from public activity.

Another school of thought was **Stoicism**. It became the most popular philosophy of the Hellenistic world. Stoicism was the philosophy of Zeno. Zeno had a school in Athens known as the Painted Portico. Like Epicureanism, Stoicism was concerned with helping people find happiness. The Stoics, however, took a different approach. To them, happiness could only be found when people gained inner peace by living in harmony with the will of God. Life’s problems could not disturb these people. Unlike the Epicureans, the Stoics did not believe in the need to separate themselves from the world and politics. The real stoic was a good citizen and could even be a good government official.

10. What were some differences between Epicureanism and Stoicism?

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Chapter 5, Section 1

For use with textbook pages 149–154

THE RISE OF ROME

KEY TERMS

- republic** a form of government in which the leader is not a monarch and certain citizens have the right to vote (page 151)
- patrician** one of Rome’s wealthy landowners, who became Rome’s ruling class (one of two groups of Roman citizens) (page 152)
- plebeian** a member of the second and larger group of Roman citizens, who were less wealthy landowners, craftspeople, merchants, and small farmers (page 152)
- consul** an officer of the Roman Republic who ran the government and led the Roman army into battle (page 152)
- praetor** an officer of the Roman Republic who was in charge of civil law (page 152)

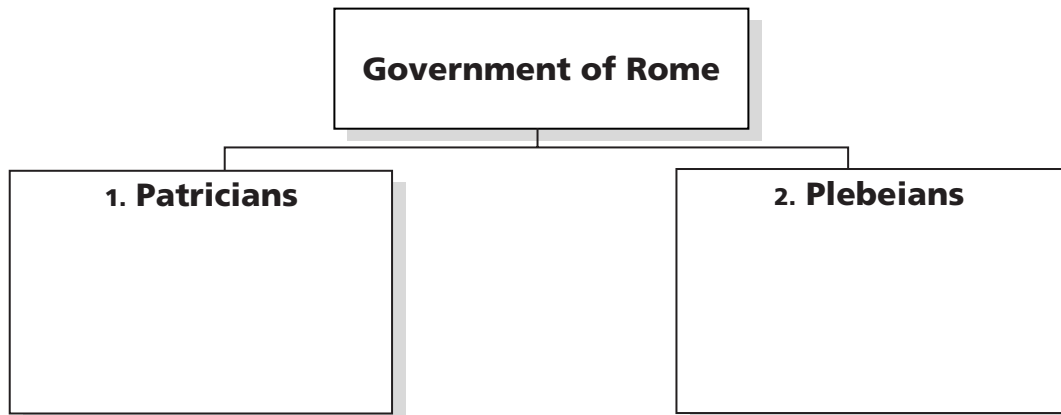
DRAWING FROM EXPERIENCE

What are the three branches of the United States government? What are the two parts of the legislative branch? Who selects the members of the legislative branch?

This section focuses on the development of the Roman Republic, including its government.

ORGANIZING YOUR THOUGHTS

Use the diagram below to help you take notes. Early Rome was divided into two groups of citizens, the patricians and the plebeians. List which offices or governing bodies each group could serve in. Include the following: consuls, praetors, tribunes, Senate, council of the plebs, centuriate assembly.



Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 5, Section 1 (continued)

READ TO LEARN

- **The Land and Peoples of Italy** (page 149)

Italy is a peninsula that is about 750 miles long and about 120 miles wide. It is divided down the middle by a mountain range, the Apennines. These mountains are not as rugged as the mountains of Greece, however. They did not isolate communities from each other like the Greek mountains did. Italy also had more land for farming than Greece, so it could support a large population.

Rome was located on the Tiber River, about 18 miles inland. It had a way to the sea, but it was far enough inland to be safe from pirates. It was built on seven hills, so it could be easily defended. It also had a good central location in Italy. It was located at a place on the Tiber River where the river could be easily crossed. So it became a natural crossing point for people traveling from north to south.

Indo-European peoples moved into Italy during the period from about 1500 to 1000 B.C. Little is known about these peoples. We do know that one group lived in the region of Latium and spoke Latin. They were herders and farmers. About 800 B.C., other people began to move into Italy. The two most important groups were the Greeks and the Etruscans. Many Greeks came to Italy during the age of Greek colonization (750–550 B.C.). They also settled in Sicily, an island south of Italy. The Greeks had a big influence on Rome. The Romans imitated their sculpture, architecture, literature, and alphabet. The Romans also learned how to grow olives and grapes from the Greeks.

The Etruscans also influenced the Romans. The Etruscans lived north of Rome in Etruria. After 650 B.C., they controlled Rome and most of Latium. They changed Rome from a village to a city. The Romans adopted the Etruscans' clothing—the toga and short cloak. The organization of the Roman army was also borrowed from the Etruscans.

3. In what ways did the Greeks and Etruscans influence the Romans?

- **The Roman Republic** (page 150)

In 509 B.C., the Romans overthrew the last Etruscan king and formed a republic. A **republic** is a form of government in which the leader is not a monarch and certain citizens have the right to vote. For the next two hundred years, Rome was almost continually at war. In 338 B.C., Rome crushed the Latin states in Latium. During the next 50 years, the Romans were at war with

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 5, Section 1 (continued)

people from the Apennines. Rome was again victorious. Soon, the Romans were at war with the Greek cities in southern Italy. By 264 B.C., they had defeated the Greeks. Over the next three years, they also defeated the Etruscan states to the north. They now had control of virtually all of Italy.

To rule Italy, the Romans formed the Roman Confederation. Rome allowed some people, especially the Latins, to become Roman citizens. Most of the other communities were made allies. They were free to run their own affairs, but they had to provide soldiers for the Roman army. The Romans made it clear that loyal allies could become Roman citizens. This gave the conquered peoples a stake in Rome's success.

Why was Rome so successful? The Romans believed in duty, courage, and discipline. They were also good diplomats. They gained support by giving other people Roman citizenship and allowing them to run their own affairs. They also excelled in military matters. If they lost an army or a fleet, they did not quit. They built new armies and new fleets. As they conquered new areas, they built fortified towns and connected the towns by roads. This allowed them to move their troops quickly around the country. Finally, the Romans were practical in politics. They did not try to build an ideal government. They designed their government in response to problems, as the problems arose.

4. In what way were the Romans good diplomats?

- **The Roman State** (page 152)

Early Rome was divided into two groups or orders—the patricians and the plebeians. The **patricians** were wealthy landowners, who became Rome's ruling class. The **plebeians** were less wealthy landowners, craftspeople, merchants, and small farmers. They were also the larger group. Men in both groups were citizens and could vote, but only the patricians could be elected to government offices. Consuls and praetors headed the executive branch of the Roman government. The consuls and praetors were patricians. There were two consuls, who were elected every year. They ran the government and led the Roman army into battle. The praetors were in charge of civil law. At first, there was only one praetor, who only judged cases involving Roman citizens. Later, another praetor was added to judge cases when one or both people were noncitizens. There were also other officials with specific duties, such as supervising the treasury.

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 5, Section 1 *(continued)*

The legislative branch included the Senate and the centuriate assembly. The Roman Senate was a group of about three hundred patricians who served for life. At first, they were only advisors to the government officials. By the third century B.C., however, their advice had the force of law. The centuriate assembly elected the chief officials, such as the consuls and praetors, and passed laws. It was made up of patricians, and the wealthiest citizens always had a majority.

There were often conflicts between the patricians and the plebeians. The plebeians resented that they were not treated equally. They could not hold government offices, and their children could not marry the children of the patricians. The conflicts between the patricians and the plebeians eventually led to the creation of an assembly for plebeians only. This assembly was called the council of the plebs and was created in 471 B.C. It elected officials, known as the tribunes, to protect the plebeians. In the fourth century B.C., plebeians were permitted to become consuls. Finally, in 287 B.C., the council of the plebs gained the right to pass laws for all Romans. All male citizens were now supposedly equal under the law. In reality, a few wealthy patrician and plebeian families dominated the political offices.

Rome's first code of laws was the Twelve Tables. It was adopted in 450 B.C. From the Twelve Tables, the Romans developed a more sophisticated system of laws. This system only applied to Roman citizens, however. As legal questions arose that involved both Romans and non-Romans, special rules were often needed. These rules formed the basis for a new group of laws, known as the Law of Nations. These laws established standards of justice that applied to all people. A person was considered innocent until proven guilty. People who were accused of crimes were allowed to defend themselves before a judge. The judge was expected to weigh the evidence carefully before making a decision. These principles are the basis of our legal system today.

5. Why did the plebeians resent the patricians?

- **Rome Conquers the Mediterranean** *(page 153)*

Even after they conquered Italy, the Romans continued to be at war. They had a series of wars with the state of Carthage. Carthage was located on the coast of North Africa. It was founded around 800 B.C. by the Phoenicians. It created a huge trading empire in the Mediterranean. Carthaginians settled in Sicily, an island close to Italy. The Romans were afraid of the Carthaginians.

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Chapter 5, Section 1 (continued)

They sent an army to Sicily in 264 B.C. The Carthaginians saw this as an act of war, because they considered Sicily part of their empire. This war is called the First Punic War. (The Latin word for Phoenician is *punicus*.) The Romans created a navy and defeated the Carthaginian navy off the coast of Sicily. The First Punic War came to an end in 241 B.C. Carthage gave up its rights to Sicily and paid a fine to the Romans. Sicily became the first Roman province.

Carthage added new lands in Spain to make up for the loss of Sicily. The Romans encouraged one of the Spanish leaders to revolt against Carthage. Hannibal, the greatest of the Carthaginian generals, struck back. This began the Second Punic War, which lasted from 218 to 201 B.C. Hannibal decided to invade Italy. He entered Spain, moved east, and crossed the Alps. He had an army of about 46 thousand men, a large number of horses, and 37 battle elephants. In 216 B.C., the Romans fought Hannibal’s army at Cannae. The Romans lost an army of almost forty thousand men, but they refused to surrender. Hannibal conquered parts of Italy but was not able to attack the major cities, like Rome. The Romans gradually regained some of Italy and sent troops to Spain. By 206 B.C., they had pushed the Carthaginians out of Spain. Then Rome decided to invade Carthage. This forced the Carthaginians to bring Hannibal back from Italy. At the battle of Zama in 202 B.C., the Romans defeated Hannibal’s army.

Fifty years later, the Romans fought their third and final war with Carthage. In 146 B.C., Carthage was destroyed, and the people of Carthage became slaves. Carthage became a Roman province called Africa. Rome also fought the Hellenistic states in the eastern Mediterranean. The Fourth Macedonian War ended in 148 B.C., and Macedonia became a Roman province. Two years later, Greece was placed under the control of the Roman governor of Macedonia. In 129 B.C., Pergamum became Rome’s first province in Asia. Rome now controlled all of the Mediterranean.

6. What started the First Punic War?

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 5, Section 2

For use with textbook pages 156–162

FROM REPUBLIC TO EMPIRE

KEY TERMS

triumvirate a government by three people with equal power (page 157)

dictator an absolute ruler (page 158)

imperator commander in chief of the Roman army, a title given to Augustus by the Senate (page 159)

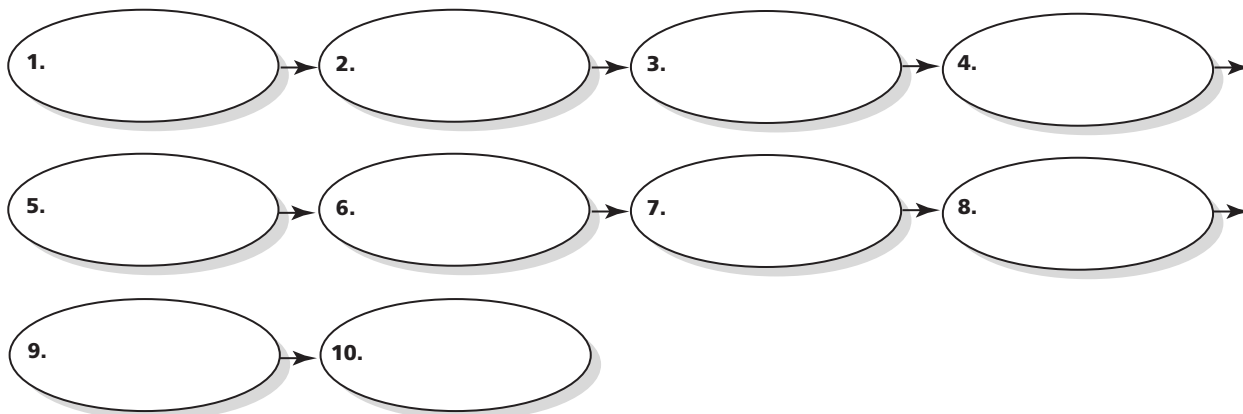
DRAWING FROM EXPERIENCE

Do you think there is any reason that people in the United States should be hungry? Should the government provide free food for anyone who needs it? Why?

In the last section, you read about the development of ancient Rome. This section focuses on the end of the Roman Republic and the beginning of the Roman Empire. Many of the Roman emperors helped the poor by giving them grain.

ORGANIZING YOUR THOUGHTS

Use the diagram below to help you take notes. List the following emperors in the order that they ruled Rome: Trajan, Tiberius, Hadrian, Marcus Aurelius, Nerva, Caligula, Antoninus Pius, Claudius, Augustus, Nero. Circle the names of the “five good emperors.”



Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 5, Section 2 (continued)

READ TO LEARN

- **Growing Inequality and Unrest** (page 156)

In the second century B.C., the Senate had become the real governing body in the Roman Republic. The Senate was controlled by a small group of wealthy aristocrats. These aristocrats were only a tiny minority of the Roman people. Most of the Roman people were small farmers. Over time, many of these small farmers lost their lands to the wealthy landowners. They were forced to move to the cities and formed a large class of landless poor. Two brothers, Tiberius and Gaius Gracchus, tried to solve this problem. They urged the council of the plebs to pass laws that would take back land from the large landowners and give it to the landless poor. Many senators were furious, because they were large landowners themselves. A group of senators killed the Gracchus brothers.

11. How did the Gracchus brothers try to help the poor?

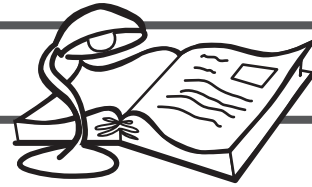
- **A New Role for the Army** (page 157)

At the end of the second century B.C., a Roman general named Marius began to recruit his armies from the landless poor. To recruit them, he promised them land. These soldiers swore an oath of loyalty to the general himself. As a result, Marius created a new type of army that was not under government control. Generals were now forced to become involved in politics to get laws passed to provide land for their soldiers. Generals began to have a great deal of power in Rome.

The Senate gave the command of the war in Asia Minor to another general, Lucius Cornelius Sulla. The council of the plebs tried to transfer the command to Marius. A civil war broke out. Sulla won and seized Rome in 82 B.C. He conducted a reign of terror to wipe out all opposition. Then he restored power to the Senate and eliminated most of the power of the other assemblies. Future leaders would follow his example and continue to use armies to seize power.

12. How did Marius and Sulla change the role of the army in ancient Rome?

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 5, Section 2 (continued)

• The Collapse of the Republic (page 157)

For the next fifty years (82–31 B.C.), Rome was torn by civil wars. Various men competed for power. Three men—Crassus, Pompey, and Julius Caesar—were victorious. Crassus was the richest man in Rome. Pompey and Caesar were military heroes. In 60 B.C., they formed the First Triumvirate. A **triumvirate** is a government by three people with equal power. Crassus received a command in Spain, Crassus was given a command in Syria, and Caesar received a command in Gaul (what is now France). Crassus was killed in battle in 53 B.C. This left only two leaders. Some of the senators decided that they wanted Pompey to be the only leader. They voted for Caesar to lay down his command. Caesar refused. He kept his army and marched on Rome. This led to a civil war between Caesar’s army and the army of Pompey and his allies. Caesar’s army defeated Pompey’s army, and Caesar took complete control of the Roman government. He was officially made dictator in 45 B.C. A **dictator** is an absolute ruler. Caesar gave land to the poor and increased the number of senators to 900. This weakened the power of the Senate. In 44 B.C., a group of leading senators assassinated him.

After Caesar’s death, there was a struggle for power. Three men—Octavian, Antony, and Lepidus—joined forces and formed the Second Triumvirate. Octavian was Caesar’s grandnephew, Antony had been Caesar’s assistant, and Lepidus had been the commander of Caesar’s cavalry. Within a few years, only two of the men, Octavian and Antony, were in power. They divided the Roman world between them. Octavian took the west, and Antony took the east. Octavian and Antony soon came into conflict. Antony allied himself with the Egyptian queen Cleopatra VII. At the Battle of Actium in Greece in 31 B.C., Octavian’s forces defeated the army and navy of Antony and Cleopatra. Antony and Cleopatra both committed suicide a year later.

13. What leaders formed the First and Second Triumvirates?

• The Age of Augustus (page 159)

Octavian was now the only leader of Rome. The civil wars had ended. So had the republic. In 27 B.C., Octavian proclaimed the “restoration of the Republic,” but he knew that the republic could not be completely restored.

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Chapter 5, Section 2 (continued)

Although he gave some power to the Senate, Octavian became the first Roman emperor. The Senate gave him the title of Augustus, which means “the revered one.” The period from 31 B.C. to A.D. 14 is known as the Age of Augustus.

Augustus was popular, but most of his power came from his control of the army. The Senate gave Augustus the title **imperator**, or commander in chief. Augustus had an army of 28 legions, or about 150,000 men. Only Roman citizens could be legionnaires (members of a legion). Augustus also set up a praetorian guard of 9,000 men, who guarded the emperor. Augustus conquered many new areas, but he was not able to conquer Germany. The defeats in Germany taught Augustus that Rome’s power was not unlimited.

14. What two titles did the Senate give Octavian? What do the titles mean?

- **The Early Empire** (page 159)

Beginning in A.D. 14, a series of new emperors ruled Rome. This period is called the Early Empire. It ended in A.D. 180. The emperor could select his successor from his own family. The first four emperors after Augustus came from his family. They were Tiberius, Caligula, Claudius, and Nero. These emperors took away more and more of the Senate’s powers. The emperors became more powerful and more corrupt. Nero, for example, had people killed if he wanted them out of the way. He even killed his own mother. The Roman legions finally revolted, and Nero committed suicide.

At the beginning of the second century, there was a series of five emperors who are called the “good emperors.” They were Nerva, Trajan, Hadrian, Antoninus Pius, and Marcus Aurelius. They created a period of peace and prosperity known as the *Pax Romana* (the “Roman Peace”). This period lasted for almost a hundred years. Officials appointed by the emperor took over the running of the government. The good emperors created new programs to help the poor. They also built aqueducts, bridges, roads, and harbor facilities in Rome and throughout the provinces.

During the Early Empire, Rome expanded into new areas. Trajan extended the empire into Dacia, Mesopotamia, and the Sinai Peninsula. His successors realized that the empire was getting too large to be defended easily. Hadrian withdrew Roman forces from Mesopotamia. He strengthened the fortifications along a line connecting the Rhine and Danube Rivers. He also built a wall about 74 miles long across northern Britain to keep out the Picts and the Scots. This is called Hadrian’s Wall.

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 5, Section 2 (continued)

In the second century, the Roman Empire was at its height. It was one of the greatest states that the world had ever seen. It covered about three and a half million square miles and had a population of over fifty million. In A.D. 212, the emperor Caracalla gave Roman citizenship to every free person in the empire. Latin was the language of the western part of the empire. Greek was used in the east. Roman culture spread to all parts of the empire and was mixed with Greek culture. The result has been called Greco-Roman civilization.

Trade flourished during the Early Empire. Silk was imported from China. Large quantities of grain were imported from Egypt. Farming was still the main occupation of most people. Large estates, called *latifundia*, dominated farming in southern and central Italy. A huge gap separated the rich and poor. The upper classes lived in luxury. Small farmers often became dependent on the wealthy aristocrats. In the cities, poor citizens worked in shops and markets. Thousands of people depended on the emperor's handouts of grain to survive.

15. What was the *Pax Romana*?

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 5, Section 3

For use with textbook pages 163–168

CULTURE AND SOCIETY IN THE ROMAN WORLD

KEY TERMS

paterfamilias the dominant male in a Roman family (page 165)

insulae apartment blocks in Rome where the poor lived (page 167)

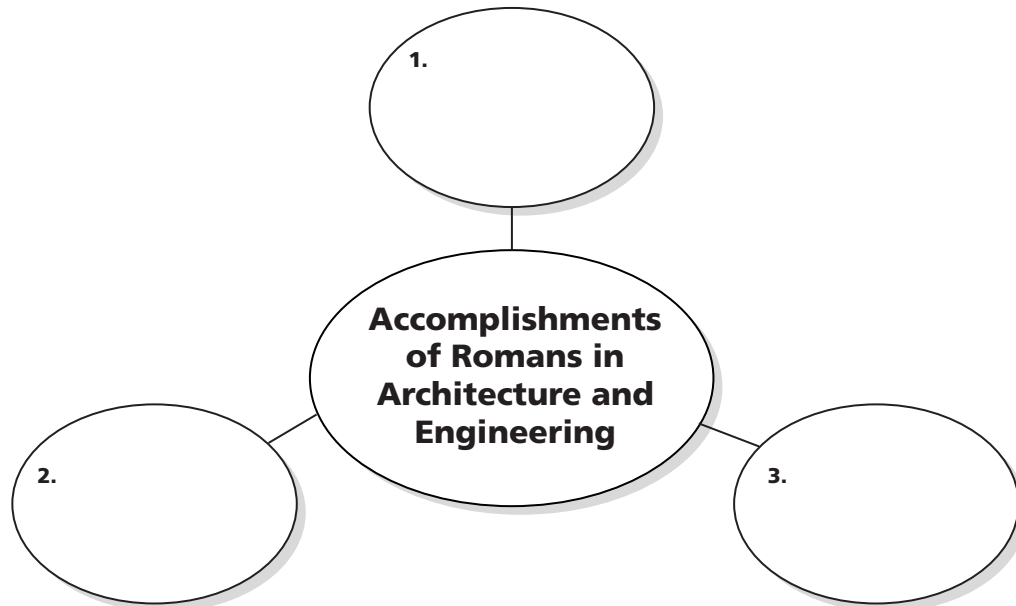
DRAWING FROM EXPERIENCE

What kinds of recreational facilities are available to the public in or near your community? What type of facility is your favorite? Why?

In the last section, you learned about the beginnings of the Roman Empire. In this section, you will learn about the cultural accomplishments of ancient Rome. You will also learn about daily life during this time, including the kinds of recreation and entertainment that were available to the people.

ORGANIZING YOUR THOUGHTS

Use the web organizer below to help you take notes. The Romans had major accomplishments in architecture and engineering. List three of those accomplishments.



Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 5, Section 3 (continued)

READ TO LEARN

- **Roman Art and Architecture** (page 163)

During the third and second centuries B.C., Greek art influenced the Romans. They put Greek statues in their homes and in public buildings. Roman sculptors imitated the Greeks, but they also made some changes. They produced realistic statues that even showed unpleasant physical details, something the Greeks would never do.

The Romans excelled in architecture and engineering. They used Greek styles, such as colonnades and rectangular buildings. However, they also used forms based on curved lines, such as arches, vaults, and domes. They were also the first people to use concrete on a large scale. By using concrete and the new forms, they were able to make huge buildings undreamed of by the Greeks. They also built roads, bridges, and aqueducts. They built almost a dozen aqueducts in Rome alone. The aqueducts kept the Romans supplied with water. They built over 50,000 miles of roads to connect the different parts of the empire.

4. How was Roman sculpture different from Greek sculpture?

- **Roman Literature** (page 164)

The Age of Augustus has been called the golden age of Latin literature. The greatest poet of the Augustan Age was Virgil. He wrote his greatest work, the *Aeneid*, in honor of Rome. Another important Augustan poet was Horace. In his *Satires*, he made fun of human weaknesses. The most famous prose writer of the golden age was Livy. He was an historian whose masterpiece was the *History of Rome*. He was good storyteller, but his stories were not always accurate. Even so, his work became the standard history of Rome for a long time.

5. What was the golden age of Latin literature?

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 5, Section 3 (continued)

- **The Roman Family** (page 165)

The family was the basic unit in Roman society. The head of the Roman family was the **paterfamilias**, the dominant male. Each household also included the wife, sons with their wives, unmarried daughters, and slaves. Unlike the Greeks, Romans raised their children at home. All upper-class children were expected to learn to read. This included the girls. Fathers were in charge of the children's education. Greek slaves were often used as teachers, because upper-class Romans had to learn Greek as well as Latin. Roman boys learned reading and writing, moral principles, law, and physical training to prepare them to be soldiers. Girls were taught by private tutors or were sent to primary schools. They did not attend secondary schools. They were usually married at that age. The minimum age for girls to marry was 12, but 14 was a more common age. For men, the minimum age was 14, but most men married later. Fathers arranged the marriages of their daughters. Marriages were meant to be for life, but divorce was introduced in the third century B.C.

By the second century A.D., changes were occurring in the Roman family. The paterfamilias no longer had absolute authority over his children and wife. Women were no longer required to have guardians. They had the right to own, inherit, and sell property. Women were not segregated from men in the home. They were viewed as enjoyable company and were at the center of household social life. Outside their homes, women could attend races, the theater, and events in the amphitheater. Women could not participate in politics, but many important women influenced politics through their husbands.

6. How did the role of Roman women change in the second century A.D.?

- **Slavery** (page 166)

The Romans had many slaves, especially after their victories in the Mediterranean. Many foreign people were captured in war and brought to Italy as slaves. Greek slaves were used as tutors, musicians, doctors, and artists. Slaves of all nationalities were used as household workers, such as cooks and gardeners. Slaves were also used to build roads and public buildings. They also farmed the estates of the wealthy. Conditions for the slaves were often pitiful. Some slaves revolted against their owners and even murdered them. In 73 B.C. the gladiator Spartacus led the most famous slave

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 5, Section 3 (continued)

revolt. This revolt involved seventy thousand slaves. Spartacus defeated several Roman armies before he was captured and killed in 71 B.C. Six thousand followers of Spartacus were crucified (put to death by nailing to a cross).

7. What kinds of work did slaves do in ancient Rome?

• Daily Life in the City of Rome (page 167)

Rome was the capital city of the Roman Empire. It had the largest population of any city in the empire—close to one million by the time of Augustus. The city was overcrowded and noisy. Augustus organized a police force in Rome, but people were still assaulted or robbed. A huge gap separated the rich and the poor. The rich had comfortable villas. The poor lived in apartment blocks called *insulae*. These apartment buildings were poorly built and often collapsed. Fire was also a constant problem in the *insulae*. High rents forced entire families to live in one room. There was no plumbing or central heating. The homes were so uncomfortable that many poor Romans spent most of their time outdoors in the streets. Beginning with Augustus, emperors provided food for the city poor. About two thousand people received free grain. Even with the free grain, they barely survived.

Certain parts of Rome were magnificent, however. There were beautiful temples, baths, theaters, government buildings, and amphitheaters. Entertainment was provided on a grand scale. During the religious festivals, there were three major types of entertainment. Chariot races were held at the Circus Maximus. Dramatic performances were held in theaters. The most famous form of entertainment, however, was the gladiatorial shows.

8. What was life like for the poor of Rome?

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Chapter 5, Section 4

For use with textbook pages 169–174

THE DEVELOPMENT OF CHRISTIANITY

KEY TERMS

procurator a Roman official who directed the affairs of a province (page 170)

New Testament the second part of the Christian Bible (page 172)

clergy church leaders (page 173)

laity regular church members (page 173)

DRAWING FROM EXPERIENCE

What does the Golden Rule “Do to others what you would have them do to you” mean? Do you think most people follow this rule? Why or why not?

In the last section, you learned about culture and society in ancient Rome. This section focuses on the beginnings of Christianity.

ORGANIZING YOUR THOUGHTS

Use the chart below to help you take notes. Christianity developed from a persecuted religion to the state religion of Rome. Indicate how Christians were treated under each of the following Roman emperors.

| Emperor | Treatment of Christians |
|----------------------|-------------------------|
| Nero | 1. |
| Diocletian | 2. |
| Constantine | 3. |
| Theodosius the Great | 4. |

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 5, Section 4 (continued)

READ TO LEARN

- **Background: Roman Religion** (page 169)

The official state religion of Rome focused on the worship of several gods and goddesses, including Jupiter, Juno, Minerva, and Mars. During the late Roman Republic, the state religion had declined. Augustus brought back traditional festivals and ceremonies to revive the state religion. The Romans believed that proper rituals by state priests brought peace and prosperity. They believed that their success in creating an empire meant that they had earned the favor of the gods. The Romans were also tolerant of other religions. They allowed the people they conquered to worship their own gods and goddesses. They even adopted many of the gods of the people they conquered. Starting with Augustus, the emperors were officially made gods by the Roman Senate. Religions from the east also began to have an impact on the Roman world.

5. What was the focus of the state religion of Rome?

- **The Jewish Background** (page 170)

By A.D. 6, the old Jewish kingdom of Judah was a Roman province. It was called Judaea and was placed under the direction of a Roman official called a *procurator*. The Jewish people were divided into different political groups. The Sadducees wanted to cooperate with the Romans. The Pharisees thought that closely following religious law would protect Jews from Roman influences. The Essenes were waiting for a Messiah (anointed one) who would save Israel from oppression and bring the kingdom of God to Earth. The Zealots wanted to overthrow the Roman rule. A Jewish revolt began in A.D. 66, but the Romans crushed it four years later. The Jewish temple in Jerusalem was destroyed.

6. What were four of the political groups in Judaea, and what were their goals?

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 5, Section 4 (continued)

• The Rise of Christianity (page 170)

During this time of conflict in Judaea, Jesus of Nazareth began his public preaching. He taught that God's primary command was to love God and one another. He said, "Love the Lord your God with all your heart and with all your soul and with all your mind and with all your strength. This is the first commandment. The second is this: Love your neighbor as yourself." He taught that strict following of the Jewish law was not what was important. He said, "So in everything, do to others what you would have them do to you, for this sums up the Law and the Prophets." The teachings of Jesus about humility, charity, and love toward others would form the basis of the value system of medieval Western civilization.

The Judaeen authorities thought Jesus was a revolutionary who might lead the Jews into another revolt against Rome. Jesus was turned over to the Roman authorities. The procurator Pontius Pilate had him crucified. This did not stop his followers. They believed that he had overcome death and come back to life. They believed that he was the Messiah, the long expected Savior of Israel.

Christianity began as a movement within Judaism. Two prominent disciples (followers) of Jesus were Peter and Paul. Peter was a Jewish fisherman and was known as the leader of the disciples. Paul was a highly educated Jewish Roman citizen. Paul took the message of Jesus to Gentiles (non-Jews) as well as to Jews. He believed that Jesus was the Savior, the Son of God, who had come to Earth to save all humans. He taught that Jesus' death made up for the sins of all humans. By accepting Jesus as Christ and Savior, people could be saved from the penalty of sin. (Christ comes from the Greek word *Christos*, which means "Messiah.") Paul founded Christian communities throughout Asia Minor and along the shores of the Aegean Sea.

When people heard that Jesus had come back to life, Christianity spread quickly. The teachings of early Christianity were passed on orally. Written materials also appeared. Paul and other followers of Jesus had written letters, or epistles, outlining Christian beliefs for the communities they founded. These writings became the **New Testament**, the second part of the Christian Bible.

By 100, Christian churches had been established in most of the major cities of the eastern empire. Churches had also been founded in some places in the western part of the empire. At first, the Romans paid little attention to the Christians. They saw the Christians as just another sect of Judaism. As time passed, however, they came to view Christians as harmful. Christians refused to worship the state gods and the emperors because they believed that there was only one God. The Romans saw this as an act of treason, punishable by

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 5, Section 4 (continued)

death. The Roman government began persecuting Christians during the reign of Nero. (Persecution is harassment that causes suffering.) Many Christians were put to death, often in cruel ways.

7. Why did the Roman government persecute the Christians?

- **The Triumph of Christianity** (page 172)

The persecution of Christians did nothing to stop the growth of Christianity. In fact, it did the opposite. It strengthened Christianity by forcing it to become more organized. Church leaders, called bishops, began to assume more control over Christian communities. A new structure was created in which the **clergy** (the church leaders) had distinct functions separate from the **laity** (the regular church members). Fear of persecution also meant that only the most committed individuals would choose to become Christians.

The persecution of the Christians began to decline in the second century. In the third century, some emperors began new persecutions, but they failed. The last great persecution was by Diocletian at the beginning of the fourth century. Even he had to admit that Christianity was too strong to be blotted out by force. In the fourth century, Christianity prospered when Constantine became the first Christian emperor. In 313, he issued the Edict of Milan, which proclaimed official tolerance of Christianity. Later, under Theodosius the Great, the Romans adopted Christianity as their official religion.

8. How did persecution strengthen Christianity?

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 5, Section 5

For use with textbook pages 175–178

DECLINE AND FALL

KEY TERMS

plague an epidemic disease (page 176)

inflation a rapid increase in prices (page 177)

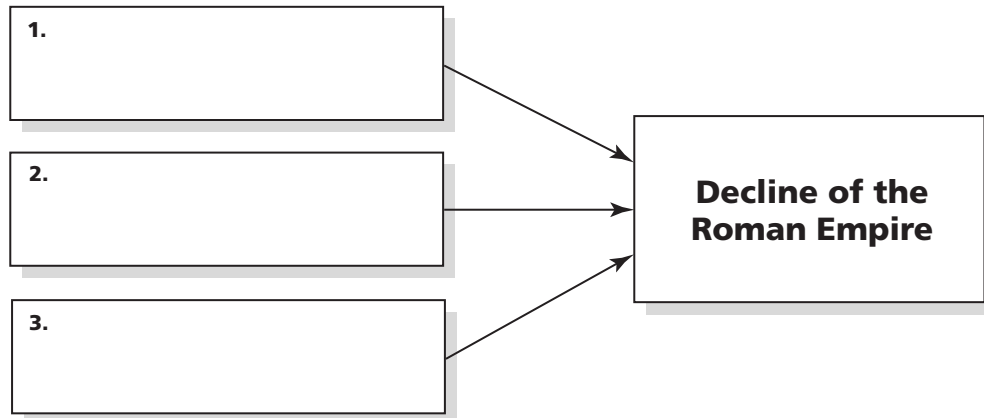
DRAWING FROM EXPERIENCE

What economic problems has the United States faced during your lifetime? Have there been any recessions? Have there been any periods of inflation?

In the last section, you learned about the development of Christianity during the Roman Empire. In this section, you will learn about the decline and fall of the Roman Empire. Economic problems contributed to this decline.

ORGANIZING YOUR THOUGHTS

Use the diagram below to help you take notes. List three factors that led to the decline of the Roman Empire.



Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 5, Section 5 (continued)

READ TO LEARN

- **The Decline** (page 175)

Marcus Aurelius, the last of the five good emperors, died in A.D. 180. A series of civil wars followed. Septimius Severus and his sons (the Severan rulers) formed a military government and restored order. After the Severan rulers, there was a period of disorder. From 235 to 284, there were 22 emperors. Many of them died violently. At the same time, the empire was being invaded. The Sassanid Persians invaded Roman territory in the east. Germanic tribes invaded the Balkans, Gaul, and Spain.

The invasions, civil wars, and plagues came close to causing an economic collapse of the Roman Empire in the third century. There was a decline in trade and industry. **Plagues** (epidemic diseases) created a labor shortage that affected both the military and the economy. By the mid-third century, Rome had to hire Germans to fight in the Roman army. Farm production declined, because invaders and the army destroyed fields.

Two emperors, Diocletian and Constantine, made reforms that temporarily restored the Roman Empire. The empire was changed into a new state, the Late Roman Empire. The new state had a new governmental structure, a rigid economic system, and a new state religion, Christianity. Diocletian ruled from 284 to 305. He believed that the empire was too large for a single ruler. So he divided it into four parts, each with its own ruler. Because of his military power, Diocletian still had the ultimate authority. Constantine ruled from 306 to 337. He continued and even expanded Diocletian's policies.

Both rulers increased the bureaucracy of the Roman Empire. A hierarchy of officials had control at various levels of government. The army was increased to five hundred thousand men, including German troops. More money was needed to pay for the army and the bureaucracy. The population was not growing, so the tax base could not be increased. Diocletian and Constantine created new economic policies to deal with these problems. To fight inflation, Diocletian set wage and price controls for the entire empire. (**Inflation** is a rapid increase in prices.) These controls failed to work. To ensure the tax base and keep the empire going, the emperors also forced people to remain in their jobs. Certain jobs, such as bakers and shippers, became hereditary. Many farmers lost their lands and became dependent on large landowners.

Constantine's biggest project was the construction of a new capital city in the east. It was built on the site of the Greek city of Byzantium. The city was eventually named Constantinople. It had an excellent strategic location. Constantine built a forum, large palaces, and a huge amphitheater in the new city. Constantinople would become the center of the Eastern Roman Empire and one of the great cities of the world.

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Chapter 5, Section 5 (continued)

4. What were some of the economic problems in the Roman Empire in the third century?

• **The Fall** (page 177)

The restored empire of Diocletian and Constantine survived for more than a century. After Constantine, the empire was divided into western and eastern parts. The capital of the Western Roman Empire was Rome. The capital of the Eastern Roman Empire was Constantinople. The Western Roman Empire had problems with invaders. The Visigoths, a Germanic people, crossed the Danube and settled in Roman territory. In 410, they sacked Rome. Another group, the Vandals, crossed into Italy from Northern Africa. In 455, they too sacked Rome. In 476, the Germanic head of the army overthrew the western emperor, Romulus Augustulus. This is usually considered the date of the fall of the Western Roman Empire. A series of German kingdoms replaced the Western Roman Empire. The Eastern Roman Empire continued to thrive, however. It was also called the Byzantine Empire.

5. What event is normally used to mark the fall of the Western Roman Empire?

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Chapter 6, Section 1

For use with textbook pages 191–194

THE RISE OF ISLAM

KEY TERMS

sheikh the ruler of an Arab tribe (page 191)

Quran the holy scriptures of Islam (page 193)

Islam (“peace through submission to the will of Allah”) the religion founded by Muhammad (page 193)

Hijrah the journey of Muhammad and his followers to Madinah (page 193)

hajj a pilgrimage to Makkah, one of the Five Pillars of Islam (page 193)

shari’ah a set of laws followed by Muslims (page 194)

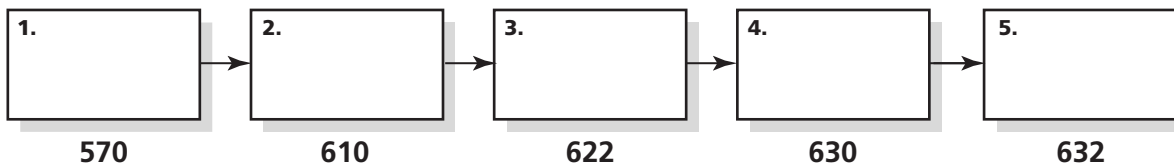
DRAWING FROM EXPERIENCE

Does your community have many churches? What religions do these churches represent? How do you think people decide what religion to follow?

This section focuses on the development and beliefs of Islam.

ORGANIZING YOUR THOUGHTS

Use the time line below to help you take notes. Identify five important events in the development of Islam.



Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 6, Section 1 (continued)

READ TO LEARN

- **The Arabs** (page 191)

The Arabian Peninsula is a desert land. The early Arabs were nomads who lived in the Arabian Peninsula. They moved constantly to find water and food for their animals. They were organized into tribes to help one another. The ruler of each tribe was called a **sheikh**. A council of elders chose the sheikh from one of the leading families. At first, the Arabs made their living by shepherding or by raiding the trading caravans that passed through the desert. Eventually, they began to take part in the caravan trade themselves. They became some of the major traders in the area. A trade route developed that went through Makkah (Mecca) to present-day Yemen and then by ship across the Indian Ocean. Towns along this route prospered from the trade. But tensions developed between the wealthy merchants in the towns and the Arabs in the deserts, called Bedouins.

Most early Arabs were polytheistic—they believed in many gods. The Arabs trace their ancestors to Abraham and his son Ishmael, who were believed to have built at **Makkah** (Mecca) the Kaaba (KAH •buh), a house of worship whose cornerstone was a sacred stone, called the Black Stone. The Arabs recognized a supreme god named **Allah** (*Allah* is Arabic for “God”), but they also believed in other tribal gods. They revered the Kaaba for its association with Abraham.

The Arabian Peninsula took on a new importance when political disorder in Mesopotamia and Egypt made the usual trade routes in Southwest Asia too dangerous to travel. A safer trade route that went through Makkah to present-day Yemen and then by ship across the Indian Ocean became more popular.

Communities along this route, such as Makkah, prospered from the increased caravan trade. Tensions arose, however, as increasingly wealthy merchants showed less and less concern for the welfare of their poorer clanspeople and slaves.

6. How did the early Arabs make their living?

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 6, Section 1 (continued)

• The Life of Muhammad (page 192)

Muhammad was born in Makkah in 570 A.D. He grew up to become a caravan manager. Over time, he became concerned about the gap between the Makkans and the rich merchants in the city. He began to go to the nearby hills to meditate. In 610, during one of these times of meditation, he had a vision. He heard a voice that he believed was inspired by Allah. The voice told him to recite what he was hearing. Muhammad believed that Allah had already revealed himself through Moses and Jesus. But he believed that the final revelations of Allah were now being given to him. Muhammad's revelations were eventually written down in the **Quran**, the holy scriptures of **Islam**. (The word *Islam* means "peace through submission to the will of Allah.") Those who practice Islam are called Muslims. Muslims believe that there is only one God, Allah, and that Muhammad is his prophet.

Muhammad tried to convince the people of Makkah about the truth of his revelations. Most of the people of Makkah did not accept his message, so he and his followers moved to Yathrib. Yathrib was later renamed Madinah (Medina), which means "city of the prophet." The journey of Muhammad and his followers to Madinah is known as the **Hijrah**. The journey took place in 622. This year became year 1 in the official calendar of Islam. Muhammad began to gain supporters in Madinah. He also had supporters in the Bedouin tribes. Muslims did not see any difference between political and religious authority. Submission to the will of Allah meant submission to his prophet, Muhammad. Muhammad soon became both a religious and a political leader. He formed a military force to defend himself and his followers. Their success soon attracted more supporters. In 630, Muhammad returned to Makkah with a force of ten thousand men. The city surrendered, and most of the people converted to Islam. In 632, Muhammad died, just as Islam was beginning to spread throughout the Arabian Peninsula.

7. What event marks the beginning of the Islamic calendar?

• The Teachings of Muhammad (page 193)

Like Christianity and Judaism, Islam is monotheistic. Muslims believe that Allah is the only God, who created the universe and everything in it. Islam offers the hope of an afterlife. Those who want life after death must submit to the will of Allah. Muslims do not believe that Muhammad was divine. He is

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 6, Section 1 (continued)

considered a prophet, but he was also a man like other men. Muslims believe that Allah sent his final revelation through Muhammad because people rejected his earlier prophets.

Islam stresses the need to obey the will of Allah. This means following the Five Pillars of Islam. These are: (1) belief in Allah and in Muhammad as his prophet; (2) standard prayer five times a day and public prayer on Fridays at midday; (3) giving alms, such as food and money, to the poor; (4) observance of the holy month of Ramadan, including fasting from dawn to sunset; (5) making a pilgrimage to Makkah at least once in a lifetime. This pilgrimage is called the **hajj**.

Islam is not just a set of beliefs but also a way of life. After Muhammad's death, Muslim scholars drew up a set of laws to regulate daily life. These laws are called the **shari'ah**. Much of the *shari'ah* is taken from the Quran. Muslims are expected to follow strict guidelines for behavior. In addition to the Five Pillars, Muslims are forbidden to gamble, eat pork, drink alcohol, or engage in dishonest behavior.

8. What is the *shari'ah*?

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Chapter 6, Section 2

For use with textbook pages 196–202

THE ARAB EMPIRE AND ITS SUCCESSORS

KEY TERMS

- caliph** a successor to Muhammad, or ruler of Islam (page 197)
- jihad** (“struggle in the way of God”) the Arabic custom of raiding one’s enemies (page 197)
- Shiite** Muslims who accept only the descendants of Ali as the true caliphs (page 199)
- Sunni** Muslims who accept only the descendants of the Umayyads as the true caliphs (page 199)
- vizier** a prime minister who advised the caliph (page 200)
- sultan** (“holder of power”) the title of the Turkish leader who took command of the Arab Empire (page 201)
- mosque** a Muslim temple or house of worship (page 202)

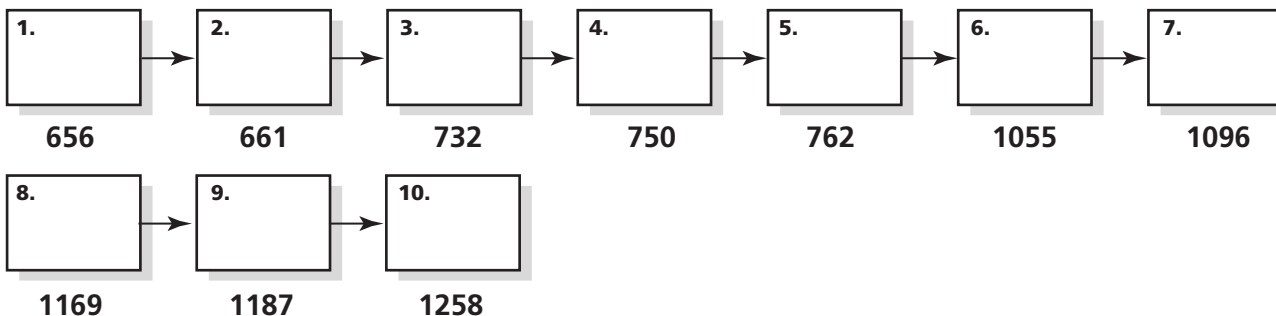
DRAWING FROM EXPERIENCE

What recent world events have involved conflicts between religious groups or ethnic groups? Where have they happened? Why do you think these kinds of conflicts still happen today?

In the last section, you read about the rise of Islam. In this section, you will learn about the development of the Arab Empire.

ORGANIZING YOUR THOUGHTS

Use the time line below to help you take notes. Identify ten key events in Islamic history.



Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 6, Section 2 (continued)

READ TO LEARN

- **Creation of an Arab Empire** (page 196)

The death of Muhammad left his followers with a problem. He had never named a successor. After his death, some of his followers chose Abu Bakr to be their leader. He was a wealthy merchant and Muhammad’s father-in-law. He was named **caliph**, or successor to Muhammad. Under Abu Bakr, the Islamic movement began to grow. Abu Bakr used the Arabic custom of raiding one’s enemies to expand the movement. The Quran called this activity “struggle in the way of God,” or **jihad**. Muslim soldiers believed that they were assured of a place in Paradise if they died in battle. In 636, the Arab army defeated the Byzantine army. By 642, Syria, Egypt, and other areas of northern Africa had been added to the new Arab Empire. By 650, the Arabs had conquered the entire Persian Empire. Conquered people were not forced to convert to Islam. They were only required to be loyal to Muslim rule and to pay taxes.

After Abu Bakr died, it was not clear who should be his successor. The first two caliphs who ruled after his death were assassinated. In 656, Ali was chosen to be caliph. He was Muhammad’s son-in-law. He too was assassinated, after ruling for five years.

11. Who was the first caliph, or successor to Muhammad?

- **The Umayyads** (page 198)

In 661, the general Mu’awiyah became caliph. He was also the governor of Syria and one of Ali’s chief rivals. He only used force when absolutely necessary. He made the office of caliph, called the caliphate, hereditary. By doing this, he established the Umayyad dynasty. He also moved the capital of the Arab Empire from Madinah to Damascus, in Syria.

At the beginning of the eighth century, Arab armies conquered and converted the Berbers. The Berbers lived along the Mediterranean coast of northern Africa. Around 710, the Berbers and the Arabs invaded Spain. By 725, most of Spain had become a Muslim state. However, in 732, Arab forces were defeated at the Battle of Tours in Gaul. Arab expansion into Europe ended.

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 6, Section 2 (continued)

During the Umayyad dynasty, Muslims who were not Arabs, such as Persians and Byzantines, felt that they were treated unfairly. This sometimes led to revolt. Hussein, the second son of Ali, led one important revolt. This revolt was crushed, but the struggle split Islam into two groups. The Shiite Muslims accept only the descendants of Ali as the true caliphs. The Sunni Muslims accept only the descendants of the Umayyads as caliphs. This split in Islam continues today.

12. What is the difference between Shiite and Sunni Muslims?

• The Abbasid Dynasty (page 199)

Resentment against the Umayyads grew. In 750, Abu al-Abbas overthrew the Umayyad dynasty and set up the Abbasid dynasty. This dynasty lasted until 1258. In 762, the Abbasids built a new capital city at Baghdad, on the Tigris River. Baghdad had a good location. It was on the caravan route from the Mediterranean to central Asia. Under the Abbasids, all Muslims could hold both civil and military offices, regardless of their ethnic backgrounds. The best known of the caliphs during this time was Harun al-Rashid. His reign is called the golden age of the Abbasid caliphate. He was known for his charity. He and his son, al-Ma'mun, also supported artists and writers. This was a period of great prosperity. Baghdad became the center of a huge trade empire that included Asia, Africa, and Europe. This added to the riches of the Islamic world.

A bureaucracy helped the caliph rule the empire. A council headed by a prime minister, known as a **vizier**, advised the caliph. There was much fighting over who would be the next caliph. When Harun al-Rashid died, his two sons fought over who would succeed him. They almost destroyed the city of Baghdad. Eventually, rulers of the provinces of the Abbasid Empire began to break away and form their own dynasties. Spain established its own caliphate in 750. A new dynasty under the Fatimids was established in Egypt in 973.

13. What was the golden age of the Abbasid caliphate?

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Chapter 6, Section 2 (continued)

- **The Seljuk Turks** (page 201)

The Fatimid dynasty in Egypt created an army of soldiers from other countries to fight for them. One group in the army was the Seljuk Turks. They were nomads from central Asia. They converted to Islam and grew stronger as the Abbasids grew weaker. By the eleventh century, they had taken over the eastern provinces of the Abbasid Empire. In 1055, a Turkish leader captured Baghdad and took command of the empire. His title was **sultan**, or “holder of power.” The Abbasid caliph was still the religious leader, but the Seljuk Turks now held the real military and political power. In 1071, the Byzantines attacked the Turks, but the Turks defeated them. The Turks then took over most of the Anatolian peninsula.

14. Who were the Seljuk Turks?

- **The Crusades** (page 201)

The Byzantine emperor Alexius I asked the Christian states of Europe for help against the Turks. Because the Christian states and the Islamic world feared each other, many Europeans agreed. A series of crusades began in 1096. At first, the crusaders were able to conquer areas and establish crusader states. In 1169, Saladin, a new Muslim ruler, took control of Egypt and made himself sultan. This ended the Fatimid dynasty. Saladin took control of Syria and attacked the crusader states in the area. In 1187, Saladin’s army invaded Jerusalem and destroyed the Christian army there. The Crusades ended, but they led to centuries of mistrust between Muslims and Christians.

15. Why did many Europeans agree to help the Byzantine emperor?

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Chapter 6, Section 2 (continued)

- **The Mongols** (page 202)

New invaders, the Mongols, attacked the Arab Empire in the thirteenth century. The Mongols were people from the Gobi. They were destructive and cruel. Their goal was to create so much terror that people would not fight back. In 1258, the Mongols seized Persia and Mesopotamia. This brought an end to the Abbasid caliphate at Baghdad. The Mongols' leader, Hülegü, hated Islam. He decided to destroy the city of Baghdad. He burnt schools, libraries, palaces and **mosques** (Muslim houses of worship). The Mongols advanced as far as the Red Sea but were unable to conquer Egypt. With Baghdad destroyed, Cairo became the new center of Islamic civilization.

Over time, the Mongol rulers converted to Islam. They rebuilt many of the cities they had destroyed. By the fourteenth century, the Mongol Empire had begun to split into separate kingdoms. The old Islamic Empire had come to an end.

16. Why were the Mongols so destructive and cruel?

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 6, Section 3

For use with textbook pages 203–206

ISLAMIC CIVILIZATION

KEY TERMS

bazaar a covered market (page 204)

dowry in Islamic society, a gift of money or property given to a bride by her husband (page 206)

DRAWING FROM EXPERIENCE

Is there a flea market or a farmers' market in or near your community? Do you ever shop there? What items do they sell?

The last two sections focused on the rise of Islam and the Arab Empire. This section focuses on Islamic civilization, including the development of a trade network and marketplaces.

ORGANIZING YOUR THOUGHTS

Use the chart below to help you take notes. An extensive trade network brought goods from many parts of the world to the Arab Empire. List the goods that were traded by the following areas.

| Area | Items Traded |
|----------------------------|--------------|
| Africa south of the Sahara | 1. |
| China | 2. |
| Eastern Africa | 3. |
| Southeast Asia and India | 4. |
| Egypt | 5. |
| Iraq | 6. |
| Western India | 7. |

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 6, Section 3 (continued)

READ TO LEARN

• Prosperity in the Islamic World (page 203)

Overall, the period of the Arab Empire was prosperous. Trade flourished under the Abbasid dynasty. The development of banking and the use of coins made it easier to buy and sell goods. A huge variety of goods were available. From south of the Sahara came gold and slaves. China traded silk and porcelain. Gold and ivory came from eastern Africa. Sandalwood and spices came from Southeast Asia and India. Egypt traded grain, and Iraq traded linens, dates, and precious stones. India supplied textile goods.

Cities on the trade routes flourished. Baghdad, Cairo, and Damascus were three great trading cities. They were also the capital cities of their regions. Islamic cities had a distinctive appearance. The most impressive buildings were the palaces of the caliphs and the mosques. There were also buildings with fountains and courtyards, public baths, and bazaars. The **bazaar**, or covered market, was an important part of every Muslim city or town. Goods from many areas were available in the bazaars.

The Arab Empire had more cities than most other areas of the world at that time. But a majority of people still lived in the countryside. They made their living by farming or herding animals. During the early Empire, peasants owned most of the farmland. Later, wealthy landowners began to create large estates, as they did in other parts of the world.

8. What were the three main trading centers in the Arab Empire?

• Islamic Society (page 205)

According to Islam, all people are equal in the eyes of Allah. In reality, this was not always the case in the Arab Empire. There was an upper class of ruling families, government officials, and wealthy merchants. One group of people, in particular, was not considered equal. They were the slaves. Muslims could not be slaves, so most of their slaves came from southern Africa or from non-Islamic parts of Asia. Many slaves had been captured in

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 6, Section 3 (continued)

war. Slaves often served in the army. Many military slaves were eventually freed. Slaves were also used as domestic servants. These slaves were sometimes able to buy their freedom. Islamic law made it clear that slaves should be treated fairly. It was also considered a good act to free them.

Women were also not considered equal. The Quran instructed men to treat women with respect. Women had the right to own and inherit property. But men were dominant in Muslim society. Women were supposed to be good mothers and wives by raising their children and caring for their husbands. Every woman had a male guardian. Parents arranged marriages for their children. The Quran allowed men to have more than one wife, but no more than four. Most men could only afford one wife, because they had to pay a **dowry** (a gift of money or property) to their brides. Arabic custom required women to stay in their homes and keep away from men outside their own families. It also required women to cover nearly all of their bodies when appearing in public. Despite these restrictions, women were better off in Islamic society than they had been in earlier times, when they had been treated like slaves.

9. What two groups were not considered equal in the Arab Empire?

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 6, Section 4

For use with textbook pages 207–210

THE CULTURE OF ISLAM

KEY TERMS

astrolabe an instrument used by sailors to determine their location by observing the position of stars and planets (page 208)

minaret a tower on a mosque (page 209)

muezzin a crier, who calls the faithful to prayer (page 209)

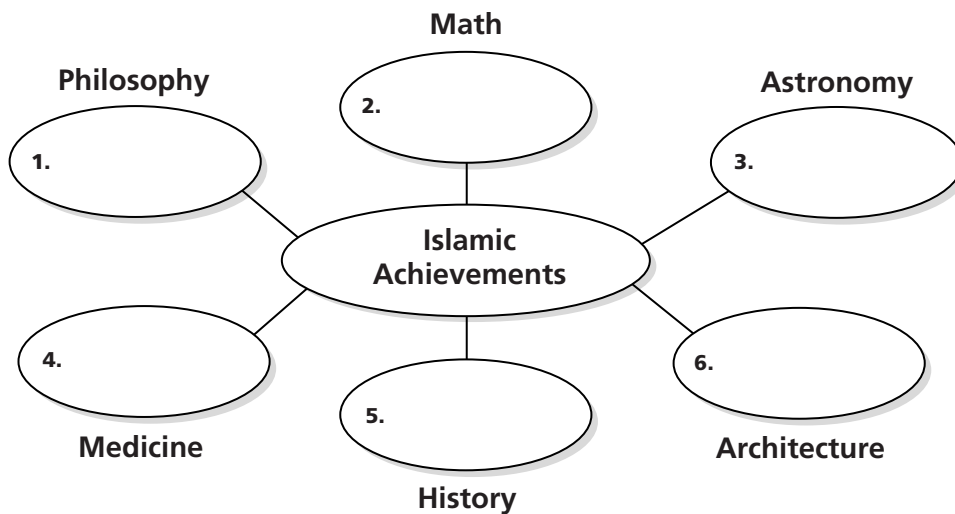
arabesque geometric patterns that decorated Islamic works of art (page 210)

DRAWING FROM EXPERIENCE

Have you ever read “Aladdin and His Lamp,” “Ali Baba and the Forty Thieves,” or any other stories from *The Arabian Nights*? Have you seen the movie *Aladdin*? Why do you think these stories continue to be popular?

ORGANIZING YOUR THOUGHTS

Use the concept web below to help you take notes. List at least one Islamic achievement in the areas of philosophy, math, astronomy, medicine, history, and architecture.



Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 6, Section 4 (continued)

READ TO LEARN

- **Preservation of Knowledge** (page 207)

During the Arab Empire, Arabs translated the works of Plato and Aristotle into Arabic. The translations were put in a library called the House of Wisdom in Baghdad. They were read and studied by Muslim scholars. These works were almost lost in Europe. In the twelfth century, the Arabic translations were translated into Latin. This made them available to Europeans.

Texts on mathematics were brought to Baghdad from India. Paper was brought from China in the eighth century. By the end of the century, paper factories had been established in Baghdad. The use of paper helped to preserve knowledge.

7. How did Muslim scholars preserve the writings of Plato and Aristotle?

- **Philosophy, Science, and History** (page 208)

Arabic philosophers did more than just translate the works of Plato and Aristotle. They also wrote commentaries. One philosopher, Ibn-Rushd, wrote a commentary on nearly all of Aristotle’s works.

Islamic scholars also made great contributions in mathematics and science. The Muslims adopted and passed on the numerical system of India. In Europe, it became known as the “Arabic” system. A ninth-century Iranian mathematician gave shape to algebra. Muslims also set up an observatory at Baghdad to study the stars. They were aware that the Earth was round, and they named many stars. They also improved the **astrolabe**, an instrument used by sailors to determine their location by observing the positions of stars and planets. The astrolabe made it possible for Europeans to sail to the Americas.

Muslim scholars developed medicine as a field of scientific study. One scientist, Ibn Sina, wrote a medical encyclopedia. He stressed the contagious nature of diseases. His work became a basic medical textbook in medieval Europe. Islamic scholars also took an interest in history. The most prominent historian was Ibn-Khaldun. He wrote *Muqaddimah (Introduction to History)*. He believed that civilizations go through regular cycles of birth, growth, and decay.

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 6, Section 4 (continued)

8. How did the astrolabe make it possible for Europeans to sail to the Americas?

• **Literature** (page 208)

Muslims regarded the Quran as their greatest work of literature. However, other writings were still popular. Two of the most famous works of Middle Eastern literature are the *Rubaiyat* of Omar Khayyám and *The 1001 Nights* (also called *The Arabian Nights*). Omar Khayyám was a twelfth-century Persian poet, mathematician, and astronomer. He did not write down his poems. He told them orally, and they were written down later by friends or scribes. No one knows who wrote *The Arabian Nights*. Like the *Rubaiyat*, the stories in *The Arabian Nights* were told orally at first and then written down later. They are a collection of folktales, fables, and romances, including the famous story of Aladdin.

9. How were the *Rubaiyat* and *The Arabian Nights* written?

• **Art and Architecture** (page 209)

Islamic art is a blend of Arab, Turkish, and Persian traditions. The greatest examples of Islamic art and architecture are the Muslim mosques. The Great Mosque of Samarra is the largest mosque ever built. The most famous section of this mosque is its **minaret**. This is the tower from which the **muezzin**, or crier, calls the faithful to prayer five times a day. The minaret of Samarra was unusual because it had an outside spiral staircase. Palaces constructed by Islamic rulers are some other examples of Islamic art. The finest example is the fourteenth-century Alhambra in Spain. Every inch of the castle's surface is decorated with floral and abstract patterns.

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Chapter 6, Section 4 (continued)

Most decorations on all forms of Islamic art consisted of Arabic letters, abstract figures, and floral designs. These decorations were repeated over and over in geometric patterns called **arabesques**. They completely covered the surfaces of the objects. No representations of people or other living beings appear in Islamic religious art. The Quran does not forbid representational art. But the Hadith, an early collection of Muhammad's sayings, warns against any attempt to imitate God by creating pictures of living beings.

- 10.** Why does Islamic religious art use abstract figures rather than representations of living beings?

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Chapter 7, Section 1

For use with textbook pages 223–226

THE DEVELOPMENT OF CIVILIZATIONS IN AFRICA

KEY TERMS

plateau a relatively high, flat land area (page 225)

savanna a broad grassland dotted with small trees and shrubs (page 225)

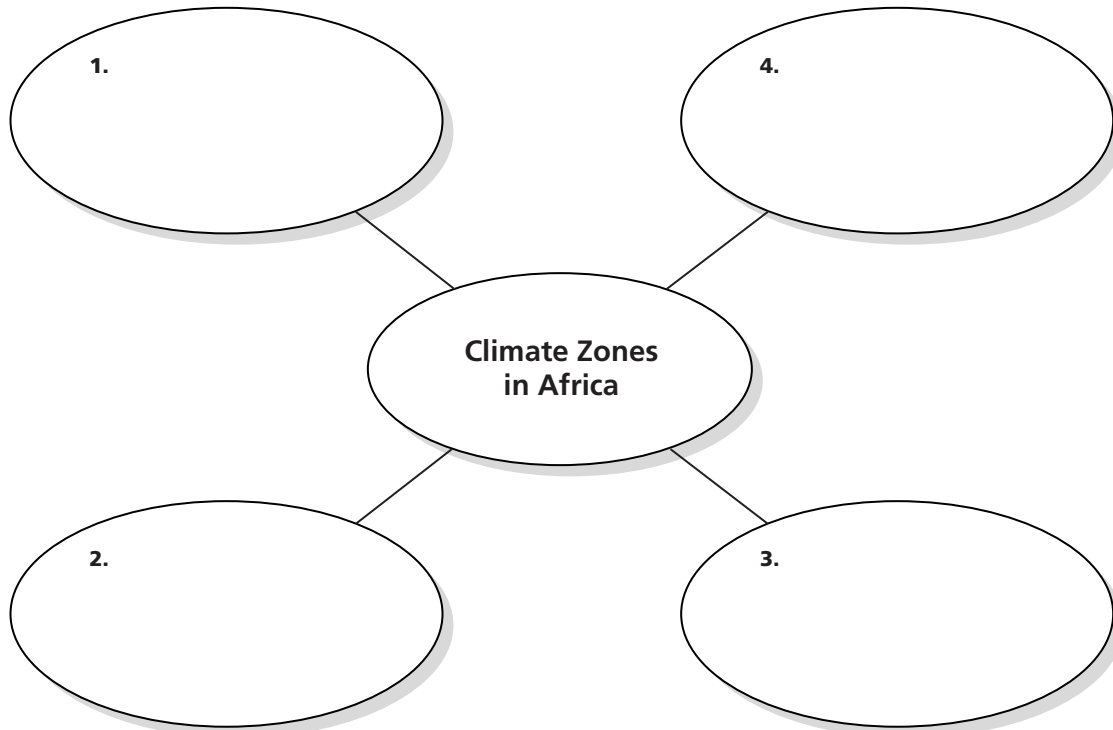
DRAWING FROM EXPERIENCE

What different climates are there in the United States? How does the climate affect the economy of different parts of the country? What is the climate where you live?

In this section, you will learn about the development of the first civilizations in Africa. Africa has several different geographical zones and four distinct climates.

ORGANIZING YOUR THOUGHTS

Use the concept web below to help you take notes. Identify the four climate zones in Africa and describe where they are located.



Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 7, Section 1 (continued)

READ TO LEARN

- **The Land of Africa** (page 223)

Africa is the second largest continent. Its geography is very diverse. There are mountains on the northern coast. South of the mountains, there is a desert, the Sahara. This is the largest desert on Earth. South of the Sahara, there are several other regions. In the west, the desert gradually changes to grasslands and then to tropical jungles along the coast. To the east, there are snow-capped mountains, upland **plateaus** (relatively high, flat land areas), and lakes. The Great Rift Valley is in this part of Africa. It has deep canyons surrounded by mountains. Further to the south is the Congo basin, which has tropical rain forests. In the far south, the rain forest gradually changes into hills, plateaus, and deserts.

5. What are some of the different geographical features of Africa?

- **The Climate of Africa** (page 225)

Africa has four distinct climate zones. These different climates help to explain the different lifestyles of the peoples of Africa. Along the northern coast and the southern tip of Africa, there is a mild climate zone. In these areas, the temperature is warm, and there is moderate rainfall. Abundant crops can be grown in these areas. Deserts form another climate zone. Deserts cover about 40 percent of Africa. The two largest deserts are the Sahara in the north and the Kalahari in the south. A third climate zone is the rain forest. It is located along the equator and makes up about 10 percent of Africa. In this area, there are heavy rains and warm temperatures. This produces dense forests where farming and travel are very difficult. There are also disease-carrying insects in this area. The fourth climate zone consists of the savannas. The **savannas** are broad grasslands dotted with small trees and shrubs. The savannas are located both north and south of the rain forest and make up about 40 percent of Africa. There is usually enough rainfall in the savannas to farm and herd animals, but the rainfall is unreliable.

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 7, Section 1 (continued)

6. What are the two largest climate zones in Africa?

• Emerging Civilization and the Rise of Islam (page 225)

About seven or eight thousand years ago, people in Africa began to tame animals and grow crops. This led to the rise of the first civilizations in Africa. One of these early civilizations was Egypt. The other two early civilizations were Kush and Axum.

The area to the south of Egypt was originally known as Nubia. The people of Nubia had a busy trade with Egypt. They traded ivory, ebony, frankincense (a fragrant tree resin), and leopard skins. Nubia was under Egyptian control for many centuries, but it freed itself around 1000 B.C. It then became the state of Kush. In 750 B.C., Kush conquered Egypt. In 663 B.C., however, the Kushites were defeated by the Assyrians, who had iron weapons. The Kushites were driven out of Egypt and returned to their original lands.

At first, the economy of Kush was based mainly on farming. It soon became a major trading state, however. The Kushites learned how to make iron weapons and tools from the Assyrians. They traded these iron goods with the Roman Empire, Arabia, and India. They also traded ivory, gold, ebony, and slaves. They traded these goods for luxury goods, such as jewelry and silver lamps from Arabia and India. Kush flourished from about 250 B.C. to about A.D. 150. It declined because of the rise of a new power in the region. This new power was known as Axum.

Axum was located in what is now Ethiopia. Arabs founded it as a colony. It eventually became an independent state that combined Arab and African cultures. Axum was prosperous because it was on the trade route between India and the Mediterranean. It exported ivory, frankincense, myrrh (another tree resin), and slaves. It imported textiles, metal goods, wine, and olive oil. It competed with Kush for control of the ivory trade.

In the fourth century A.D., King Ezana, an Axumite ruler, invaded Kush and conquered it. Around A.D. 330, King Ezana converted to Christianity. He then made Christianity the official religion of Axum.

In 641, Arab forces took control of Egypt. By the eighth century, Arabs controlled the entire coastal region of North Africa. Several Muslim trading states were established on the African coast of the Red Sea. Axum was a Christian state, but it had peaceful relations with these Muslims states for hundreds of

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Chapter 7, Section 1 *(continued)*

years. In the twelfth century, however, the Muslim states began to move inland. They wanted control over the trade in slaves and ivory. Axum fought back. By the fifteenth century, Axum was involved in a growing conflict with Adal, a Muslim state.

7. Why did Axum come into conflict with the Muslim trading states?

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Chapter 7, Section 2

For use with textbook pages 228–234

KINGDOMS AND STATES OF AFRICA

KEY TERMS

- Bantu** a family of languages spoken by peoples who migrated from the Niger River region to East Africa and the Congo River basin (page 232)
- subsistence farming** growing just enough crops for personal use, not for sale (page 232)
- Swahili** a mixed African-Arabian culture along the coastal area of East Africa (also used for the major language in this area) (page 233)
- stateless society** a group of independent villages organized by clans and led by a local ruler or clan head (page 234)

DRAWING FROM EXPERIENCE

Do you add salt to your food? Do you like salty snacks? Would you enjoy food as much if you did not have salt?

In the last section, you read about the development of the first African civilizations. In this section, you will learn about the growth of new kingdoms in Africa. These kingdoms prospered because of the gold and salt trade. Salt was very valuable, because it both preserved food and improved its taste.

ORGANIZING YOUR THOUGHTS

Use the chart below to help you take notes. Describe the location, government and economy of each of the kingdoms in this chart.

| Kingdom | Location | Government | Economy |
|---------|----------|------------|---------|
| Ghana | 1. | 2. | 3. |
| Mali | 4. | 5. | 6. |
| Songhai | 7. | 8. | 9. |

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 7, Section 2 (continued)

READ TO LEARN

- **The Kingdom of Ghana** (page 228)

The kingdom of Ghana emerged as early as A.D. 500. It was located in the upper Niger River valley, between the Sahara and the tropical forests along the West African coast. (The modern state of Ghana is located in the forest region to the south.) The kings of Ghana were strong rulers who governed without any laws. They relied on an army of thousands of men to protect their kingdom and enforce their wishes.

Most of the people of Ghana were farmers. But Ghana prospered because of its abundant supply of iron ore and gold. The blacksmiths of Ghana were skilled in making tools and weapons from iron ore. Ghana's gold made it the center of a trade empire. Ghanaians traded their gold for other products. Muslim merchants from North Africa brought metal goods, textiles, horses, and salt to Ghana. Salt was very important. It was used to preserve food and to improve its taste. People also needed salt to replace what their bodies lost in the hot climate. Eventually, Ghana also traded other goods, such as ivory, ostrich feathers, hides, and slaves. The Berbers carried much of the trade across the desert. The Berbers were nomads who used camels. Camels were crucial to trade across the Sahara because they could go for days without drinking water or eating food.

The kingdom of Ghana flourished for several hundred years. Eventually, it was weakened by wars and collapsed during the 1100s.

10. Why was salt an important item of trade in Africa?

- **The Kingdom of Mali** (page 230)

Mali is located on the Atlantic coast, but it extends far inland to the famous city of Timbuktu. Sundiata Keita established Mali in the thirteenth century. In 1240, Sundiata defeated the Ghanaians and captured their capital. He united the people of Mali and created a strong government. Mali built its wealth and power on the gold and salt trade, but most of its people were farmers. They grew grains, such as sorghum, millet, and rice. They lived in villages with local rulers. These rulers were both religious and administrative leaders. They collected taxes and sent the taxes to the kings of Mali.

One of the richest and most powerful kings was Mansa Musa. He ruled from 1312 to 1337. He doubled the size of the kingdom of Mali and divided the kingdom into provinces ruled by governors. He was a devout Muslim and made a pilgrimage to Makkah. He took a large caravan with him and spent a huge amount of gold along the way. He brought architects back with him to

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Chapter 7, Section 2 (continued)

build mosques and a palace. He also brought scholars and books to introduce his subjects to the message of Allah. But he was the last powerful ruler of Mali. By 1359, civil war divided Mali.

11. Who was the founder of the kingdom of Mali?

• The Kingdom of Songhai (page 231)

The Niger River in West Africa has regular floods. It provides a rich soil for raising crops and taking care of cattle. East of Timbuktu, the river makes a wide bend. The Songhai people lived along the Niger River, south of the bend. In 1009, a ruler named Kossi converted to Islam and established the Dia dynasty. This was the first Songhai state. It prospered because of the Muslim trade routes that linked Arabia, North Africa, and West Africa.

In 1464, Sunni Ali created a new dynasty, the Sunni. Under his leadership, Songhai began to expand. Sunni Ali conquered many areas, including Timbuktu and Jenne. This gave Songhai control of the trading empire that had made Ghana and Mali so prosperous. The Songhai Empire reached the height of its power during the reign of Muhammad Ture. He overthrew the son of Sunni Ali in 1493 and created a new dynasty, the Askia. Under Muhammad Ture, the Songhai Empire continued to expand. It eventually stretched a thousand miles along the Niger River. Muhammad Ture divided Songhai into provinces, with a governor in charge of each one. He maintained peace and security with a navy and soldiers on horseback. The empire prospered because of the salt and gold trade.

After the reign of Muhammad Ture, Songhai began to decline. Near the end of the sixteenth century, the forces of the sultan of Morocco occupied much of Songhai.

12. What two leaders expanded the Songhai Empire?

• Societies in East Africa (page 232)

Beginning in the first millennium B.C., new peoples began to migrate into eastern Africa from the west. Farming peoples who spoke dialects of the **Bantu** family of languages began to move from the Niger River region into East Africa and the Congo River basin. The communities they built were based on **subsistence farming** (growing just enough crops for personal use, not for sale). The main crops were grains, yams, melons, and beans. They farmed with iron and stone tools. Men and women performed different tasks. Women tilled the

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Chapter 7, Section 2 (continued)

fields and cared for the children. Men tended the herds, hunted, or took part in local trade.

The Bantu peoples gradually began to take part in the regional trade along the eastern coast of Africa. Beginning in the eighth century, Muslims from the Arabian Peninsula and the Persian Gulf began to settle at ports along the coast. They formed a string of trading ports, including Mogadishu, Mombasa, and Kilwa. Merchants in these ports became very wealthy. The city of Kilwa became one of the most beautiful cities in the world. In the fourteenth century, two huge buildings were constructed in Kilwa—the Great Mosque and the Husuni Kubwa palace. Homes near the mosque and palace were luxurious. Kilwa began to decline, however. In 1505, the Portuguese sacked the city and destroyed its major buildings.

A mixed African-Arabian culture began to emerge along the coast. This culture became known as **Swahili**. The Muslim religion and Arabic architectural styles gradually became a part of African culture in this area. The term Swahili was also applied to the major language used in the area. Swahili combined Bantu with Arabic words and phrases. It is the national language of Kenya and Tanzania today.

13. How did the arrival of Muslims affect the eastern coast of Africa?

- **States and Stateless Societies in South Africa** (page 234)

Until the eleventh century A.D., most of the peoples in the southern half of Africa lived in stateless societies. A **stateless society** is a group of independent villages organized by clans and led by a local ruler or clan head. Beginning in the eleventh century, these villages began to consolidate. Out of these groupings came the first states. From about 1300 to about 1450, Zimbabwe was the wealthiest and most powerful state in the region. It prospered from the gold trade. Its gold was traded as far as China. Porcelain from China has been found at the ruins of Zimbabwe’s capital, the Great Zimbabwe.

14. What was the most powerful state in southern Africa in the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries?

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 7, Section 3

For use with textbook pages 236–241

AFRICAN SOCIETY AND CULTURE

KEY TERMS

- lineage group** a community whose members trace their lineage (descent) from a common ancestor (page 237)
- matrilineal** a society in which descent is traced through the mother (page 237)
- patrilineal** a society in which descent is traced through the father (page 237)
- diviner** a person who believes that he or she has the power to foretell events, usually by working with supernatural forces (page 238)
- griot** a storyteller in African society (page 241)

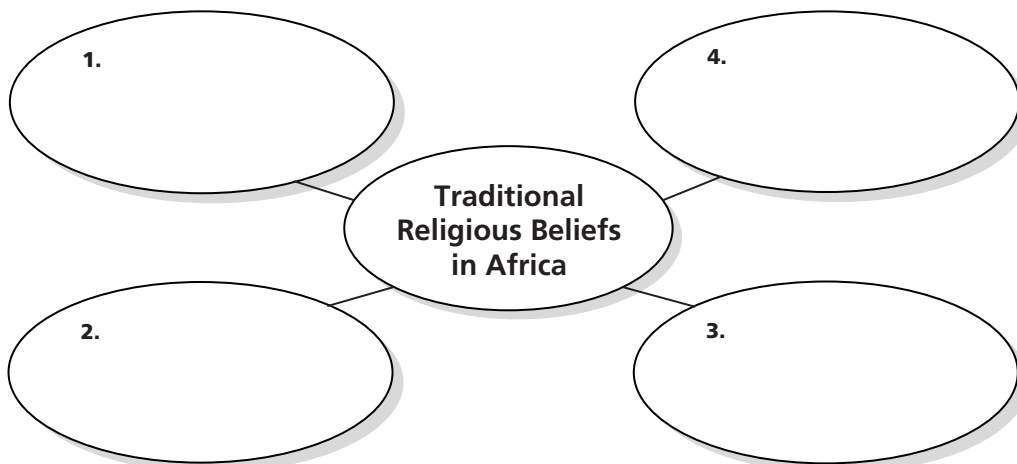
DRAWING FROM EXPERIENCE

Are there stories that you were told as a child by your grandparents or other older members of your family? What makes these stories special in your family?

In the last two sections, you learned about the development of early civilizations and kingdoms in Africa. In this section, you will learn about African society, religious beliefs, and culture. Early Africans communicated knowledge about their culture and history through storytelling.

ORGANIZING YOUR THOUGHTS

Use the concept web below to help you take notes. Most African societies shared some common religious beliefs. List four traditional beliefs that were shared by many African religions.



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Chapter 7, Section 3 (continued)

READ TO LEARN

- **Aspects of African Society** (page 236)

African towns often began as walled villages and grew into larger communities. These towns were the centers of governments. They had markets that were filled with goods from faraway places. Artisans and farmers also lived in these towns. The farmers grew crops in nearby fields.

In Africa, kings were held in high esteem, but they were not as isolated from the common people as they were in other societies. Rulers often held audiences (meetings) to allow people to voice their complaints. However, most people lived in small villages in the countryside and never had an audience with the king.

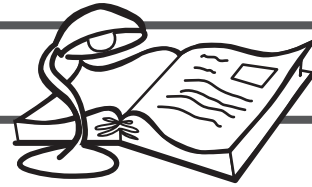
The basic level in African society was the extended family. The extended family was made up of parents, children, grandparents, and other dependents. They lived in small, round houses made of mud and topped with a thatch roof. The extended families were combined into larger communities known as **lineage groups**. All members of a lineage group could trace their lineage (descent) from a common ancestor. Members of extended families and lineage groups were expected to take care of one another.

Women were usually subordinate to men in Africa, but they were valued because of the work they could do or for having children. Women often worked in the fields, while men tended the cattle or hunted. In many African societies, lineage was based on the mother rather than the father. These societies are called **matrilineal** (societies in which descent is traced through the mother) rather than **patrilineal** (societies in which descent is traced through the father). Women were often allowed to inherit property, and the husband was often expected to move into his wife's house.

In a typical African village, there was a process for educating young people. This prepared them to become part of the community. Both boys and girls were raised by their mothers until they were six years old. From their mothers, they learned language, songs, and their family history. At six, boys and girls went different ways. Fathers took control of their sons' education. Boys learned how to hunt and fish, how to grow plants, and how to clear fields. Girls continued to learn what they needed from their mothers. This included how to take care of the home and work in the fields. As children got older, they took on more responsibility in the community. Young people reached a point where they were expected to enter the community fully. This transition occurred at the time of puberty. It was marked by an initiation ceremony.

Slavery was practiced in Africa from ancient times. Berber groups in North Africa raided farming villages south of the Sahara and took captives. The captives were then taken north and sold throughout the Mediterranean. Slavery was also common in other parts of Africa. Slaves included people captured in war, debtors, and criminals. Slaves were not necessarily seen as inferior. Many

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Chapter 7, Section 3 (continued)

were trusted servants or were respected because of their special knowledge or talents. But life was difficult for most slaves. Those who worked on farmlands had hard, long hours. Those who worked as soldiers were sometimes better off. Slaves who worked as domestic servants usually had the best lives.

5. What was the process for educating young people in African villages?

• Religious Beliefs in Africa (page 238)

Most African societies shared some common religious ideas. One of these was a belief in a single creator god. Many people believed that that the creator god was merciful and could be appeased by proper behavior. One way to communicate with the gods was through ritual. This was carried out by a special class of **diviners** (people who believe they have the power to foretell events, usually by working with supernatural forces). Many diviners were employed by the king to guarantee a good harvest or otherwise protect the ruler and his subjects.

Ancestors were also important in African religion. Ancestors were believed to be closer to the gods and to have the power to influence the lives of their descendants. Ceremonies dedicated to ancestors were important rituals. Many African religions believed in an afterlife. Ancestral souls would live on in the afterlife as long as the lineage group continued to perform rituals in their names.

When Islam was brought to Africa, it swept rapidly across the northern coast. It was accepted more slowly in the lands south of the Sahara, but by the end of the fifteenth century, much of this area had converted to Islam. Islam had less success in the mountains of Ethiopia, where Christianity continued to win followers. Muslim merchants first brought Islam to East Africa from Arabia, but it did not win many followers there until the twelfth and thirteenth centuries.

In some ways, the beliefs of Islam were in conflict with traditional African beliefs. Islam rejected spirit worship and insisted on the separation of men and women. These ideas were contrary to the beliefs of many Africans and were often ignored. Native beliefs were combined with Islam to create a unique brand of Africanized Islam.

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Chapter 7, Section 3 (continued)

6. In what ways did the beliefs of Islam conflict with traditional African beliefs?

• **African Culture** (page 240)

In early Africa, the arts were a means of expressing religion. The earliest art forms in Africa were rock paintings. The most famous examples are in the Tassili Mountains in the central Sahara. Woodcarvings were another important art form. Wood carvers throughout Africa made masks and statues. The carvings often represented gods, spirits, or ancestral figures. Terra cotta (clay) and metal figurines and statues were also made in parts of Africa.

African music and dance often served a religious purpose too. Dances were a means of communicating with the spirits. The words to songs transmitted religious traditions, folk legends, and historical information from generation to generation. Storytelling served the same purpose. Storytelling was usually done by priests or by a special class of storytellers known as **griots**. These storytellers were also historians. Through their stories, they kept the history of their people alive.

7. In what ways did African art, music, and dance serve religious purposes?

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Chapter 8, Section 1

For use with textbook pages 247–252

CHINA REUNIFIED

KEY TERMS

scholar-gentry a class of people that replaced the landed aristocracy and became the political and economic elite of Chinese society (page 252)

dowry in China, a gift of money or goods given by a bride’s parents to her husband (page 252)

DRAWING FROM EXPERIENCE

What invention do you think has changed the world the most in the last fifty years? Why do you think so? What invention is most important to your way of life? Why?

In this section, you will learn about China during the Sui, Tang, and Song dynasties, including the inventions that were developed during this time.

ORGANIZING YOUR THOUGHTS

Use the chart below to help you take notes. List the time periods, rulers, and achievements of the Sui, Tang, and Song dynasties.

| Dynasty | Time Period | Achievements | Problems |
|---------|-------------|--------------|----------|
| Sui | 1. | 2. | 3. |
| Tang | 4. | 5. | 6. |
| Song | 7. | 8. | 9. |

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 8, Section 1 (continued)

READ TO LEARN

- **The Sui Dynasty** (page 247)

For three hundred years after the end of the Han dynasty, there was chaos and civil war in China. Then, in 581, the Sui dynasty took control of China. The Sui dynasty only lasted until 618, but it was able to reunify China.

Sui Yangdi, the second emperor of the dynasty, completed the Grand Canal. This canal linked the two great rivers of China, the Huang He (Yellow River) and the Chang Jiang (Yangtze River). This made it easier to ship rice from the south to the north. Sui Yangdi was a cruel ruler, however. He used forced labor to build the canal. He also made the people pay high taxes, while he lived extravagantly. These factors, as well as military failures, led to rebellion. Sui Yangdi was murdered, and his dynasty came to an end.

10. Why did the Chinese people rebel against Sui Yangdi?

- **The Tang Dynasty** (page 248)

The Tang dynasty soon emerged. It lasted from 618 until 907. The early Tang rulers were reformers. They restored the civil service examination, and they gave land to the peasants. They also brought peace to northwestern China and extended their control into Tibet, the area north of the Himalaya. The Tang rulers also set up trade and diplomatic relations with Southeast Asia.

The Tang dynasty had problems, however. There were struggles for control and government corruption. The Uighurs were hired to fight for the Tang dynasty. The Uighurs were a tribal group of Turkic-speaking people. But instead of fighting for him, the Uighurs overthrew the Tang ruler in 907.

11. In what ways were the Tang rulers reformers?

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Chapter 8, Section 1 (continued)

• The Song Dynasty (page 249)

In 960, the Song dynasty rose to power. It lasted until 1279. During the Song dynasty, China was prosperous, and there were many cultural achievements. There were also problems, however, especially from northern neighbors. Because of this threat, the Song rulers were forced to move the capital from Changan to Hangzhou, which is farther south.

The Song rulers could never overcome the challenge from the north. Within a few years, the Mongols—a nomadic people from the Gobi—controlled all of China. They overthrew the Song and created a new Mongol dynasty.

12. Why did the Song rulers move the capital from Changan to Hangzhou?

• Government and the Economy (page 250)

During the Sui, Tang, and Song dynasties, a political system emerged that was based on principles developed during the Qin and Han dynasties. The government was a monarchy with a large bureaucracy. The empire was divided into provinces, districts, and villages. The government was based on Confucian principles.

Trade and manufacturing grew dramatically, but the economy was still based on farming. The reforms of the Tang and Song dynasties put more land in the hands of the poor peasants. These reforms and improvements in farming techniques led to an abundance of food.

Technological developments created new products. During the Tang dynasty, the Chinese began to make steel. The steel was used to make swords and sickles. Cotton was also introduced. This led to new kinds of clothes. Gunpowder was also invented during the Tang dynasty. It was used to make explosives and a flamethrower called a fire-lance. Trade began to revive. It had declined after the fall of the Han dynasty and the Roman Empire. The Silk Road was renewed, and trade between China and Southwest Asia thrived. Trade also increased with regions near China. The Chinese exported tea, silk, and porcelain to the countries beyond the South China Sea. In return, they received exotic woods, precious stones, and various tropical goods.

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Chapter 8, Section 1 (continued)

- **Chinese Society** (page 252)

For the rich city dwellers in China, life during the Tang and Song dynasties was very enjoyable. There were new forms of entertainment, such as playing cards and chess. Block printing was invented during the eighth century and allowed people to communicate in new ways. Most of the people still lived in villages, however. They made their living by farming. Changes were taking place in the countryside, however. Previously, there had been a huge gulf between wealthy landowners and poor peasants. Now there was a more complex mixture of landowners, free peasants, sharecroppers, and landless laborers. A new class, known as the **scholar-gentry**, emerged. This group replaced the old landed aristocracy. The scholar-gentry controlled much of the land in the countryside and also produced most of the civil servants. They became the political and economic elite in Chinese society.

The status of women in China during this time was low. Female children were considered less desirable than male children. When there were famines, female infants were sometimes killed if there was not enough food for the whole family. A girl's parents were expected to provide a **dowry** (money or goods) to her husband when she married. Poor families often sold their daughters to wealthy villagers.

14. How were women treated in China during this time?

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Chapter 8, Section 2

For use with textbook pages 253–257

THE MONGOLS AND CHINA

KEY TERMS

khanates territories in the Mongol Empire, each ruled by one of the sons of Genghis Khan (page 254)

neo-Confucianism a new form of Confucianism that developed during the late Tang dynasty in response to Buddhism and Daoism (page 256)

porcelain a ceramic made of fine clay baked at very high temperatures (page 257)

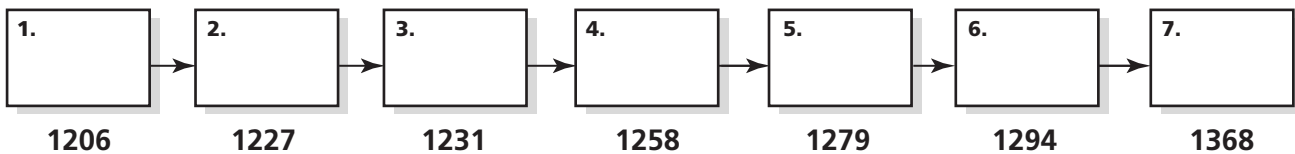
DRAWING FROM EXPERIENCE

Have you heard of Marco Polo? How did you learn about him? Why is he famous?

In the last section, you learned about China during the Sui, Tang, and Song dynasties. In this section, you will learn about China during the time of the Mongol dynasty. It was during this time that Marco Polo visited China.

ORGANIZING YOUR THOUGHTS

Use the time line below to help you take notes. Identify seven key events in the history of the Mongols



Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 8, Section 2 (continued)

READ TO LEARN

- **The Mongol Empire** (page 253)

The Mongols were nomads from the region of modern-day Mongolia. They were organized into clans. Temujin unified the Mongols. In 1206, he was elected Genghis Khan (“strong ruler”). He devoted himself to conquering other lands. Mongol armies traveled both to the west and to the east. Some went as far as central Europe. The Mongols created the largest land empire in history.

After the death of Genghis Khan in 1227, his sons divided the empire into separate territories, called **khanates**. Each khanate was ruled by one of the sons. In 1231, the Mongols attacked Persia. In 1258, they defeated the Abbasids at Baghdad. In the 1260s, the Mongols attacked the Song dynasty. In China, they learned about gunpowder and the fire-lance. By the end of the thirteenth century, the fire-lance developed into the handgun and cannon.

8. What inventions did the Mongols learn about from the Chinese?

- **The Mongol Dynasty in China** (page 254)

In 1279, one of Genghis Khan’s grandsons completed the conquest of China. His name was Kublai Khan. He established a new Chinese dynasty, the Yuan. He ruled China until his death in 1294. He set up his capital at Khanbaliq in northwestern China. This city would later be known as Beijing.

The Yuan (or Mongol) dynasty continued to expand the empire. The Mongols invaded Vietnam, Java, and Sumatra. Only Vietnam was conquered. The other campaigns failed. The Mongol tactics were not effective in tropical and hilly regions.

The Mongols had more success in ruling China. They adapted to the Chinese political system and used the Chinese bureaucrats. But the Mongols became a separate class with their own laws. Mongols usually held the highest positions in the bureaucracy. Many Chinese people came to respect the stability and prosperity that the Mongols brought to China. The capital at Khanbaliq was especially prosperous. Foreign visitors were impressed by its splendor. One of these foreign visitors was Marco Polo. He lived in Khanbaliq during the time of Kublai Khan.

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Chapter 8, Section 2 (continued)

The Mongol dynasty began to have problems. The Mongol rulers spent too much money on foreign conquests. There were also problems with internal instability and corruption at court. In 1368, a peasant named Zhu Yuanzhang put together an army and ended the Mongol dynasty. He set up a new dynasty, the Ming dynasty.

9. Why did many Chinese people respect the Mongols?

• Religion and Government (page 255)

By the time of the Mongols, religion in China had changed. Merchants and missionaries brought Buddhism to China from India in the first century A.D. After the collapse of the Han dynasty, both Buddhism and Daoism became popular. Early Tang rulers supported Buddhist monasteries. Buddhists became advisors at court. Eventually, Buddhism began to lose favor. It was criticized for being a foreign religion. Buddhist monasteries had also acquired thousands of acres of land and serfs. By the end of the Tang dynasty, Buddhism was no longer supported by the state. The government destroyed many Buddhist temples and monasteries.

The government now supported Confucianism. It was different from the Confucianism during the Han dynasty. **Neo-Confucianism**, as it was called, developed in response to Buddhism and Daoism. Neo-Confucianism teaches that the world is real, not an illusion, and that fulfillment comes from participation in the world, not from withdrawal. Neo-Confucianists divide the world into a material world and a spiritual world. Although humans live in the material world, Neo-Confucianists believe that they are also linked with the Supreme Ultimate. They believe that the goal of humans should be to move beyond the material world to reach union with the Supreme Ultimate.

10. How was Buddhism introduced in China?

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 8, Section 2 (continued)

- **A Golden Age in Literature and Art** (page 256)

The period from the Tang dynasty to the Ming dynasty was a great age of Chinese literature. The invention of printing during the Tang dynasty made literature more available and popular. The Tang dynasty is viewed as the great age of poetry in China. At least 48,000 poems were written by 2,200 authors. Li Bo and Duo Fu were two of the most popular poets during the Tang Era. Li Bo’s poetry often focused on nature. Duo Fu was a serious Confucian. Many of his poems are concerned with social injustice and the plight of the poor.

During the Song and Mongol dynasties, landscape painting reached its high point. Daoism influenced Chinese artists. They went into the mountains to paint and find the Dao, or Way, in nature. Chinese artists tried to show the hidden forms of the landscape. Rather than depicting a realistic mountain, for example, they tried to portray the idea of “mountain.” Daoism also influenced how people were portrayed. Chinese artists painted people as tiny figures, because people were viewed as insignificant in the midst of nature. Ceramics were also an important Chinese art form. Tang artisans perfected the making of porcelain. Porcelain is a ceramic made of fine clay baked at very high temperatures.

11. Which dynasty is viewed as the great age of Chinese poetry? During which dynasties did landscape painting reach its high point?

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 8, Section 3

For use with textbook pages 263–267

EARLY JAPAN AND KOREA

KEY TERMS

- samurai** (“those who serve”) Japanese warriors who protected the security and property of their employers (page 265)
- Bushido** (“the way of the warrior”) the samurai’s code of behavior, based on loyalty to his lord (page 265)
- shogun** a powerful military leader, or general, who had the real power in Japan (page 265)
- shogunate** a system of government in Japan, in which the emperor was the ruler in name only and the shogun exercised the actual power (page 265)
- daimyo** (“great names”) heads of noble families in Japan who controlled vast landed estates (page 265)
- Shinto** (“the Sacred Way” or “the Way of the Gods”) the state religion of Japan (page 266)
- Zen** a sect of Buddhism in Japan (page 266)

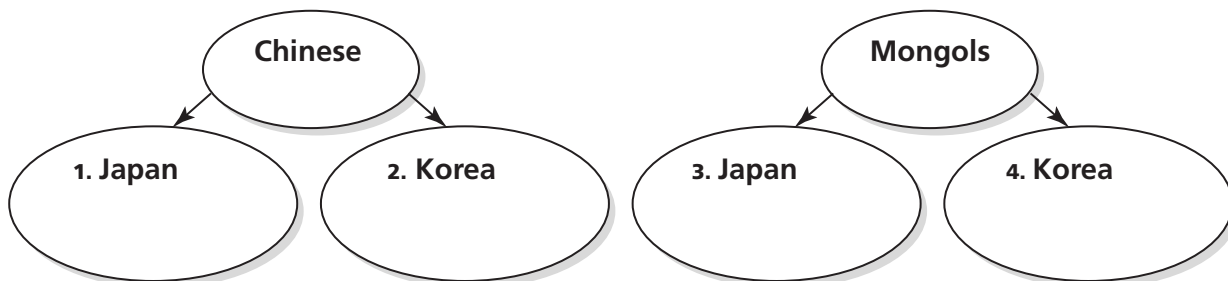
DRAWING FROM EXPERIENCE

Has anyone in your family ever served in the military? What branch of service were they in? Where were they stationed?

In the last two sections, you learned about China during the Sui, Tang, Song, and Mongol dynasties. In this section you will learn about the early history of Japan and Korea. The early Japanese were fierce warriors.

ORGANIZING YOUR THOUGHTS

Use the concept web below to help you take notes. The Chinese and the Mongols both had a major impact on Japan and Korea. Summarize the impact of the Chinese and the Mongols on these two countries.



Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 8, Section 3 *(continued)*

READ TO LEARN

- **The Geography of Japan** *(page 263)*

Japan is a chain of many islands. Its total land area is about 146,000 square miles. Much of Japan is mountainous. Volcanoes formed the mountains. Only about 11 percent of the total land can be farmed, but the volcanic soil is very fertile. Because of their isolation from the mainland, the Japanese developed many unique qualities. They believed that they had a destiny separate from the peoples on the mainland.

5. How did the fact that Japan is an island country affect its development?

- **The Rise of the Japanese State** *(page 264)*

The early Japanese settled in the Yamato Plain in the first centuries A.D. The Yamato Plain is near the present-day cities of Osaka and Kyoto. Japanese society was made up of clans. The people were divided between a small aristocratic class (the rulers) and a large class of rice farmers, artisans, and household servants. Eventually, one ruler of the Yamato clan became the ruler of Japan. However, other families continued to compete for power.

In the early seventh century, Shotoku Taishi tried to unify the clans to resist an invasion by the Chinese. Shotoku Taishi was a Yamato prince. He sent representatives to China to learn more about how the Chinese organized their government. Then he created a centralized system of government in Japan, based on the Chinese model. He wanted to limit the powers of the aristocrats and increase the ruler's (his own) authority. As a result, the ruler was portrayed as a divine figure and the symbol of the Japanese nation. Japan was divided into administrative districts. The village was the basic unit of government. A new tax system was set up. Now all farmland belonged to the state. Taxes were paid directly to the central government rather than to local aristocrats.

After Shotoku Taishi's death in 622, the Fujiwara family gained power. A Yamato ruler was still emperor, but he was strongly influenced by the Fujiwara clan. In 710, a new capital was established at Nara. The emperor began to use the title "son of Heaven." The aristocrats were still powerful, however. They were able to keep the taxes from the lands for themselves.

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 8, Section 3 (continued)

In 794, the emperor moved the capital from Nara to Heian, on the site of present-day Kyoto. The emperor continued to rule in name, but actual power remained in the hands of the Fujiwara clan. The government was becoming more decentralized. Powerful aristocrats dominated the rural areas. These aristocrats began to take justice into their own hands. They hired warriors to protect their security and property. These warriors were called the samurai (“those who serve”). The samurai were supposed to live by a strict warrior code, known as Bushido (“the way of the warrior”). The samurai’s code was based on loyalty to his lord.

By the end of the twelfth century, a powerful noble named Minamoto Yoritomo defeated several rivals and set up his power near present-day Tokyo. He created a more centralized government under a powerful military leader, known as the **shogun** (general). The emperor remained ruler in name only, and the shogun had the real power. This system of government is called the **shogunate**. The Kamakura shogunate, founded by Yoritomo, lasted from 1192 to 1333. In 1281, Kublai Khan invaded Japan. Fortunately for the Japanese, almost the entire Mongolian fleet was destroyed by a typhoon. Fighting the Mongols put a heavy strain on the government, however. In 1333, the Kamakura shogunate was overthrown by a group of powerful families led by the Ashikaga family.

The power of the aristocrats grew during the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries. Heads of noble families, called **daimyo** (“great names”), controlled vast landed estates that owed no taxes. The daimyo relied on the samurai for protection. A civil war, known as the Onin War, began in 1467 and lasted until 1477. During this war, the capital city of Kyoto was virtually destroyed. Central authority disappeared. The aristocrats seized control over large territories, which they ruled as independent lords. Their rivalries caused almost constant warfare.

6. What ideas about government did Shotoku Taishi get from the Chinese?

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 8, Section 3 (continued)

• Life in Early Japan (page 266)

The economy of early Japan was based on farming. Because of the limited amount of farmland and the abundant rainfall, the Japanese people grew wet rice (rice grown in flooded fields). Foreign trade began during the eleventh century. This trade was mainly with China and Korea. Japan traded raw materials, paintings, swords, and other manufactured items for silk, porcelain, books, and copper coins.

In early Japan, women had a certain level of equality with men. A law guaranteed the right of women to inherit property. Wives who were abandoned could divorce and remarry. However, some practices show that women were not considered equal. A husband could divorce his wife if she did not produce a male child, or if she committed adultery, talked too much, was jealous, or had a serious illness. Even if they did not possess full legal and social rights, women played an active role in society. Aristocratic women were prominent at court. Some became known for their artistic or literary talents.

The early Japanese worshipped spirits, called *kami*. They believed the *kami* lived in trees, rivers, and mountains. The Japanese also believed that their ancestors were in the air around them. These beliefs evolved into a kind of state religion, called **Shinto** (“the Sacred Way”). In time, Shinto included a belief in the divinity of the emperor and the sacredness of the Japanese nation. Shinto is still practiced today.

Monks from China brought Buddhism to Japan during the sixth century A.D. One sect of Buddhism, known as **Zen**, became the most popular. Zen beliefs became part of the samurai warrior’s code of behavior. In Zen Buddhism, there are different ways to achieve enlightenment. Some believe that it can be achieved suddenly, while others believe that it can only be achieved through self-discipline, including meditation.

Many aristocratic men in Japan believed that prose fiction was “vulgar gossip” and thus beneath them. So women were the most productive writers of fiction from the ninth to the twelfth centuries. Women learned to read and write at home, and they wrote diaries, stories, and novels to pass the time. One of the world’s great novels, *The Tale of the Genji*, appeared during this time. Murasaki Shikibu wrote it around the year 1000.

In Japanese art and architecture, landscape was an important means of expression. The Golden Pavilion in Kyoto was built in the fourteenth century and is one of the great treasures of the world. Its landscape plays an important part in its beauty.

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 8, Section 3 (continued)

7. Why were women the most productive writers of fiction from the ninth to the twelfth centuries?

• **The Emergence of Korea** (page 267)

Korea is only slightly larger than the state of Minnesota. It is relatively mountainous. Its closeness to China and Japan influenced its history. In 109 B.C., the northern part of Korea came under the control of the Chinese. The Koreans drove them out in the third century A.D. Three separate kingdoms emerged in Korea: Koguryo, Paekche, and Silla. These three kingdoms were bitter rivals from the fourth to the seventh centuries. The kingdom of Silla eventually gained control. After the king of Silla was assassinated, Korea had a period of civil war. In the tenth century, a new dynasty called Koryo arose in the north. This kingdom adopted Chinese political institutions and remained in power for four hundred years.

In the thirteenth century, the Mongols seized the northern part of Korea. By accepting Mongol authority, the Koryo dynasty was able to remain in power. Mongol rule led to much suffering for the Korean people, however. Many peasants and artisans were forced to build ships for Kublai Khan. After the end of the Mongol dynasty in China, the Koryo dynasty broke down. In 1392, Yi Song-gye, a military commander, seized power and founded the Yi dynasty.

8. How was the Koryo dynasty able to remain in power so long?

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Chapter 8, Section 4

For use with textbook pages 268–272

INDIA AFTER THE GUPTAS

KEY TERMS

Theravada a sect of Buddhism that sees Buddhism as a way of life, not a religion (page 268)

Mahayana a sect of Buddhism that sees Buddhism as a religion and believes that the Buddha is divine (page 268)

DRAWING FROM EXPERIENCE

How do most people acquire their religious beliefs? How important do you think religion is in the lives of people today? Why do you think so?

In the last section, you learned about the early history of Japan and Korea. In this section, you will learn about the history of India after the Guptas. During this period, new religious beliefs influenced India.

ORGANIZING YOUR THOUGHTS

Use the chart below to help you take notes. A split developed among the followers of Buddhism in India. Identify some key differences between Theravada and Mahayana Buddhism.

| Type of Buddhism | Religion or Way of Life | Beliefs About the Buddha | Beliefs About Nirvana |
|------------------|-------------------------|--------------------------|-----------------------|
| Theravada | 1. | 2. | 3. |
| Mahayana | 4. | 5. | 6. |

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 8, Section 4 (continued)

READ TO LEARN

- **The Decline of Buddhism** (page 268)

For hundreds of years, Buddhism remained popular with the Indian people. Over time, the teachings of the Buddha were interpreted in different ways. People did not always agree about the meaning of the Buddha's teachings. As a result, a split developed among the followers of Buddhism in India. One group called themselves the school of **Theravada** ("the teachings of the elders"). They believed that they were following the original teachings of the Buddha. They saw Buddhism as a way of life, not a religion. They believed that nirvana was a release from the "wheel of life" and could be achieved through an understanding of one's self. Another school was known as Mahayana Buddhism. To Mahayana Buddhists, Buddhism was a religion, not a philosophy. They believed that Buddha was divine, not just a wise man. They also believed that nirvana is not just a release from the wheel of life, but a true heaven. Nirvana could be achieved through devotion to the Buddha.

In the end, neither the Mahayana nor the Theravada sect of Buddhism remained popular in India. Hinduism revived, and Islam also became more popular. Despite its decline in India, monks carried Buddhism to China, Korea, Southeast Asia, and Japan. Buddhism is still practiced in all four of these areas.

7. What two religions replaced Buddhism in India?

- **The Eastward Expansion of Islam** (page 269)

In the early eighth century, Islam became popular in the northwestern corner of the Indian subcontinent. The impact of Islam is still visible in this region today. India is mostly Hindu, while Bangladesh and Pakistan are Islamic.

When the Arab armies reached India in the early eighth century, they only occupied the frontier regions. A new phase of Islamic expansion took place in the tenth century. Turkish people, who had formerly been slaves, founded a new Islamic state, known as Ghazni. Ghazni was located in what is now Afghanistan. When the founder of Ghazni died in 997, his son Mahmud succeeded him. Before his death in 1030, Mahmud extended his rule throughout

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Chapter 8, Section 4 (continued)

much of northern India. Hindu warriors, known as the Rajputs, tried to resist, but they were no match for the invaders. Mahmud’s successors continued their advances. By 1200, the Muslims had conquered the entire plain of northern India. They created a new Muslim state known as the Sultanate of Delhi.

8. How is the impact of Islam still visible in the Indian subcontinent today?

• **The Impact of Timur Lenk** (page 269)

During the latter half of the fourteenth century, the Sultanate of Delhi began to decline. Near the end of the century, a new military force crossed the Indus River from the northwest and raided the capital of Delhi. As many as 100,000 Hindu prisoners were killed. Timur Lenk (Tamerlane) led the invaders. Timur Lenk was the ruler of a Mongol state based in Samarkand. He seized power in 1369 and began a period of conquest. During the 1380s, he conquered the entire region east of the Caspian Sea and then occupied Mesopotamia. His invasion of northern India was brief. He died in 1405 in the midst of a military campaign.

9. Who was Timur Lenk?

• **Islam and Indian Society** (page 270)

The Muslim rulers in India saw themselves as foreign conquerors. They kept a strict separation between themselves and the mass of the Hindu population. Most Muslim rulers realized that there were too many Hindus to convert them all. They accepted the need to tolerate the Hindus’ religion. However, they did impose many Islamic customs on Hindu society. Overall, the relationship between Muslims and Hindus was marked by suspicion and dislike.

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Chapter 8, Section 4 (continued)

10. Why did the Muslim rulers in India tolerate the Hindus' religion?

• **Economy and Daily Life** (page 270)

Between 500 and 1500, most Indians lived on the land and farmed their own tiny plots. They paid a share of their harvest each year to a landlord. The landlord then sent part of the payment to the local ruler. Many people also lived in cities. The wealthy usually lived in the cities. Agriculture was a source of wealth. So was trade. Trade within India declined during this period, because of fighting among the states. But foreign trade remained high because of India's location. Wealthy Hindu merchants carried on much of the trade, but Muslims were also involved.

11. How did most Indians make their living?

• **The Wonder of Indian Culture** (page 271)

Between 500 and 1500, Indian artists and writers made significant achievements in their fields. Architecture and literature, in particular, flourished during this time. From the eighth century on, Indian architects built monumental Hindu temples. The temples were very ornate, with huge towers. Some of the greatest examples of Hindu temple art are the temples at Khajuraho. Of the 80 temples built there in the tenth century, 20 are still standing today.

Prose literature was well developed in India by the sixth and seventh centuries. It did not develop in Japan until the tenth century or in Europe until the seventeenth century. One of the great masters of Sanskrit prose was Dandin, a seventh-century author. In his work *The Ten Princes*, he created a fantastic world, combining history and fiction.

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Chapter 8, Section 4 *(continued)*

12. What are some of the greatest examples of Hindu temple art?

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Chapter 8, Section 5

For use with textbook pages 273–278

CIVILIZATION IN SOUTHEAST ASIA

KEY TERMS

archipelago a chain of islands (page 273)

agricultural society a society whose economy is based primarily on farming (page 277)

trading society a society whose economy is based primarily on trade (page 277)

DRAWING FROM EXPERIENCE

Do people from a variety of cultures live in your community? How are these cultures reflected in your community?

In the last section, you read about the history of India after the Guptas. In this section, you will learn about the history of various countries in Southeast Asia.

ORGANIZING YOUR THOUGHTS

Use the chart below to help you take notes. Compare the government, economy, and religion of the following areas in Southeast Asia.

| | Government | Economy | Religion |
|--|------------|---------|----------|
| Vietnam | 1. | 2. | 3. |
| Angkor | 4. | 5. | 6. |
| Thailand | 7. | 8. | 9. |
| Burma | 10. | 11. | 12. |
| Malay Peninsula and Indonesian Archipelago | 13. | 14. | 15. |

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 8, Section 5 (continued)

READ TO LEARN

- **The Land and People of Southeast Asia** (page 273)

Southeast Asia is the region between China and India. It has two major parts. One is the mainland region. It extends from the Chinese border to the tip of the Malay Peninsula. The other is a large **archipelago**, or chain of islands. Most of these islands are part of present-day Indonesia and the Philippines. Southeast Asia is a melting pot of peoples. It contains a mixture of races, cultures, and religions.

Mainland Southeast Asia has several mountain ranges. Between these ranges are several fertile river valleys. The people living in the river valleys were cut off from one another by the mountains, and they had only limited contacts with the people living in the mountains. The geographical barriers may explain why Southeast Asia was never unified under a single government. The barriers also encouraged the development of separate cultures, with different religions and languages.

16. How did geography affect the development of Southeast Asia?

- **The Formation of States** (page 274)

Between 500 and 1500, a number of states developed throughout Southeast Asia. They used China and India as models, but they adapted the models to their own needs and created their own unique states.

The Vietnamese were one of the first peoples in Southeast Asia to develop their own state. After the Chinese conquered Vietnam in 111 B.C., they tried to make Vietnam part of China. But the Vietnamese clung to their own identity. In the tenth century, they overthrew the Chinese. However, the Chinese did influence Vietnam. The Vietnamese adopted the Chinese model of centralized government. Their new state, which called itself Dai Viet (Great Viet), adopted state Confucianism. The rulers called themselves emperors and adopted Chinese court rituals. They also introduced the civil service examination. The Vietnamese state grew and expanded southward. By 1600, the Vietnamese had reached the Gulf of Siam.

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Chapter 8, Section 5 (continued)

In the ninth century, the kingdom of Angkor arose in what is present-day Cambodia. Angkor is also called the Khmer Empire. A powerful leader named Jayavarman united the Khmer people and set up a capital at Angkor Thom. In 802, Jayavarman was crowned as the god-king of his people. For several hundred years, Angkor was the most powerful state in mainland Southeast Asia. In 1432, however, the Thai destroyed the Angkor capital. The Angkor ruling class fled to the southeast and set up a new capital near Phnom Penh. Phnom Penh is the capital of present-day Cambodia.

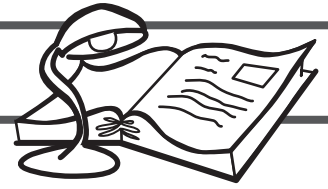
The Thai first appeared in the sixth century along the frontier of China. Beginning in the eleventh or twelfth century, Thai groups began moving south. They came into conflict with Angkor. They set up their own capital at Ayutthaya on the Chao Phraya River. They were a major force in the region for the next four hundred years. They converted to Buddhism and borrowed Indian political practices. But they also created a unique culture that evolved into the modern-day culture of Thailand.

The Burmans formed their own society in the valleys of the Salween and Irrawaddy Rivers. They had migrated from the highlands of Tibet in the seventh century A.D., probably to escape Chinese armies in the area. The Burmans were nomads, but they adopted farming after they arrived in Southeast Asia. In the eleventh century, they created the first Burman state, the kingdom of Pagan. Like the Thai, they converted to Buddhism and adopted Indian political institutions and culture. Pagan played an active role in the sea trade throughout the region. Attacks from the Mongols in the late thirteenth century weakened Pagan and caused it to decline.

In the Malay Peninsula and the Indonesian Archipelago, a different pattern developed. For centuries, this area had been involved in the trade that passed from East Asia to the Indian Ocean. However, the area had never been united as a single state. Two states eventually emerged in this region. In the eighth century, the state of Srivijaya dominated the trade route passing through the Strait of Malacca. At the same time, the kingdom of Sailendra emerged in eastern Java. The economy of Sailendra was based primarily on farming. Both states were influenced by Indian culture.

In the late thirteenth century, the new kingdom of Majapahit was founded. It became the greatest empire the region had ever seen. In the mid-fourteenth century, it united most of the archipelago, and perhaps part of the mainland, under a single rule. Around 1400, an Islamic state began to form in Melaka, a small town on the western coast of the Malay Peninsula. Melaka soon became the major trading port in the region and a chief rival of Majapahit. Eventually, nearly all the people of the region were converted to Islam and became part of the Sultanate of Melaka.

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Chapter 8, Section 5 (continued)

17. In what ways did China and India influence Southeast Asia?

• **Economic Forces** (page 277)

The states of Southeast Asia can be divided into two groups: agricultural societies and trading societies. The economies of **agricultural societies** are based on farming, while the economies of **trading societies** are based on trade. Some states, such as Vietnam, Angkor, Pagan, and Sailendra, depended largely on farming. Others, such as Srivijaya and the Sultanate of Melaka, depended chiefly on trade. The demand for spices added to the amount of trade in the region. Merchants from India and the Arabian Peninsula sailed to the Indonesian islands to buy cloves, pepper, nutmeg, and cinnamon, as well as precious woods, like teak and sandalwood.

18. Which states in Southeast Asia were trading societies? Which were agricultural societies?

• **Social Structures** (page 277)

In most Southeast Asian societies, hereditary aristocrats were at the top of the social ladder. They held both political power and economic wealth. Most aristocrats lived in the major cities. Beyond the major cities lived the rest of the population, which consisted of farmers, fishers, artisans, and merchants. The majority of the people were rice farmers, who barely survived.

In most of the societies of Southeast Asia, women had more rights than they did in China and India. They worked side by side with men in the fields and were often involved in trading activities.

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Chapter 8, Section 5 (continued)

19. How were women treated in most of the societies of Southeast Asia?

• **Culture and Religion** (page 277)

Chinese culture made an impact on Vietnam. Indian culture influenced other areas of Southeast Asia. The most visible evidence of the Indian influence is the architecture in these areas. The temple of Angkor Wat, at Angkor Thom, is a beautiful example. It combines Indian architectural techniques with native inspiration.

Hinduism and Buddhism were introduced into Southeast Asia, but they did not entirely replace existing beliefs. Old beliefs were blended with the new faiths. Buddhism did not have much impact at first. However, after Theravada Buddhism was introduced in Burma in the eleventh century, it spread rapidly to other areas of Southeast Asia. It eventually became the religion of the masses in much of Southeast Asia. It was popular because it taught that people could seek nirvana on their own, without the need for priests or rulers. It also tolerated local gods and posed no threat to established faiths.

20. Why was Theravada Buddhism popular in Southeast Asia?

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Chapter 9, Section 1

For use with textbook pages 285–290

TRANSFORMING THE ROMAN WORLD

KEY TERMS

- wergild** (“money for a man”) a fine paid by a wrongdoer to the family of the person he or she had injured or killed (page 287)
- ordeal** a physical trial used as a means of determining a person’s guilt or innocence (page 287)
- bishopric** a group of parishes under the authority of a bishop (page 287)
- pope** the head of the Roman Catholic Church (page 287)
- monk** a man who separates himself from ordinary human society in order to pursue a life of total dedication to God (page 288)
- monasticism** the practice of living the life of a monk (page 288)
- missionary** a person sent out to carry a religious message (page 288)
- nun** a woman who withdraws from the world to dedicate herself to God (page 288)
- abbess** the head of a convent (page 288)

DRAWING FROM EXPERIENCE

What do you think of when you hear the word “monk”? Why do monks live in monasteries? Are there any monasteries in or near your community?

In this section, you will learn about the division of the Western Roman Empire into states ruled by German kings. In this section and those following, you will learn about the role that monks played in the development of European civilization during the period from 500 to 1500 A.D. This period is called the Middle Ages or the medieval period.

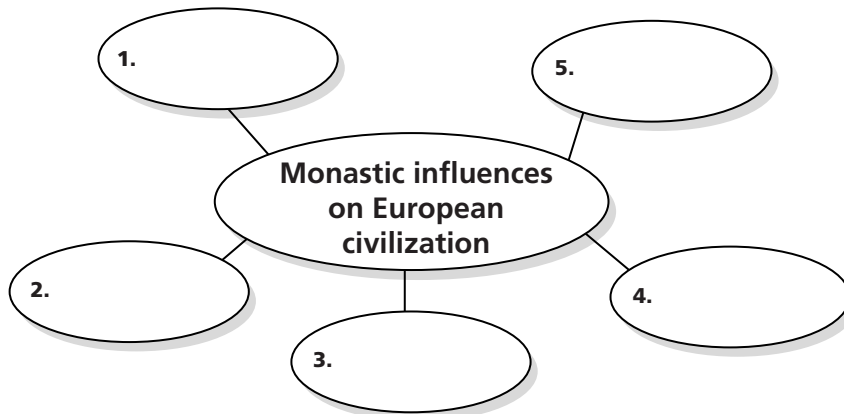
Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 9, Section 1 (continued)

ORGANIZING YOUR THOUGHTS

Use the concept web below to help you take notes. List five ways that monks and monasteries contributed to, or influenced, life in Europe.



READ TO LEARN

• The New Germanic Kingdoms (page 285)

By 500, the Western Roman Empire had been divided into a number of states ruled by German kings. The Ostrogoths controlled Italy, and the Visigoths occupied Spain. The Ostrogoths and the Visigoths were both Germanic tribes. They continued to use the Roman structure of government, but they excluded Romans from holding power.

When the Roman armies abandoned Britain at the beginning of the fifth century, the Angles and Saxons settled there. The Angles and Saxons were Germanic tribes from Denmark and northern Germany. They eventually became the Anglo-Saxons.

By 510, Clovis had established a powerful kingdom in what is now France and western Germany. Clovis was the king of the Franks, a Germanic group. He became a Christian around 500. His conversion to Christianity gained him the support of the Christian church in Rome, which was now known as the Roman Catholic Church. After his death, his sons divided the Frankish kingdom among themselves.

Over time, Germans and Romans married one another and began to create a new society. Among the Germanic peoples, the family was very important. The concept of family included the extended family of husbands, wives, children, brothers, sisters, cousins, and grandparents. The family worked the land together and provided protection for one another. The German concept of family influenced Germanic law. Crimes were personal and could lead to feuds and bloodshed. To avoid bloodshed, a system developed that was based

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 9, Section 1 (continued)

on a fine called wergild. **Wergild** was the amount paid by a wrongdoer to the family of the person he or she had injured or killed. Wergild means “money for a man,” and was the value of a person in money. A crime against a member of nobility cost more than a crime against an ordinary person or a slave. In Germanic law, one way to determine whether a person was guilty or innocent was the ordeal. The **ordeal** was a physical trial. It was based on the idea that divine forces would not allow an innocent person to be harmed. If an accused person was unharmed after the ordeal, he or she was considered innocent.

6. Which Germanic tribes controlled Italy, Spain, Britain, and France by the sixth century?

• The Role of the Church (page 287)

By the fourth century, the Christian church had developed a system of organization. Priests led local Christian communities, called parishes. A bishop headed a group of parishes. His area of authority was called a **bishopric**, or diocese. Over time, the bishops of Rome became the heads of the Roman Catholic Church. They became known as **popes**. In the sixth century, a strong pope, Gregory I, served as leader of Rome and its surrounding territories. This gave the papacy (office of the pope) political power. The territories around Rome became known as the Papal States

Gregory I was also active in converting non-Christians to Christianity. He used monks to help spread Christianity to all of Europe. A **monk** is man who separates himself from ordinary human society in order to pursue a life of total dedication to God. The practice of living the life of a monk is known as **monasticism**. English and Irish monks were especially enthusiastic **missionaries** (people sent to carry a religious message).

In the sixth century, Saint Benedict founded a community of monks. He wrote a set of rules for this community. Other monastic groups later used the Benedictine rule. It divided each day into a series of activities. The main emphasis was on prayer and manual labor. The monks ate, worked, slept, and worshiped together in a monastery. An abbot, or “father” ruled each monastery. Monasteries owned lands that allowed them to be self-supporting. They also became centers of learning.

Monks became an important force in the new European civilization. They provided schools, hospitals, and hospitality for travelers. Although the first monks were men, women also began to withdraw from the world to dedicate themselves to God. These women were called **nuns**. Nuns lived in convents headed by **abbesses**.

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 9, Section 1 (continued)

7. How was the Christian church organized by the fourth century?

• **Charlemagne and the Carolingians** (page 289)

During the 600s and 700s, the kings of the Frankish kingdom began to lose their power to the mayors of the palace. The mayors of the palace were the chief officers of the king’s household. One of these mayors, Pepin, became king himself. Pepin was the son of Charles Martel, the leader who had defeated the Muslims at the Battle of Tours in 732. When Pepin died, his son became king. This new king became known as Charles the Great, or Charlemagne. He ruled from 768 to 814.

Charlemagne expanded the territory of the Frankish kingdom and created the Carolingian Empire. At its height, the Carolingian Empire covered much of western and central Europe. Charlemagne used his household staff and counts (German nobles) to rule his empire. The counts were the king’s representatives in the local districts. Charlemagne used *missi dominici* (“messengers of the lord king”) to check on the counts to make sure that they were carrying out the king’s wishes. In 800, Charlemagne was given a new title—emperor of the Romans. His coronation (crowning) symbolized the coming together of the Roman, Christian, and Germanic elements of European civilization. It also shows that the idea of a Roman Empire had not died.

Although Charlemagne could not read or write, he promoted learning in his kingdom. This led to a revival of learning and culture sometimes called the Carolingian Renaissance. This revival included a renewed interest in the works of the Greeks and Romans. The monks played a central role in this revival. Monasteries had scriptoria, or writing rooms, where the monks copied manuscripts. They copied the works of ancient Roman authors, as well as the Bible and other Christian works. Most of the ancient Roman literature we have today exists because the monks copied it.

8. What were some of Charlemagne’s achievements as emperor?

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Chapter 9, Section 2

For use with textbook pages 291–296

FEUDALISM

KEY TERMS

feudalism a political and social system in which a powerful lord offered protection to a vassal in return for military service (page 293)

vassal a man who served a lord in a military capacity (page 293)

knight a heavily armored soldier who fought on horseback (page 293)

fief land given to a vassal by a lord (page 294)

feudal contract a set of unwritten rules that determined the relationship between a lord and his vassal (page 294)

tournament a contest where knights could show their fighting skills (page 295)

chivalry a code of ethics that knights were supposed to uphold (page 295)

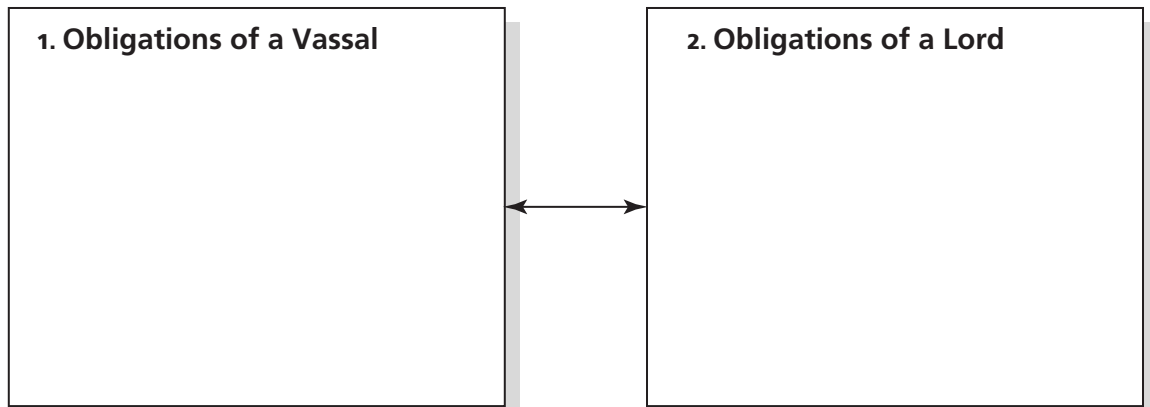
DRAWING FROM EXPERIENCE

What do you think of when you hear the word “Vikings”? Who were they? What were their contributions to the development of North America?

In the last section, you learned about the development of German kingdoms in Europe. In this section, you will learn about the invasion of Europe by other peoples, including the Vikings. These invaders threatened the safety of people throughout Europe, which led to the development of feudalism.

ORGANIZING YOUR THOUGHTS

Use the diagram below to help you take notes. Under the feudal contract, lords and vassals both had obligations to one another. Summarize some of those obligations in the boxes below.



Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 9, Section 2 (continued)

READ TO LEARN

- **The Invaders** (page 291)

After Charlemagne’s death in 814, the Carolingian Empire began to fall apart. Within 30 years, it was divided into three major sections: the western Frankish lands, the eastern Frankish lands, and the Middle Kingdom. There were also many invasions in Europe in the ninth and tenth centuries. The Muslims attacked southern France. The Magyars, a people from western Asia, moved into central Europe and invaded Western Europe. The most far-reaching attacks came from the Norsemen of Scandinavia, also known as the Vikings. They were warriors, but they were also great shipbuilders and sailors. Their ships were long and narrow. This made it possible for the Vikings to sail up European rivers and attack places that were far inland.

Beginning in 911, the ruler of the west Frankish lands gave land at the mouth of the Seine to one band of the Vikings. This section of France became known as Normandy. By allowing the Vikings to settle in this land, the Frankish people were able to convert the Vikings to Christianity. The Vikings soon became a part of European civilization.

3. What peoples invaded Europe during the ninth and tenth centuries?

- **The Development of Feudalism** (page 292)

The Vikings and other invaders threatened the safety of people throughout Europe. People began to turn to local landed aristocrats (lords) to protect them. In return for protection, people were willing to serve the lords. This led to a new political and social system called **feudalism**. In Germanic society, warriors swore an oath of loyalty to their leaders and fought for them. In return, the leaders took care of the warriors’ needs. A man who served a lord in a military capacity was known as a **vassal**. When a lord wanted men to fight for him, he gave each vassal a piece of land. The land supported the vassal and his family. By the ninth century, the gift of land to a vassal became known as a **fief**.

In feudal society, loyalty to one’s lord was the chief virtue. The lord-vassal relationship was not a master-slave relationship. It was an honorable relationship between free men. Over time, a set of unwritten rules developed that determined the relationship between a lord and a vassal. These rules were known as the **feudal contract**. A vassal had to perform military service, usually

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Chapter 9, Section 2 (continued)

about 40 days a year. The vassal could also be asked to come to the lord’s court to give advice. Vassals had to make payments to the lord on certain occasions, such as the knighting of the lord’s eldest son or the marriage of his eldest daughter. The lord also had responsibilities to the vassal. The lord supported the vassal by giving him land. He also had to protect the vassal. This could mean defending him militarily, or it could mean taking his side in a court of law.

The Frankish army began to change during this time. It had originally consisted of foot soldiers dressed in coats of mail (armor made of metal links or plates). In the eighth century, larger horses and the use of stirrups made it possible for horsemen to wear coats of mail, too. Armies now consisted mainly of armored cavalry (soldiers on horseback). These soldiers became known as **knights**.

4. Why did men choose to become vassals?

- **The Nobility of the Middle Ages** (page 295)

In the Middle Ages, the nobles were the kings, dukes, counts, barons, and even bishops who had large landed estates. They formed an aristocracy, or nobility, that had most of the political, economic, and social power. Knights also had social prestige. In the twelfth century, knights began to take part in tournaments. **Tournaments** were contests where knights could show their fighting skills. The joust became the main part of the tournament. The joust was an individual contest between two knights.

In the eleventh and twelfth centuries, the idea of chivalry evolved. **Chivalry** was a code of ethics that knights were supposed to follow. Knights were expected to defend the Church and defenseless people. They were also supposed to treat captives as honored guests instead of putting them in dungeons. Chivalry also implied that knights should fight for glory and not for material rewards.

5. What kinds of behavior did the code of chivalry expect from knights?

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Chapter 9, Section 2 *(continued)*

- **Aristocratic Women** *(page 296)*

During this time, women could own property, but most remained under the control of their fathers or husbands. Some aristocratic women had opportunities to play important roles, however. The lady of the castle often had to manage the estate while the lord was away at war or court. This could involve supervising many servants, taking care of the financial accounts, and overseeing the supplies, including food, for the entire household. Women were expected to be subservient to their husbands, but some strong women advised or even dominated their husbands.

6. In what ways did aristocratic women play important roles?

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Chapter 9, Section 3

For use with textbook pages 297–301

THE GROWTH OF EUROPEAN KINGDOMS

KEY TERMS

common law laws that are common to a whole kingdom, as opposed to laws that vary from place to place (page 298)

Magna Carta (the Great Charter) a document of rights that limited the king's power signed by King John in 1215 (page 299)

estate each of the three social classes in France (page 299)

DRAWING FROM EXPERIENCE

What rights are people in the United States guaranteed by the Constitution? Which of these rights do you think is the most important? Why?

In the last two sections, you learned about the rise of German kingdoms in Europe and the development of feudalism. In this section, you will learn about the growth of kingdoms in Europe during the High Middle Ages. You will also learn how representative government and the protection of rights developed in some of these countries.

ORGANIZING YOUR THOUGHTS

Use the chart below to help you take notes. Indicate what contributions the following rulers made to the growth of kingdoms in their countries.

| Ruler | Country | Contributions |
|---------------------|---------|---------------|
| William of Normandy | 1. | 2. |
| Henry II | 3. | 4. |
| John | 5. | 6. |
| Edward I | 7. | 8. |
| Philip II Augustus | 9. | 10. |
| Philip IV | 11. | 12. |

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Chapter 9, Section 3 (continued)

READ TO LEARN

- **England in the High Middle Ages** (page 297)

In the late ninth century, King Alfred the Great united the Anglo-Saxon kingdoms in England. After that time, Anglo-Saxons ruled England. On October 14, 1066, an army of knights under William of Normandy landed on the coast of England and defeated King Harold, the Anglo-Saxon king, at the Battle of Hastings. William was then crowned king of England. He took a census, known as the Domesday Book. This was the first census taken in Europe since Roman times. William also developed more fully the system of taxation and royal courts begun by the Anglo-Saxon kings. As the Norman ruling class married the Anglo-Saxon nobility, a new English culture began to develop. This culture merged Anglo-Saxon and French language and customs.

The power of the English monarchy was enlarged during the reign of Henry II. He ruled from 1154 to 1189. He increased the number of criminal cases tried in the king's court. He also made it possible for property cases to be tried in the royal courts. This expanded the power of the royal courts, as well as the king's power. Because the royal courts were now found throughout all of England, a body of **common law** (law that was common to the whole kingdom) began to replace laws that varied from place to place. Henry also believed that he had the right to try clergymen in royal courts. When Thomas à Becket, the archbishop of Canterbury, claimed that only Roman Catholic Church courts could try clerics, knights who supported the king murdered the archbishop.

Many English nobles resented the growing power of the kings. During the reign of King John, they rebelled. In 1215, they forced King John to sign a document of rights called the **Magna Carta** (Great Charter). The Magna Carta put in writing that the relationship between the king and vassals was based on mutual rights and obligations. In later years, it was used to support the idea that a king's power was limited, not absolute.

During the reign of Edward I in the thirteenth century, the English Parliament emerged. The parliament played an important role in the development of representative government. It was composed of two knights from every county, two people from every town, and all of the nobles and bishops throughout England. Eventually, the nobles and bishops formed the House of Lords, and the knights and townspeople formed the House of Commons. During the time of Edward I, the parliament passed laws and taxes.

13. What two cultures merged to form a new English culture?

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Chapter 9, Section 3 (continued)

• The French Kingdom (page 299)

After the death of the last Carolingian king in 987, the west Frankish nobles chose Hugh Capet as the new king. This established the Capetian dynasty of French kings. The Capetians had the title of king, but they had little real power. The land that they controlled only included the area around Paris.

The reign of King Philip II Augustus was a turning point in the growth of the French monarchy. He ruled from 1180 to 1223. He waged war with England, and gained control of the French territories of Normandy, Maine, Anjou, and Aquitaine. These territories had been under English control. Adding these territories increased the income of the French monarchy and expanded its power.

Philip IV, called Philip the Fair, ruled from 1285 to 1314. He strengthened the monarchy by expanding the royal bureaucracy. He also brought a French parliament into existence by meeting with representatives of the three estates (classes). These **estates** were the clergy (first estate), the nobles (second estate), and townspeople (third estate). The meeting was held in 1302 and began the Estates-General, the first French parliament.

14. What were the three estates in France?

• The Holy Roman Empire (page 300)

In the tenth century, Saxon dukes became kings of the eastern Frankish kingdom. This kingdom became known as Germany. The best-known Saxon king of Germany was Otto I. In return for protecting the pope, Otto I was crowned emperor of the Romans in 962. This title had not been used since Charlemagne. The German kings tried to rule both German and Italian lands. Frederick I considered Italy the center of a “holy empire.” This was the origin of the name Holy Roman Empire. Frederick’s attempt to conquer northern Italy failed. The pope opposed him, because he was afraid that Frederick wanted to include Rome and the Papal States in his empire. The cities of northern Italy also opposed him. Together, the pope and the northern Italian cities defeated the army of Frederick I in 1176.

The struggle between popes and emperors weakened the Holy Roman Empire. The German emperors spent their time fighting in Italy. Back in Germany, powerful German lords ignored the emperors and created their own independent kingdoms. In the end, the Holy Roman Empire had no real power over either Germany or Italy. Germany and Italy continued to be made up of small, independent states. They did not develop national monarchies in the Middle Ages, like France and England did.

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Chapter 9, Section 3 (continued)

15. What was the origin of the name Holy Roman Empire?

• Central and Eastern Europe (page 300)

The Slavic people were originally a single group of people in central Europe. Over time, they divided into three major groups: the western, southern, and eastern Slavs. The western Slavs formed the Polish and Bohemian kingdoms. German monks converted the Czechs in Bohemia and the Slavs in Poland to Christianity. The kingdom of Hungary was also converted. Czechs, Poles, and Hungarians all became part of the Roman Catholic Church.

The eastern and southern Slavs took a different path. Byzantine missionaries converted the eastern Slavs of Moravia to Eastern Orthodox Christianity. Most of the southern Slavs also converted to Eastern Orthodox Christianity. These peoples included the Croats, the Serbs, and the Bulgarians. By accepting Eastern Orthodox Christianity, the southern and eastern Slavs were linked to the Byzantine culture.

16. In what way did the eastern and southern Slavs take a different path from the western Slavs?

• The Development of Russia (page 301)

Eastern Slavic peoples had also settled in what is now Ukraine and Russia. Beginning in the eighth century, Swedish Vikings moved into their lands. The native peoples called the Viking rulers the Rus. This is the origin of the name Russia. One Viking leader, Oleg, settled in Kiev at the beginning of the tenth century. He created a Rus state known as the principality of Kiev. His successors extended their control over the eastern Slavs and expanded the principality of Kiev. The Rus married Slavic wives, and they were gradually assimilated into the Slavic population. Byzantine missionaries began to come to the principality of Kiev. One Rus ruler, Vladimir, married the Byzantine emperor's sister and accepted Eastern Orthodox Christianity in 988. Orthodox Christianity became the official religion of the state. The principality of Kiev prospered and reached its high point in the first half of the eleventh century. But civil wars and invasions brought an end to this first Russian state in 1169.

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Chapter 9, Section 3 *(continued)*

In the thirteenth century, the Mongols conquered Russia. They occupied Russian lands and made the Russian princes pay tribute to them. One of the Russian princes, Alexander Nevsky, defeated a German army in northwestern Russia in 1242. The leader of the western Mongol Empire gave Nevsky the title of grand-prince. His descendants became princes of Moscow and eventually leaders of all Russia.

- 17.** What is the origin of the name Russia?

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Chapter 9, Section 4

For use with textbook pages 303–308

THE BYZANTINE EMPIRE AND THE CRUSADES

KEY TERMS

- patriarch** the head of the Eastern Orthodox Church (page 305)
- schism** the separation of Christianity into two branches, Roman Catholic and Eastern Orthodox (page 305)
- Crusades** military expeditions made by European Christians to regain the Holy Land from the Muslims (page 306)
- infidel** (unbeliever) the Crusaders' term for a Muslim (page 306)

DRAWING FROM EXPERIENCE

How does trade with other countries affect you? What items do you buy that are imported from other countries?

In the last section, you learned about the development of European kingdoms. In this section, you will read about the development of the Byzantine Empire. The capital of this empire, Constantinople, was the chief center of trade during the Middle Ages.

ORGANIZING YOUR THOUGHTS

Use the chart below to help you take notes. There were several key differences between the Western Roman Empire and the Eastern Roman, or Byzantine, Empire. Summarize some of those differences in the chart below.

| Empire | Language | Capital | Church | Head of Church |
|---------------------------------------|----------|---------|--------|----------------|
| Western Roman (refer to Chapter 5) | 1. | 2. | 3. | 4. |
| Eastern Roman/ Byzantine | 5. | 6. | 7. | 8. |

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Chapter 9, Section 4 (continued)

READ TO LEARN

- **The Reign of Justinian** (page 303)

Justinian became emperor of the Eastern Roman Empire in 527. He was determined to reestablish the Roman Empire in the Mediterranean. By 552, his empire included Italy, part of Spain, North Africa, Asia Minor, Palestine, and Syria.

Riots in Constantinople in 532 destroyed much of the city. Justinian rebuilt the city and gave it the appearance that it would have for almost a thousand years. Justinian also simplified Roman laws into a code of laws called *The Body of Civil Law*. This code was the basis of law in the Eastern Roman Empire and was also used in the West. It became the basis for much of the legal system of Europe.

9. What were Justinian’s main accomplishments?

- **From Eastern Roman Empire to Byzantine Empire** (page 304)

Justinian’s conquests left the Eastern Roman Empire with serious problems. There was too much territory to protect, an empty treasury, and new threats to the frontiers of the empire. Within three years of Justinian’s death in 565, the Lombards had conquered much of Italy. Other areas were soon lost. Islamic forces defeated an army of the Eastern Roman Empire at Yarmuk in 636. As a result, the empire lost the provinces of Syria and Palestine. In 679, the Bulgars took possession of the lower Danube Valley. By the beginning of the eighth century, the Eastern Roman Empire was much smaller. It consisted only of the eastern Balkans and Asia Minor. Historians call this smaller Eastern Roman Empire the **Byzantine Empire**. This empire lasted until 1453.

The Byzantine Empire was different from the Western Roman Empire in many ways. Greek replaced Latin as the official language of the Byzantine Empire. The Christian church of the Byzantine Empire became known as the Eastern Orthodox Church. The Byzantines believed that God had commanded their state to preserve the true Christian faith. They also believed that God chose the emperor. The emperor appointed the head of the Eastern Orthodox Church, known as the **patriarch**. As a result, the emperor had control over the church as well as the state.

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Chapter 9, Section 4 (continued)

- 10.** How did the emperor of the Byzantine Empire control the church as well as the state?

• **Life in Constantinople** (page 305)

Constantinople was the largest city in Europe during the Middle Ages. Until the twelfth century, it was also Europe’s chief center of trade between West and East. Many goods from China, Southeast Asia, India, Russia, and the Balkans arrived in Constantinople and were shipped from there to the Mediterranean area and northern Europe. Raw materials were also imported and were used by local industries in Constantinople. In Justinian’s reign, silkworms were smuggled from China by two Byzantine monks. A silk industry developed in Constantinople, and silk became the city’s most desired product.

The city of Constantinople included an immense palace complex, hundreds of churches, and a huge arena, known as the Hippodrome. Both gladiator fights and chariot races were held in the Hippodrome. Most of these buildings had been constructed during Justinian’s reign. His greatest achievement was the famous Hagia Sophia, the Church of the Holy Wisdom. Justinian also built many roads, bridges, walls, public baths, courts, and schools, as well as underground reservoirs to hold the city’s water supply.

- 11.** Why did Constantinople become a major center of trade?

• **New Heights and New Problems** (page 305)

From 867 to 1081, a new dynasty of emperors ruled the Byzantine Empire. They were known as the Macedonians. They expanded the empire to include Bulgaria, the islands of Crete and Cyprus, and Syria. By 1025, the Byzantine Empire was the largest it had been since the beginning of the seventh century. The Macedonians also created a time of prosperity by expanding trade with western Europe. The Macedonian dynasty restored much of the power of the Byzantine Empire during the tenth and eleventh centuries, but later rulers undid most of the gains. In the late eleventh century, there were struggles for power between military leaders and aristocratic families. This led to political and social disorder.

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Chapter 9, Section 4 (continued)

During the eleventh century, there was also a split between the Eastern Orthodox Church and the Roman Catholic Church. The Eastern Orthodox Church was unwilling to accept the pope's claim that he was the sole head of the Christian faith. In 1054, Pope Leo IX and Michael Cerularius, the patriarch of the Byzantine Church, excommunicated each other. (Each took away the other's right of church membership.) This began a **schism**, or separation, between the two branches of Christianity.

In the eleventh century, the Seljuk Turks moved into Asia Minor. This threatened the Byzantine Empire, because Asia Minor was the heartland of the empire and the main source of food and workers. In 1071, a Turkish army defeated Byzantine forces at Manzikert.

- 12.** What event started the schism between the Eastern Orthodox Church and Roman Catholic Church?

• **The Crusades** (page 306)

From the eleventh to the thirteenth centuries, European Christians carried out a series of military expeditions to regain the Holy Land. These expeditions are known as the **Crusades**.

The push for the Crusades began when the Byzantine emperor Alexius I asked the Europeans for help against the Seljuk Turks. Because the Seljuk Turks were Muslims, Pope Urban II agreed to help. He challenged Christians to take up weapons and join in a holy war to liberate Jerusalem and the Holy Land (Palestine) from the Muslims. The Muslims were called **infidels** (unbelievers) by the Christians.

Warriors from western Europe, particularly France, formed the first crusading army. Most of the knights who made up this army were motivated by religious fervor, but some were seeking adventure. Others saw this as an opportunity to gain territory, riches, and possibly a title. The crusading army captured Antioch in 1098. The crusaders reached Jerusalem in June 1099. They took control of the city and massacred the inhabitants. The crusaders created four crusader states. These states depended on Italian cities for supplies from Europe. As a result, some Italian port cities, such as Genoa, Pisa, and Venice, became rich and powerful.

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Chapter 9, Section 4 (continued)

By the 1140s, the Muslims had begun to strike back. Saint Bernard of Clairvaux enlisted the help of King Louis VII of France and Emperor Conrad II of Germany to start a Second Crusade. This crusade was a total failure. In 1187, Jerusalem fell to Muslim forces under the command of Saladin. Three important rulers then agreed to lead a Third Crusade. These three rulers were Emperor Frederick Barbarossa of Germany, Richard I (Richard the Lionhearted) of England, and Philip II Augustus of France. The Third Crusade also failed. Richard the Lionhearted finally negotiated a settlement with Saladin. Saladin agreed to allow Christian pilgrims free access to Jerusalem.

After the death of Saladin in 1193, Pope Innocent III started the Fourth Crusade. Leaders of the Fourth Crusade from Venice saw an opportunity to eliminate their main trade competitor, the Byzantine Empire. The crusading army was sent to Constantinople and sacked the city in 1204. In 1261, a Byzantine army was able to regain the city, but the Byzantine Empire was no longer a great Mediterranean power. The empire survived for another 190 years, but the Ottoman Turks finally conquered it in 1453.

Historians disagree about the effect of the Crusades on European civilization. The Crusades helped the Italian port cities, but the Crusades also had unfortunate side effects. The first widespread attacks against Jews began during the Crusades. Many Christians believed that the Jews were the “murderers of Christ.” They believed that both the Muslims and the Jews should be eliminated. Many Jews were massacred during the Middle Ages.

Another major effect of the Crusades was the breakdown of feudalism. As kings levied taxes and raised armies, nobles joining the Crusades sold their lands and freed their serfs. As nobles lost power, kings became stronger and wealthier. This led to the development of true nation-states. By the mid-1400s, four strong states—Portugal, Spain, England, and France—emerged in Europe.

13. What are some of the reasons that Europeans took part in the Crusades?

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Chapter 10, Section 1

For use with textbook pages 315–322

PEASANTS, TRADE, AND CITIES

KEY TERMS

manor an agricultural estate run by a lord and worked by peasants (*page 317*)

serf a peasant legally bound to the land (*page 317*)

money economy an economic system based on money, rather than barter (*page 320*)

commercial capitalism an economic system in which people invest in trade and goods in order to make profits (*page 320*)

guild a business association, or association of craftspeople, in the Middle Ages (*page 322*)

masterpiece a finished piece in a craft that was used to judge whether a journeyman was qualified to become a master and join a guild (*page 322*)

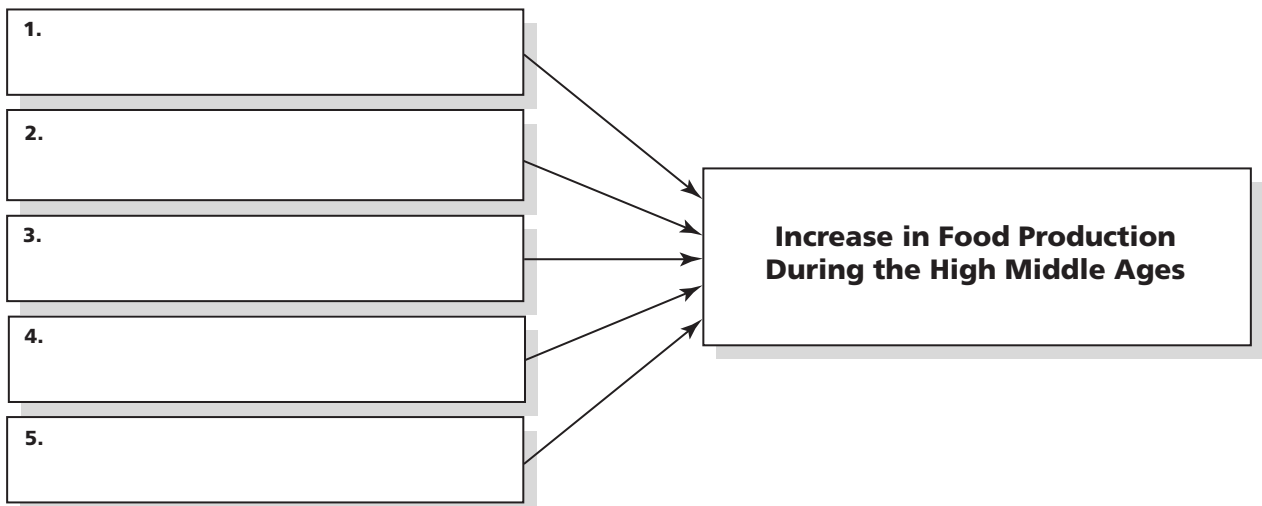
DRAWING FROM EXPERIENCE

How does money affect your ability to get the things you need? Could you get what you need by trading with people, without using money?

In this section, you will learn about daily life during the Middle Ages. It was during this period that a money economy began to emerge in Europe.

ORGANIZING YOUR THOUGHTS

Use the diagram below to help you take notes. Several factors led to an increase in food production during the High Middle Ages. List five of those factors.



Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 10, Section 1 (continued)

READ TO LEARN

- **The New Agriculture** (page 315)

In the early Middle Ages, Europe had a relatively small population. Between 1000 and 1300, however, the population almost doubled, from 38 million to 74 million people. This period is called the High Middle Ages. During this period, food production increased dramatically. There were several reasons for this increase. There was more peace and stability during this time, because the invasions of the early Middle Ages had stopped. There was also a change in climate during the High Middle Ages that improved growing conditions. There was also more land to farm, because peasants cut down trees and drained swamps. New inventions also helped the development of farming. Two of these inventions, the horse collar and the horseshoe, made it possible for horses to plow fields instead of oxen. Because horses were faster, this increased production. The shift from a two-field to a three-field system of crop rotation also added to the increase in food production.

Labor-saving devices were also invented during this time. The people of the Middle Ages used the power of water and wind to do jobs such as grinding grain that had previously been done by humans or animals. Iron was mined in various areas of Europe and was used to make tools for farming and building. Iron was crucial for making the *carruca*, a heavy, wheeled plow with an iron plowshare that could turn over heavy clay soils. The use of this plow led to the growth of farming villages. Plows and teams of horses were too expensive to be bought by one family, so the entire village shared the cost.

6. How did the use of the *carruca* lead to the growth of farming villages?

- **The Manorial System** (page 317)

A **manor** was an agricultural estate run by a lord and worked by peasants. Although there were free peasants, more and more peasants became serfs. **Serfs** were peasants who were legally bound to the land. Serfs had to work for the lord and pay rents, and they were subject to the lord's control. By 800, probably 60 percent of the people of western Europe were serfs. A serf's work included farming the lord's land, building barns, and digging ditches. Serfs usually worked about three days a week for their lords. The rest of the week, they worked their own land to grow food for themselves. The serfs paid rent by giving the lords a share of everything they raised.

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Chapter 10, Section 1 (continued)

Lords had various legal rights over their serfs. Serfs could not leave the manor, or marry anyone outside the manor, without the lord's approval. Peasants also had to pay lords for certain services, such as having their grain ground in the lords' mills. Some lords had the authority to try peasants in their own courts. But serfs were not slaves. The land assigned to serfs to support themselves could not be taken away, and their responsibilities to the lord were fairly fixed. It was also the lord's duty to protect his serfs.

7. How were serfs different from slaves?

• Daily Life of the Peasantry (page 318)

The life of peasants in Europe was simple. Their houses were made of wood frames surrounded by sticks. The spaces between sticks were filled with straw and then plastered over with clay. Most houses consisted of one or two rooms. The basic staple of a peasant's diet was bread. It was very nutritious because it was made of wheat, rye, barley, millet, and oats. Peasants also ate vegetables from their gardens, cheese from cow's or goat's milk, and nuts, berries and fruit. Chickens provided eggs and sometimes meat. Peasants usually ate meat only on the great feast days, like Christmas and Easter.

The seasons of the year determined most of a peasant's activities. Harvest time was in August and September. In October, peasants worked the ground for the planting of winter crops. In November, excess livestock were slaughtered. In February and March, the land was plowed for the planting of spring crops. Early summer was a fairly relaxed time, but there was still weeding and sheepshearing to be done. In every season, the serfs worked both their own land and the lords' land. They also tended gardens next to their homes. Peasants had breaks from their work, however, thanks to the feast days (holidays) of the Catholic Church. The feast days celebrated the great events of the Christian faith or the lives of Christian saints. A total of more than 50 days were holidays. The feast days, Sunday mass, baptisms, marriages, and funerals brought peasants into contact with the village church. The village priest taught the peasants the basic ideas of Christianity so that they could gain the Christians' final goal—salvation.

The role of peasant women was both important and difficult. They had to work in the fields and at the same time bear children. Their ability to manage the household could determine whether their family would starve or survive in difficult times.

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Chapter 10, Section 1 (continued)

8. What events gave peasants a break from their work?

• The Revival of Trade (page 319)

The revival of trade in Europe was gradual. Cities in Italy took the lead. Venice developed a fleet of trading ships and became a major trade center by the end of the tenth century. While Venice and other Italian cities were busy trading in the Mediterranean, the towns of Flanders were doing the same in northern Europe. Flanders was the area along the coast of what is now Belgium and northern France. Its location made it an ideal center for the traders of northern Europe. Merchants from England, Scandinavia, France, and Germany met there to trade their goods for the woolen cloth made in Flanders. By the twelfth century, trade developed between Flanders and Italy. As trade increased, demand for gold and silver coins arose. A money economy slowly began to emerge. A **money economy** is an economic system based on money rather than barter. Trading companies and banking firms were set up to manage the sale of goods. All of these practices were part of the rise of **commercial capitalism**, an economic system in which people invest in trade and goods in order to make profits.

9. What two areas in Europe were major trading centers during the Middle Ages?

• The Growth of Cities (page 320)

The revival of trade led to a revival of cities. Merchants began to settle in the old Roman cities. They were followed by craftspeople who could make goods for the merchants to sell. Many new cities and towns were founded in northern Europe. Merchants usually built settlements near castles because the castles were located on trade routes and could offer protection. Walls were built to protect the settlements. Merchants and artisans of these cities became known as *burghers* or *bourgeoisie*. (These words come from the German word *burg*, which means “a walled enclosure.”) Medieval cities were small in comparison with ancient or modern cities. A large trading city had about five thousand people.

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Chapter 10, Section 1 *(continued)*

Most towns were dependent on the food grown in the surrounding manors. The towns were often part of the territory that belonged to a lord and were subject to his authority. But townspeople needed the freedom to trade. They also needed their own laws and were willing to pay for them. Lords and kings saw this as an opportunity to make money and were willing to sell the townspeople the rights they wanted. These included the right to buy and sell property and freedom from military service. Some new towns also received the right to govern themselves by electing their own officials and having their own courts. Over time, medieval cities developed their own governments. Only males who had been born in the city, or who had lived there for some time, were citizens. In many cities, these citizens elected a city council. The members of the city council served as judges and passed laws. Elections were usually rigged to make sure that only patricians (members of the wealthiest families) were elected.

10. What rights were townspeople willing to buy from lords and kings?

• **Daily Life in the Medieval City** *(page 321)*

Stone walls surrounded medieval towns. The walls were expensive to build, so the space inside was limited and crowded. Streets were narrow, and houses were built against one another. The second and third stories were built out over the streets. The houses were built mostly of wood, so the danger of fire was great. The cities were often dirty and smelled from animal and human waste. Air pollution and water pollution were a fact of life. Because of pollution, cities did not use the rivers for drinking water, but relied on wells instead.

There were more men than women in the medieval cities. Women were expected to supervise the household, prepare meals, raise the children, and manage the family's finances. They were often expected to help their husbands in their trades, as well. Some women developed their own trades to earn extra money. Many women became brewers, weavers, and hatmakers.

11. Why were medieval towns so crowded?

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Chapter 10, Section 1 *(continued)*

- **Industry and Guilds** *(page 322)*

From the eleventh century on, craftspeople began to organize themselves into **guilds**, or business associations. There were guilds for almost every craft. There were also guilds for groups of merchants, such as dealers in silk and wool. Craft guilds directed almost every aspect of the production process. They set the standards for the goods produced and determined the prices for the goods. They also determined the number of people who could enter a trade and what procedure they had to follow to do so. A person who wanted to learn a trade first became an apprentice, usually around the age of 10. Apprentices were not paid but received room and board from their masters. After five to seven years of service, apprentices became journeymen and worked for wages. To become masters, journeymen had to produce a **master-piece**, a finished piece in their craft. This piece was used to judge whether a journeyman was qualified to become a master and join the guild.

12. What process did a person follow to learn a trade and join a guild?

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Chapter 10, Section 2

For use with textbook pages 323–328

CHRISTIANITY AND MEDIEVAL CIVILIZATION

KEY TERMS

lay investiture a practice in which secular (lay) rulers gave the symbols of office to church officials they had chosen (page 324)

interdict a command by the pope forbidding priests from giving the sacraments of the Church to a particular group of people (page 325)

sacraments Christian rites, such as baptism, marriage, and communion (page 325)

heresy the denial of basic Church doctrines (page 326)

Inquisition a medieval court whose job was to find and try heretics (page 326)

relic an object connected with a saint that was considered worthy of worship (page 328)

DRAWING FROM EXPERIENCE

What do you think people expect from their spiritual or religious leaders? Do you think religious leaders should be involved in government or in social issues? Why or why not?

In the last section, you learned about daily life in Europe during the Middle Ages. In this section, you will learn about the role of the Church in medieval society.

ORGANIZING YOUR THOUGHTS

Use the chart below to help you take notes. New religious orders emerged during the Middle Ages. Compare three of those orders, the Cistercians, the Franciscans, and the Dominicans, in the chart below.

| Religious Order | Founder(s) | Main Emphases |
|-----------------|------------|---------------|
| Cistercians | 1. | 2. |
| Franciscans | 3. | 4. |
| Dominicans | 5. | 6. |

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Chapter 10, Section 2 (continued)

READ TO LEARN

- **The Papal Monarchy** (page 323)

The popes of the Catholic Church were the spiritual leaders of the Church, but they also had political power. They had control of territories in central Italy that were known as the Papal States. Other church officials, such as bishops and abbots, also had political ties. When a person became a church official, he was given a ring and staff. These objects symbolized the spiritual authority that the official was granted, or *invested* with, by the Church. Secular (lay) rulers usually chose the nominees to church offices and also gave them the symbols of their office. This practice was known as **lay investiture**. Bishops and abbots were often chosen by the lay rulers for political reasons. Church officials became involved in political matters, often at the expense of their spiritual duties.

Gregory VII was elected pope in 1073. He realized the need to be free from secular involvement in the appointment of church officials. He decided to reform the Church. He claimed that his authority extended over all the Christian world, including its rulers. He also claimed that the Church had the right to appoint clergy and run its own affairs. If rulers did not accept this, the pope would remove them. These claims brought Pope Gregory into conflict with Henry IV, the king of Germany. German kings appointed high-ranking clergy as their vassals so that they could use them as administrators. Eliminating lay investiture threatened the king's ability to administer his kingdom.

In 1075, Pope Gregory issued a decree forbidding high-ranking clergy from receiving their investiture from lay leaders. Henry IV had no intention of obeying this decree. The struggle between Henry IV and Gregory VII is known as the Investiture Controversy. The struggle continued until there was a new king and a new pope. They reached an agreement in 1122 called the Concordat of Worms. Under this agreement, Church officials elected a bishop in Germany, but the new bishop paid homage to the king as his lord. The king then invested him with the symbols of a temporal (worldly) office. A representative of the pope invested the bishop with the symbols of his spiritual office.

During the papacy of Pope Innocent III in the thirteenth century, the Catholic Church reached the height of its political power. Innocent III forced the King of France, Philip Augustus, to take back his wife after Philip had tried to have his marriage annulled. The pope also forced King John of England to accept the pope's choice for the archbishop of Canterbury. Pope Innocent was able to force the kings to do what he wanted by using interdicts. An **interdict** forbids priests from giving the **sacraments** (Christian rites) to a particular group of people. The sacraments included baptism, marriage, and the Eucharist (Communion). When people were denied the sacraments, they put pressure on their rulers to do what the pope wanted.

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Chapter 10, Section 2 (continued)

7. How were popes able to force rulers to do what they wanted?

• New Religious Orders (page 325)

In the second half of the eleventh century and the first half of the twelfth century, more and more men and women joined religious orders. One of the most important new orders of the early Middle Ages was the Cistercian order. It was founded in 1098 by a group of Benedictine monks who were unhappy with the lack of discipline at their own monastery. The Cistercians were strict. They ate a simple diet and each had only one robe. They spent less time at religious services and more time in prayer and manual labor. While Benedictine monks spent most of their time inside the monastery, the Cistercians took their religion to the people outside the monastery.

The number of women who joined convents grew dramatically during this time. In the High Middle Ages, most nuns were from aristocratic families. Convents were convenient for families who were unable or unwilling to find husbands for their daughters. Widows and women who did not wish to marry also joined convents. Most of the learned women of the Middle Ages were nuns. One famous example is Hildegard of Bingen. She became the abbess of a convent in western Germany. She was also one of the first important women composers. She made important contributions to the body of music known as the Gregorian chant.

In the thirteenth century, two new religious orders emerged. These orders had a strong impact on the lives of ordinary people. They were the Franciscans and the Dominicans. Saint Francis of Assisi founded the Franciscans. Although he was born to a wealthy Italian family, Saint Francis gave up his riches. His followers took vows of poverty and agreed to live by working and begging for their food. The Franciscans lived among the people, preaching repentance and simplicity and helping the poor. The Franciscans were also missionaries. They traveled throughout Italy and then to all parts of Europe and even to the Muslim world.

A Spanish priest, Dominic de Guzmán, founded the Dominican order. Dominic wanted to defend Church teachings from heresy. **Heresy** is the denial of basic Church doctrines. The Church's desire to deal with heretics (people who believed in heresies) led to the creation of a court called the **Inquisition**. The job of this court was to find and try heretics. The Dominicans were often the examiners of people suspected of heresy. If an accused heretic confessed, he or she was forced to repent publicly and then was physically punished, often by flogging. Beginning in 1252, people who did not confess were tor-

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Chapter 10, Section 2 (continued)

tured until they did confess. Many did not confess but were still considered guilty and were executed. The Christians of this time thought that heresy was a crime against God. They thought that using force to save souls from damnation was the right thing to do.

8. How did the Church deal with heretics during the Middle Ages?

• Popular Religion in the High Middle Ages (page 327)

The sacraments made the Church a crucial part of people's lives during the Middle Ages. The sacraments were seen as the means for receiving God's grace and were considered necessary for salvation. Only the clergy could administer the sacraments, so everyone who hoped to gain salvation depended on the clergy to help them. The veneration of saints was also important during the Middle Ages. Saints were men and women who were considered especially holy. It was believed that they had achieved a special position in heaven that allowed them to ask for favors from God for people who prayed to them. The Virgin Mary, mother of Jesus, was the most highly regarded of all the saints. A sign of Mary's importance is the number of churches all over Europe that were dedicated to her in the twelfth and thirteenth centuries. In France, these churches were named *Notre Dame* ("Our Lady"). **Relics** of the saints were often worshipped. Relics were usually bones of saints or objects connected with saints that were considered worthy of worship because they linked the earthly world and God. It was believed that relics could heal people or produce other miracles. Medieval Christians also believed that pilgrimages to holy shrines had spiritual benefits. The greatest shrine, but the most difficult to reach, was the Holy City of Jerusalem. Shrines dedicated to the Virgin Mary also became pilgrimage centers.

9. Why was the clergy so important in the lives of medieval people?

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Chapter 10, Section 3

For use with textbook pages 329–333

THE CULTURE OF THE HIGH MIDDLE AGES

KEY TERMS

theology the study of religion and God (page 330)

scholasticism a philosophical and theological system that tried to reconcile faith and reason (page 330)

vernacular the language of everyday speech in a particular region (page 331)

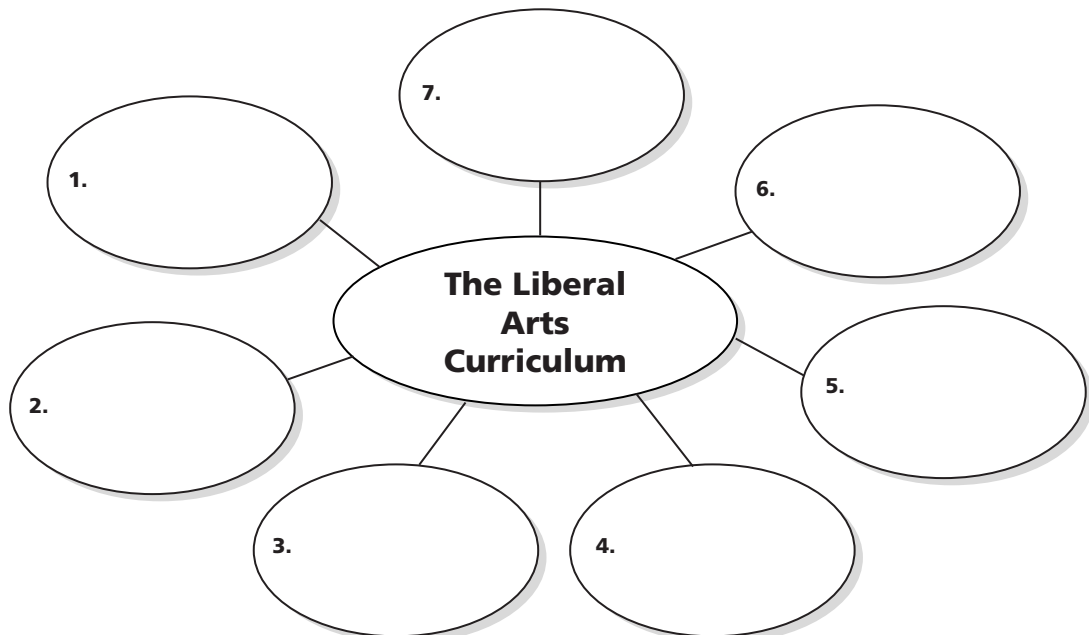
DRAWING FROM EXPERIENCE

Have you ever visited a university? Why do people attend universities? Do you plan to attend a university?

In the last section, you learned about the role of the Church in medieval life. In this section, you will learn about the role of universities and the development of literature and architecture during this period.

ORGANIZING YOUR THOUGHTS

Use the concept web below to help you take notes. Students at medieval universities began their studies with the traditional liberal arts curriculum. List the seven subjects that were studied in that curriculum.



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Chapter 10, Section 3 (continued)

READ TO LEARN

- **The Rise of Universities** (page 329)

The university as we know it today was a product of the Middle Ages. The word *university* comes from the Latin word *universitas*, which means “corporation” or “guild.” Like other guilds, universities had a product. They “produced” educated and trained people. The first European university was started in Bologna, Italy. The first university in northern Europe was the University of Paris. In the second half of the twelfth century, several students and teachers left Paris and started their own university at Oxford in England. By 1500, there were 80 universities in Europe.

Students began their studies at a medieval university with the traditional liberal arts curriculum (course of study). This curriculum consisted of grammar, rhetoric, logic, arithmetic, geometry, music, and astronomy. Teaching at medieval universities was done by a lecture method. Few students could afford books, so teachers read from a basic text and then added their own explanations. (The word *lecture* is derived from Latin and means “to read.”) No exams were given until a student applied for a degree. At that time, a committee of teachers gave the student an oral examination. The first degree a student could earn was a bachelor of arts. Later, he might earn a master of arts. After completing the liberal arts curriculum, a student could go on to study law, medicine, or theology. **Theology** is the study of religion and God, and it was the most highly regarded subject at medieval universities. A student who passed his oral examinations in one of these areas was granted a doctor’s degree. Those who earned doctor’s degrees were able to teach, but they also pursued other careers. Universities provided the teachers, administrators, lawyers, and doctors for medieval society.

8. What was the most highly regarded subject at medieval universities?

- **The Development of Scholasticism** (page 330)

The study of theology was strongly influenced by scholasticism. **Scholasticism** was a philosophical and theological system that tried to reconcile faith and reason. It tried to show that what was accepted on faith was in harmony with what could be learned through reason and experience. In the twelfth century, western Europe was introduced to the works of Aristotle, and these works upset many Christian theologians. Aristotle had arrived at his conclusions by reason, not by faith, and some of his ideas contradicted the teachings of the Church. In the thirteenth century, Saint Thomas Aquinas

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Chapter 10, Section 3 (continued)

attempted to reconcile Aristotle with Christian doctrines. Thomas Aquinas is best known for his *Summa Theologica*. He tried to reconcile the Bible and other Christian writings with the knowledge learned through reason and experience. He believed that some truths were learned by reason and other truths were learned by faith and that they did not contradict each other.

9. What is scholasticism?

- **Vernacular Literature** (page 331)

Latin was the universal language of medieval civilization. It was used in the Church and in schools and allowed educated people to communicate anywhere in Europe. However, by the twelfth century, many works of literature were being written in the **vernacular**—the language of everyday speech in a particular region, such as Spanish, French, English, or German. One of the most popular forms of vernacular literature in the twelfth century was troubadour poetry. This poetry told of the love of a knight for a lady. Another type of vernacular literature was the *chanson de geste*, or heroic epic. The earliest and greatest example is the *Song of Roland*. It appeared around 1100 and was written in French. The chief events in heroic epic poems are battles and political contests.

10. What is vernacular literature?

- **Architecture** (page 333)

During the eleventh and twelfth centuries, there was an explosion of building in Europe, especially the building of churches. The cathedrals of the eleventh and twelfth centuries were built in the Romanesque style. The Romanesque churches had a basilica shape like the churches in the late Roman Empire. Basilicas were rectangular buildings with flat wood roofs. Romanesque builders replaced the flat roof with a stone arched structure, called a barrel vault. Stone roofs were very heavy, so Romanesque churches needed massive pillars and walls to hold them up. There was little space for windows, so Romanesque churches were very dark.

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Chapter 10, Section 3 *(continued)*

A new style, called Gothic, appeared in the twelfth century. The Gothic cathedral was one of the greatest artistic accomplishments of the High Middle Ages. In Gothic cathedrals, the barrel vault was replaced with a combination of ribbed vaults and pointed arches. This made Gothic churches higher than Romanesque churches and created an impression of upward movement. The buildings looked as if they were reaching to God. Gothic cathedrals also used flying buttresses. A flying buttress is a heavy, arched support built onto the outside of the walls. Flying buttresses made it possible to distribute the weight of the vaulted ceilings outward and down. Heavy walls were no longer needed for support, so the walls could be filled with stained glass windows. These windows depicted religious scenes and scenes from daily life.

11. How were Gothic cathedrals different from Romanesque cathedrals?

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Chapter 10, Section 4

For use with textbook pages 335–340

THE LATE MIDDLE AGES

KEY TERMS

Black Death a plague that killed nearly half of the population in Europe between 1347 and 1351 (page 335)

anti-Semitism hostility toward Jews (page 336)

Great Schism the period from 1378 to 1417 when there were two popes, one in Rome and one in Avignon (page 337)

new monarchies monarchies, such as France, England, and Spain, that reestablished centralized power in the late fifteenth century (page 339)

taille an annual direct tax, usually on land or property (page 339)

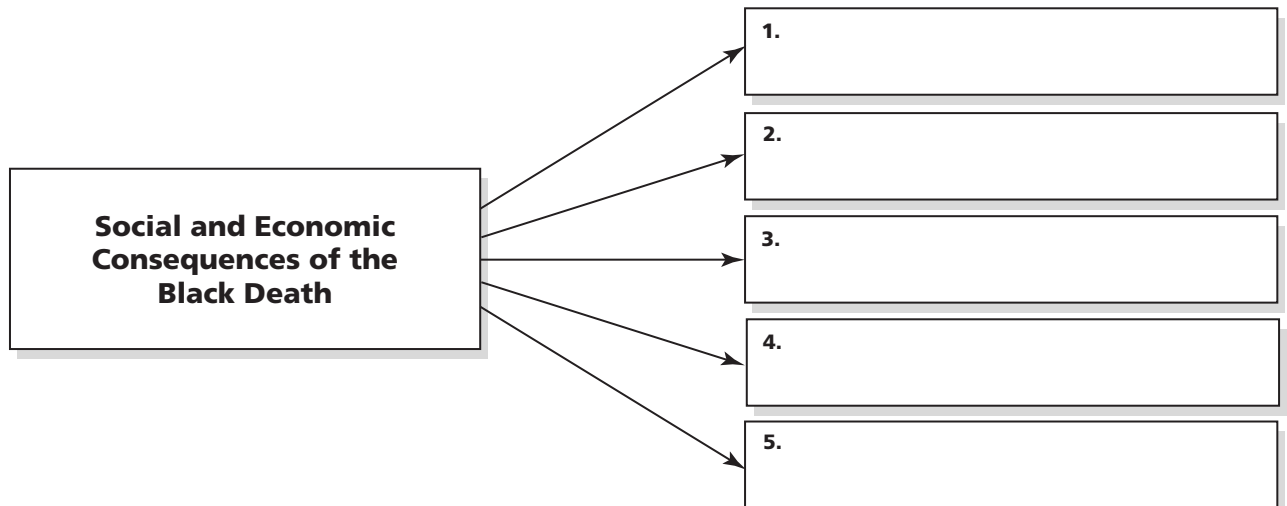
DRAWING FROM EXPERIENCE

Have you heard of a person known as Joan of Arc? Why is she so famous?

In the last section, you learned about the culture of the High Middle Ages. In this section, you will learn about some disastrous changes that took place in the late Middle Ages.

ORGANIZING YOUR THOUGHTS

Use the diagram below to help you take notes. The Black Death killed nearly half of the European population in the late Middle Ages. In the diagram below, list five other consequences of the plague.



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Chapter 10, Section 4 (continued)

READ TO LEARN

- **The Black Death** (page 335)

The Middle Ages in Europe reached a high point in the thirteenth century. In the fourteenth century, some disastrous changes took place. The most catastrophic event was the Black Death. It was the worst natural disaster in European history. Bubonic plague was the most common form of the Black Death. Black rats infested with fleas carrying a bacterium spread it. People at the time did not know this, however. Italian merchants brought the plague with them from Caffa, on the Black Sea, to Sicily in 1347. It spread northward along the trade routes. By 1351, it had spread through Italy, Spain, France, the Low Countries, Germany, England, Scandinavia, Eastern Europe, and Russia. Out of a total European population of 75 million, as many as 38 million people died of the plague between 1347 and 1351.

Because people did not know what caused the plague, they believed that God either sent it as a punishment for their sins or that it was caused by the devil. In some towns, Jews were accused of causing the plague by poisoning town wells. This led to an outbreak of **anti-Semitism** (hostility toward Jews). The worst attacks on Jews took place in Germany. Many Jews fled eastward, especially to Poland, during this time. The death of so many people also had severe economic consequences. Trade declined, and some industries were severely affected. A shortage of workers caused the price of labor to rise. Because there were fewer people, the demand for food declined. This resulted in lower food prices. Landlords were now paying more for labor, while their incomes were declining. Some peasants bargained with their lords to pay rents instead of owing services. This change freed them from serfdom.

6. How did medieval people explain the Black Death?

- **The Decline of Church Power** (page 337)

In the fourteenth century, a series of problems led to a decline in the Church's power. King Philip IV of France claimed that he had a right to tax the clergy of France. However, the pope at the time, Boniface VIII, said that the clergy could not pay taxes to their ruler without the pope's consent. Boniface claimed that popes were supreme over both the Church and the state. Philip IV refused to accept the pope's claims. He sent French forces to Italy to bring Boniface to France for trial. The pope escaped but died soon afterward. Philip IV rigged the election of the next pope, so that a Frenchman was elected. This pope, Clement V, was elected in 1305 and took up residence in Avignon, in southern France. From 1305 to 1377, the popes lived in

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Chapter 10, Section 4 (continued)

Avignon. But the popes were criticized for living in Avignon, rather than Rome. They were also criticized because of the splendor in which they lived.

Pope Gregory XI returned to Rome in 1377, but he died soon after his return. When the college of cardinals met to elect a new pope, the citizens of Rome said that they would kill the cardinals if they did not elect an Italian. The cardinals elected Pope Urban VI, an Italian. Five months later, a group of French cardinals declared the election invalid and chose a Frenchman as pope. This pope returned to Avignon. There were now two popes, one in Rome and one in Avignon. The **Great Schism**, as this was called, lasted from 1378 to 1417. It divided Europe. France and its allies supported the pope in Avignon. England and its allies supported the pope in Rome. The Great Schism also damaged the Catholic Church. When each line of popes said the other was the Antichrist (one who opposes Christ), people's faith in the papacy and the Church were damaged. A church council finally met at Constance, Switzerland, and ended the schism in 1417. A new pope who was acceptable to both sides was elected.

The problems in the Catholic Church led to cries for reform. A group of Czech reformers led by John Hus called for an end to the corruption of the clergy and the excessive power of the papacy. Hus was accused of heresy and burned at the stake in 1415. This angered the Czechs and led to a revolution in Bohemia. By the early 1400s, the papacy and the Catholic Church had lost much of their political power and spiritual authority.

7. How did the Great Schism damage the Catholic Church's spiritual authority?

• **The Hundred Years' War** (page 337)

In the thirteenth century, England still held one small territory in France, known as the duchy of Gascony. The English king was also the duke of Gascony. When King Philip VI of France seized Gascony in 1337, King Edward III of England declared war on Philip. This began the Hundred Years' War between France and England. It was a turning point in warfare. Peasant foot soldiers, not knights, won the chief battles of the Hundred Years' War. The English foot soldiers were armed with longbows and arrows, as well as spears. The first major battle took place in 1346 at Crécy. The arrows of the English soldiers devastated the French cavalry. At the Battle of Agincourt in 1415, the French were again defeated. The English now had control of northern France.

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Chapter 10, Section 4 (continued)

The French cause seemed hopeless, until a French peasant woman decided to free France. Joan of Arc was born in 1412. She was a deeply religious person who experienced visions. In February 1429, she made her way to the court of Charles, the heir to the French throne. She persuaded him to allow her to accompany a French army to Orléans. The French soldiers found a new confidence in themselves and captured Orléans. Joan of Arc herself was captured in 1430 and turned over to the English. She was tried as a witch, because her visions were thought to be inspired by the devil. She was condemned to death and burnt at the stake. Joan of Arc's achievements were important, however. The French defeated the English in Normandy and Aquitaine and the war ended in 1453.

8. How did Joan of Arc affect the outcome of the Hundred Years' War?

• Political Recovery (page 339)

In the fourteenth century, European rulers faced serious problems. Many dynasties in Europe were unable to produce male heirs. Rulers often had to fight for their positions. They also had financial problems. In the fifteenth century, however, some rulers began to reestablish the centralized power of their monarchies. Some historians call these reestablished monarchies the **new monarchies**. The term applies especially to France, England, and Spain at the end of the fifteenth century.

The Hundred Years' War left France exhausted, but it also developed a strong national spirit. The kings used this spirit to reestablish royal power. King Louis XI, in particular, helped to develop a strong French state. He ruled from 1461 to 1483. He strengthened the use of the **taille**. The *taille* is an annual direct tax, usually on land or property. This tax gave Louis a regular source of income, which helped him to create a strong French monarchy.

The Hundred Years' War also affected the English. The cost of the war and the losses in manpower strained the economy. After the war, groups of nobles fought to control the monarchy. These conflicts are known as the War of the Roses. They ended in 1485, when Henry VII abolished the nobles' private armies. Henry VII was the first Tudor king. He gained the support of the nobles and the middle class by not overburdening them with taxes.

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Chapter 10, Section 4 (continued)

In Spain, Muslims had conquered much of the country by 725. During the Middle Ages, Christian rulers in Spain had fought to regain their lands from the Muslims. Several independent Christian kingdoms had emerged. Two of the strongest kingdoms were Aragon and Castile. When Isabella of Castile married Ferdinand of Aragon in 1469, it was a major step toward unifying Spain. Ferdinand and Isabella were also strict Catholics. In 1492, they expelled all Jews from Spain. In 1502, Isabella expelled all Muslims from her kingdom. Ferdinand and Isabella created religious uniformity in Spain. Being Spanish was the same as being Catholic.

The Holy Roman Empire did not develop a strong monarchy. Germany was made up of many states. Almost all of them acted independently of the emperor. After 1438, the position of Holy Roman emperor was held by the Hapsburg dynasty. The house of Hapsburg was one of the wealthiest landholders in the empire. By the mid-fifteenth century, the Hapsburg rulers began to play an important role in European affairs.

In eastern Europe, rulers also found it difficult to centralize their states. Religious differences were part of the problem. In Poland, the nobles established the right to elect their kings. This policy severely weakened the king's authority. In Russia, the Mongols had been in control since the thirteenth century. The princes of Moscow used their close relationship to the Mongol khans to increase their wealth and power. During the reign of the great prince Ivan III, a new Russian state was created. By 1480, the Mongols no longer controlled Russia.

9. Which European countries established strong centralized monarchies during the late Middle Ages?

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Chapter 11, Section 1

For use with textbook pages 347–350

THE PEOPLES OF NORTH AMERICA

KEY TERMS

longhouse an Iroquois house, built of wooden poles and covered with sheets of bark, that could house about a dozen families (page 348)

clan a group of related families (page 349)

tepee a circular tent made by stretching buffalo skins over wooden poles (page 349)

adobe sun-dried brick used to build pueblos (page 350)

pueblo a multi-storied structure built by the Anasazi that could house many people (page 350)

DRAWING FROM EXPERIENCE

Have you ever wondered about the earliest Americans? How did they get their food and shelter? What did their towns and cities look like?

In this section, you will learn how and why the first people came to the Americas. You will also learn about the cultures of the early peoples of North America.

ORGANIZING YOUR THOUGHTS

Use the chart below to help you take notes. Identify where the following Native Americans lived, how they got their food, and what shelters and other structures they built.

| Native American Group | Location | Food | Buildings |
|---|----------|------|-----------|
| The Inuit | 1. | 2. | 3. |
| The Hopewell People (The Mound Builders) | 4. | 5. | 6. |
| The Iroquois | 7. | 8. | 9. |
| The Peoples of the Great Plains | 10. | 11. | 12. |
| The Anasazi | 13. | 14. | 15. |

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Chapter 11, Section 1 (continued)

READ TO LEARN

- **The Lands of the Americas** (page 347)

The Americas cover an enormous land area, from the Arctic Ocean in the north to Cape Horn at the tip of South America. Over this huge area, there are many different landscapes: ice-covered lands, dense forests, fertile river valleys, coastlines, tropical forests, and hot deserts. On the western side of the Americas, there are two major mountain ranges, the Rocky Mountains in North America and the Andes in South America. There are lower mountain ranges along the eastern coasts. Between the mountain ranges there are valleys with rich farmland. Great rivers run through the valleys. The two largest are the Mississippi in North America and the Amazon in South America.

- 16.** What are the two major mountain ranges in the Americas?

- **The First Americans** (page 348)

No one knows for sure when the first human beings began to live in the Americas. Scholars do know that between 100,000 and 8,000 years ago, the last Ice Age produced low sea levels. The low sea levels created a land bridge in the Bering Strait between Asia and North America. Historians believe that small groups of people from Asia crossed the Bering Strait into North America. They were probably hunters who were following herds of bison and caribou. These people became the first Americans.

- 17.** How did the first Americans cross from Asia into North America?

- **The Peoples of North America** (page 348)

About 4000 B.C., a group of people called the Inuit moved into North America. They settled along the coasts of the tundra region. The tundra region is the treeless area south of the Arctic. They had to learn ways to survive in such a cold environment. They hunted seal, caribou, and fish, which they used for both food and clothing. They built homes of stone and turf. The traditional igloo was only a temporary shelter used during traveling.

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Chapter 11, Section 1 (continued)

Around 1000 B.C., farming villages developed in the Eastern Woodlands. This is the land in eastern North America from the Great Lakes to the Gulf of Mexico. People in the Eastern Woodlands grew crops, but they also continued to gather wild plants for food. The best known of the Eastern Woodlands peoples are the Hopewell people. They are also known as the Mound Builders. They lived in the Ohio River valley and eventually extended their culture along the Mississippi River. They built earth mounds that were used as tombs or for ceremonies. Around A.D. 700, there was a shift to full-time farming in the Mississippi River valley. The most common crops were corn, squash, and beans. Cities began to appear in this area. Between A.D. 850 and A.D. 1150, a city called Cahokia was the seat of government for much of the Mississippian culture. Near the site of Cahokia, archaeologists have found a burial mound over 98 feet high.

To the northeast of the Mississippian culture, there were peoples known as the Iroquois. The area where they lived included present-day Pennsylvania, New York, and southern Canada. The Iroquois lived in villages that consisted of longhouses. **Longhouses** were built of wooden poles covered with sheets of bark and were about 150 to 200 feet long. They could house about a dozen families. Women owned the houses, gathered wild plants, and farmed the land. They also cooked, made baskets, and took care of the children. The most important crops were corn, beans, and squash.

Iroquois men hunted deer, bear, caribou, rabbits, and beaver. They were also warriors. War was common among the Iroquois. Iroquois legend says that Deganawida, an elder of one of the Iroquois groups, and Hiawatha, a member of the Onondaga group, worked to create the Great Peace. Five groups formed an alliance called the Iroquois League. A council of representatives met regularly to settle differences within the league. This council was known as the Grand Council. The representatives were men, but the women chose them. Each Iroquois group was made up of **clans** (groups of related families). The women of each clan chose a woman to be the clan mother. It was the clan mothers' responsibility to choose the members of the Grand Council. Benjamin Franklin later used the Iroquois League as a democratic model for a Plan of Union for the British colonies.

To the west of the Mississippi were people known as the Plains Indians. They lived in the river valleys of the eastern Great Plains. They grew beans, corn, and squash. In the summer, the men hunted buffalo. The buffalo had many uses. The people ate the meat, used the skins for clothing, and made tools from the bones. They made circular tents by stretching buffalo skins over wooden poles. These tents are called **tepees**.

In the Southwest, the Anasazi civilization developed. The Southwest includes the present-day states of New Mexico, Arizona, Utah, and Colorado. This area is dry, but there is enough rain in some areas for farming. Between A.D. 500 and 1200, the Anasazi used canals and dams to turn parts of the

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Chapter 11, Section 1 *(continued)*

desert into fertile gardens. They also made baskets and pottery. They used stone and **adobe** (sun-dried brick) to build pueblos. **Pueblos** were multi-storied structures that could house many people. The Anasazi built large communities at Chaco Canyon in northwestern New Mexico and at Mesa Verde in southern Colorado. Droughts eventually caused them to abandon both communities, however.

18. How did the Iroquois contribute to the development of democracy?

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Chapter 11, Section 2

For use with textbook pages 352–358

EARLY CIVILIZATIONS IN MESOAMERICA

KEY TERMS

Mesoamerica the name for areas of Mexico and Central America that were civilized before the Spaniards arrived (page 352)

hieroglyph a picture used in a writing system (page 354)

tribute goods or money paid by conquered people to their conquerors (page 356)

DRAWING FROM EXPERIENCE

Have you ever visited an archaeological dig or the ruins of an ancient city? Do you think you would be interested in being an archeologist? Why or why not?

In the last section, you learned about the early civilizations of North America. In this section, you will learn about the early civilizations of Mesoamerica.

ORGANIZING YOUR THOUGHTS

Use the chart below to help you take notes. Identify where and when the following peoples lived, and summarize their main achievements.

| People | Location | Time Period | Achievements |
|--------|----------|-------------|--------------|
| Olmec | 1. | 2. | 3. |
| Maya | 4. | 5. | 6. |
| Toltec | 7. | 8. | 9. |
| Aztec | 10. | 11. | 12. |

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Chapter 11, Section 2 (continued)

READ TO LEARN

- **The Olmec and Teotihuacán** (page 352)

The Olmec civilization appeared in Mesoamerica around 1200 B.C.

Mesoamerica is the name for areas of Mexico and Central America that were civilized before the Spaniards arrived. The Olmec peoples lived in the hot and swampy lowlands along the coast of the Gulf of Mexico. They were farmers. They had large cities that were centers for their religious rituals. One of these cities, La Venta, had a large pyramid. The Olmec carved huge stone heads, probably to represent their gods. Around 400 B.C., the Olmec civilization declined and eventually collapsed.

The first major city in Mesoamerica was Teotihuacán. Its name means “Place of the Gods.” This city was the capital of an early kingdom that existed from around 250 B.C. until about A.D. 800. It was located near what is now Mexico City. Along its main street, there were temples and palaces. There was also a huge pyramid, the Pyramid of the Sun, which was over 200 feet high.

13. What was the first major city in Mesoamerica, and what does its name mean?

- **The Maya and Toltec** (page 353)

On the Yucatán Peninsula, the civilization of the Maya flourished between A.D. 300 and 900. This civilization was one of the most sophisticated in the Americas. It eventually included much of Central America and southern Mexico. Mayan cities were built around a pyramid topped with a shrine to the gods. Other temples and palaces were built nearby. Some of these cities had a hundred thousand people. Mayan civilization was made up of city-states. These city-states were often at war with each other. Captured soldiers became slaves or were used as human sacrifices. The Maya practiced human sacrifice as a way to appease the gods. They also used human sacrifices to celebrate special occasions.

A hereditary ruling class governed each Mayan city-state. Mayan rulers claimed to be descended from the gods. Nobles and a class of scribes, who may also have been priests, assisted them. Mayan society also included artisans, merchants, and officials. Most of the Mayan people were peasant farmers. Men did the hunting and fighting, and women took care of the homes and raised the children. Women also made cornmeal, the basic food of many Mayans.

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Chapter 11, Section 2 (continued)

The Maya also created a sophisticated writing system based on **hieroglyphs** (pictures.). Many of the hieroglyphs recorded important events in Mayan history. The Spanish conquerors of the sixteenth century did not respect the Maya's writings. They thought the writings were evil and burned the Maya's books. The Spaniards also destroyed religious objects and, sometimes, entire cities.

The Maya developed a complicated calendar known as the Long Count. They used two different systems for measuring time. One was based on a solar calendar of 365 days. The other was based on a sacred calendar of 260 days. Only priests could read and use this calendar. They used it to foretell the future.

The Toltec controlled the upper Yucatán Peninsula for several centuries, beginning around A.D. 900. The Toltec were warriors, but they were also builders. They constructed pyramids and palaces. The center of the Toltec Empire was at Tula, which was northwest of present-day Mexico City. They extended their control into the Mayan lands of Guatemala and the northern Yucatán. In about 1200, their civilization also declined.

14. Describe the two Mayan systems for measuring time.

• **The Aztec** (page 356)

No one knows for sure where the Aztec came from. Sometime during the twelfth century A.D., they began to migrate to the Valley of Mexico. They set up their capital at Tenochtitlán, on an island in the middle of Lake Texcoco. This is the location of present-day Mexico City.

The Aztec built pyramids, temples, public buildings, and houses. They also built many roads. The Aztec were outstanding warriors. They eventually conquered much of what is now central Mexico. Their kingdom was not a centralized state. It was made up of territories ruled by local lords. The Aztec ruler supported these lords in return for tribute. **Tribute** is money or goods paid by conquered peoples to their conquerors. The Aztec ruler claimed that he was descended from the gods. A council of lords and government officials assisted him. The rest of the population was made up of commoners, indentured workers, and slaves. Indentured workers were people who did not own land but contracted to work on the nobles' estates. The slaves were people captured in war. Most people were commoners, and most commoners were farmers or merchants.

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Chapter 11, Section 2 (continued)

Women in Aztec society were not equal to men but were allowed to own and inherit property. They could also enter into contracts. Women were expected to work in the home, weave textiles, and raise children. They could also become priestesses.

The Aztec believed in many gods. Huitzilopochtli was the most important god. He was the god of the sun and of war. The Aztec religion was based on a belief in a struggle between the forces of good and evil. The Aztec believed that earthquakes would eventually destroy the world. The Aztec practiced human sacrifice. They believed that by appeasing the god Huitzilopochtli they could delay the destruction of the world. At the top of Aztec pyramids were shrines to the gods and altars for performing human sacrifices.

In 1519, a Spanish army under the command of Hernán Cortés landed at Veracruz, on the Gulf of Mexico. Cortés marched to Tenochtitlán. As he went, he made alliances with city-states that were tired of the Aztec rule. When Cortés arrived at Tenochtitlán, the Aztec ruler Montezuma, who believed that Cortés was a representative of the god Quetzalcoatl, welcomed him. Eventually, tensions arose between the Spaniards and the Aztec. In 1520, the local people revolted and drove the Spaniards from the city. However, many of the Aztec were soon infected by diseases brought by the Spaniards. In the meantime, Cortés received fresh soldiers and attacked the city. After four months, the city surrendered. The Spaniards then destroyed the city. They used the stones from the pyramids, temples, and palaces to build government buildings and churches.

15. How was the city of Tenochtitlán destroyed?

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Chapter 11, Section 3

For use with textbook pages 359–362

EARLY CIVILIZATIONS IN SOUTH AMERICA

KEY TERMS

maize corn (page 360)

quipu a system of knotted strings used by the Inca to keep records (page 362)

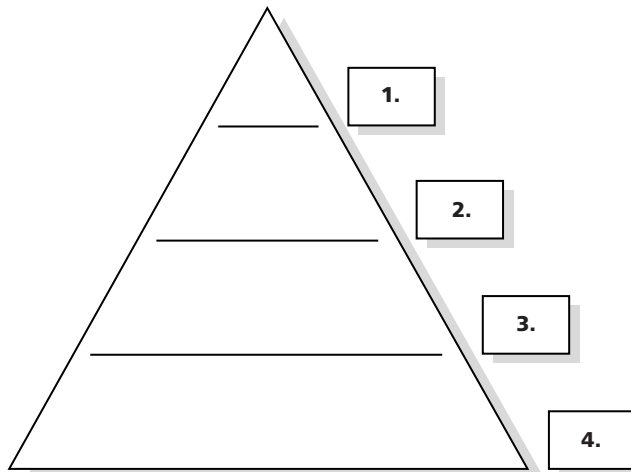
DRAWING FROM EXPERIENCE

What would your life be like if you did not have a system of writing? How would you be able to communicate? How would you be able to obtain information?

In the last two sections, you learned about the early civilizations of North America and Mesoamerica. In this section, you will learn about the early civilizations in South America. These civilizations did not develop writing systems, but they were able to keep records in other ways.

ORGANIZING YOUR THOUGHTS

Use the pyramid diagram below to help you take notes. Show the hierarchy of the Incan political structure.



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Chapter 11, Section 3 (continued)

READ TO LEARN

- **Early Civilizations** (page 359)

The city of Caral was the oldest major city in the Americas. It was located in the Supe River valley of Peru. It contained buildings for officials, apartment buildings, and large homes, all built of stone. The people of Caral developed a system of irrigation by diverting a river into their fields. Caral was abandoned between 2000 and 1500 B.C.

Sometime about 200 B.C., another civilization appeared near the Pacific coast, south of the border of present-day Ecuador. Moche was the capital of this state. It was located in the valley of the Moche River. The Moche River irrigated the fields in this area. Farmers in the area grew **maize** (corn), peanuts, potatoes, and cotton. The power of the Moche rulers extended far along the coast. The people of Moche had no written language, but their pottery tells us about them. It shows that they led lives centered around warfare. Paintings and pottery show warriors, prisoners, and human sacrifices. The Moche civilization ended around A.D. 700.

5. What was the oldest major city in the Americas and where was it located?

- **The Inca** (page 360)

About three hundred years after the end of the Moche civilization, a new power arose. This power, the kingdom of Chimor, controlled the area for about four centuries. The Inca finally destroyed it. In the late 1300s, the Inca were only a small community in the area of Cuzco. Cuzco was a city located high in the mountains of southern Peru. In the 1440s, under the leadership of the ruler Pachacuti, the Inca began to conquer the entire region. Pachacuti created a centralized state. He and his successors, Topa Inca and Huayna Inca, extended the boundaries of the Incan Empire as far as Ecuador, central Chile, and the edge of the Amazon basin. Once an area came under Incan control, the local people were taught the Quechua language. A noble was sent out to govern the new region. Local leaders could keep their posts as long as they were loyal to the Inca ruler. Pachacuti divided the empire into four quarters, each ruled by a governor. The quarters were divided into provinces, also ruled by governors. Each province was supposed to contain about ten thousand people. At the top of the system was the emperor. The people believed that he was descended from the sun god, Inti.

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Chapter 11, Section 3 (continued)

All young men had to serve in the Incan army. The army had two hundred thousand soldiers. Supplies were carried on llamas, because the Inca did not use the wheel. The Inca were great builders. All Incan subjects had to perform labor service, usually for several weeks each year. Laborers were moved from one part of the country to another to take part in building projects. Incan buildings and monuments were built of close-fitting stones with no mortar. This helped them to withstand the earthquakes in the area. The Inca also built roads. Their system of roads was a total of 24,800 miles long. Rest houses and storage depots were placed along the roads. Bridges of various types were built over ravines and waterways.

Incan society was very regimented. Men and women had to select a marriage partner from within their own social groups. Women were expected to care for the children and to weave cloth. Some young girls became priestesses in temples. In rural areas, most of the people were farmers. In the mountains, they used terraced farms, watered by irrigation systems. They planted corn, potatoes, and other crops. The houses of the farmers were built of stone or adobe with thatched roofs.

The Inca did not have a writing system, but they kept records using a system of knotted strings called the **quipu**. Even without a writing system, the Inca had many cultural achievements. They had a tradition of court theater, with both tragic and comic works. Poetry was also recited. It was often accompanied by music played on reed instruments.

The Incan Empire was still flourishing when the first Spanish expeditions arrived. In 1531, Francisco Pizarro landed on the Pacific coast of South America. The Incan Empire experienced an epidemic of smallpox. Like the Aztec, the Inca had no immunities to European diseases. Smallpox killed entire villages. Even the Incan emperor was a victim. When the emperor died, each of his two sons claimed the throne for himself. This led to civil war. One of the sons, Atahuallpa, defeated his brother's army. Pizarro then captured and killed Atahuallpa. Pizarro and his soldiers marched on Cuzco and captured the city. By 1535, Pizarro had set up a new capital at Lima for a new colony of the Spanish Empire.

6. How did the Inca keep records without a writing system?

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Chapter 12, Section 1

For use with textbook pages 375–381

THE RENAISSANCE

KEY TERMS

urban society a society in which many of the people in cities (page 375)

secular worldly, rather than religious (page 375)

mercenary a soldier who sells his services to the highest bidder (page 377)

dowry in Renaissance Italy, a sum of money given by a wife's family to her husband upon marriage (page 381)

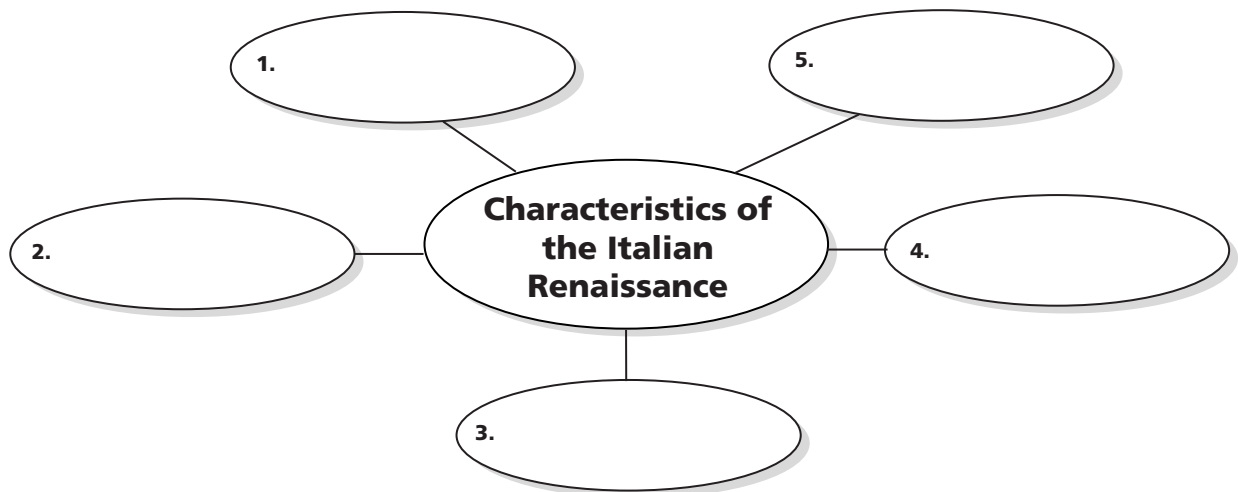
DRAWING FROM EXPERIENCE

What does being an individual mean to you? In what ways can a person foster his or her individuality?

In this section, you will learn about the beginnings of the Renaissance in Italy. During the Renaissance, a new view of human beings emerged that emphasized individual ability.

ORGANIZING YOUR THOUGHTS

Use the concept web below to help you take notes. Name five characteristics of the Italian Renaissance.



Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 12, Section 1 (continued)

READ TO LEARN

- **The Italian Renaissance** (page 375)

The word *renaissance* means rebirth. Many people who lived in Italy between 1350 and 1550 believed that they were seeing a rebirth of the ancient Greek and Roman worlds. Historians call this period the Renaissance, or Italian Renaissance. The Renaissance began in Italy and spread to the rest of Europe. The Italian Renaissance had several important characteristics. Renaissance Italy was largely an **urban society** (that is, many of the people lived in cities). During the Middle Ages, powerful city-states had become the centers of Italian political, economic, and social life. As wealth increased, a **secular** (worldly) viewpoint developed. People became more focused on enjoying material things. The Renaissance was also an age of recovery from the problems of the fourteenth century, such as the plague, political instability, and a decline in Church power. There was a rebirth of interest in ancient culture (the culture of ancient Greece and Rome). This revival influenced both politics and art. People in the Renaissance began to emphasize what individuals could achieve. They believed that human beings could accomplish anything. A well-rounded person who had achievements in many areas was the ideal. Leonardo da Vinci, for example, was a painter, sculptor, architect, inventor, and mathematician.

6. What does the word *renaissance* mean?

- **The Italian States** (page 376)

During the Middle Ages, Italy did not develop a centralized monarchy like other countries in Europe. Without a single strong ruler, many city-states in Italy were able to remain independent. The Italian city-states prospered because of trade with other parts of the world. Three of these city-states, Milan, Venice, and Florence, played important roles in Italian politics.

Milan was located in northern Italy at the crossroads of some of the main trade routes. In the fourteenth century, members of the Visconti family became the dukes of Milan. They eventually controlled all of Lombardy. The last Visconti ruler died in 1447. Francesco Sforza then conquered Milan and became its new duke. Sforza was the leader of a group of **mercenaries**

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Chapter 12, Section 1 (continued)

(soldiers who sold their services to the highest bidder). Both the Visconti and Sforza rulers helped to build a strong centralized state. They created a tax system that gave their governments a huge income.

Venice had developed a trade empire by trading with both Asia and Western Europe. Venice was officially a republic with an elected leader called a *Doge*. In reality, a small group of merchant-aristocrats ran the government of Venice and promoted their own interests.

Florence was located in the region of Tuscany. During the fourteenth century, a group of merchants controlled the government of Florence. They led the people of Florence in wars with their neighbors and made Florence a major city-state. In 1434, Cosimo de Medici took control of Florence. The Medici family was wealthy and controlled the government from behind the scenes. During this time, Florence was the cultural center of Italy. In the late 1400s, the economy of Florence, which was based on cloth making, began to decline. This was due mainly to competition from English and Flemish cloth makers. At the same time, a Dominican preacher named Girolamo Savonarola began to condemn the rich Medici family. Many people followed him, and the Medici family turned Florence over to him. Savonarola had regulations against gambling, horseracing, swearing, painting, music, and books. People eventually grew tired of these regulations. Savonarola also attacked the corruption of the church. In 1498, he was accused of heresy and sentenced to death. The Medici family then returned to power.

Attracted by the riches of Italy, the French king Charles VIII led an army into Italy in 1494. He occupied the kingdom of Naples in southern Italy. Northern Italian states asked the Spanish for help. The Spanish sent soldiers to Italy. For the next 30 years, the French and Spanish fought over Italy. In 1527, troops belonging to the Spanish king Charles I arrived in Rome. They had hired mercenaries from other countries. They attacked the city and destroyed many churches and palaces. They also looted much of the city and sold church officials as slaves. The sack of Rome ended the Italian wars. It also made Spain a dominant force in Italy.

7. What events started and ended the Italian wars?

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Chapter 12, Section 1 (continued)

• Machiavelli and the New Statecraft (page 378)

The Italians loved political power. Niccolò Machiavelli, an Italian, wrote a book about how to acquire and keep political power. This book, *The Prince*, is one of the most important works on political power that was ever written. Before Machiavelli, many writers had stressed that a prince's activities should be based on Christian principles. Machiavelli wrote that political decisions should not be restricted by moral principles. He believed that human beings were basically self-centered and that a prince should take this into account. According to Machiavelli, a prince acts on behalf of the state and must be willing to act against his conscience if necessary. His views had a great influence on future political leaders.

8. What was Machiavelli's view of human nature?

• Renaissance Society (page 379)

During the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries, nobles (aristocrats) had declining incomes, but they still kept their lands and titles. By 1500, they were only 2 to 3 percent of the population in most countries, but they held important political posts and were advisers to the kings. Nobles were expected to fulfill certain ideals. Baldassare Castiglione expressed these ideals in his work *The Book of the Courtier*. According to Castiglione, a noble was born, not made. He was expected to have character, grace, and talent. A noble also had to develop two basic skills. He had to perform military and physical exercises to prepare himself as a warrior. He was also expected to have a classical education and pursue the arts. The noble also needed to follow a standard of conduct that would enable him to serve his prince in an effective and honest way.

Peasants still made up 85 to 90 percent of the population in most of Europe, but serfdom was declining. By 1500, more and more peasants had become legally free and paid rent, rather than labor, to the lords. Townspeople were the rest of the population. During the Middle Ages, townspeople had been mainly merchants and artisans. By the fifteenth century, towns and cities were more diverse. At the top of urban society were patricians. They were people who had acquired wealth through trade, industry and banking. Below them were the burghers. These were the shopkeepers, artisans, and guild members. Below the patricians and burghers were the workers, who earned pitiful wages, and the unemployed. These people made up 30 to 40 percent of the urban population. They had miserable lives.

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Chapter 12, Section 1 (continued)

The family was important in Renaissance Italy. Parents arranged marriages, often to strengthen business or family ties. A marriage contract sealed the agreement between families. The most important part of the agreement was the amount of the dowry. The **dowry** was a sum of money given by the wife's family to her husband when they were married. The father was the center of the Italian family. He gave the family his name, managed all finances, and made decisions that affected his children's lives. The mother's main role was to supervise the household. A father's authority over his children was absolute until he died or freed his children. Children did not become adults until their father went before a judge and formally freed them. The age of adulthood could be anywhere from the early teens to the late twenties.

9. How were towns and cities in the fifteenth century different from the Middle Ages?

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Chapter 12, Section 2

For use with textbook pages 382–387

THE INTELLECTUAL AND ARTISTIC RENAISSANCE

KEY TERMS

humanism an intellectual movement of the Renaissance that was based on the study of the ancient Greek and Roman classics (page 382)

fresco a painting done on fresh, wet plaster with water-based paints (page 384)

DRAWING FROM EXPERIENCE

Do you enjoy looking at paintings and sculptures? What periods or styles do you like best?

In the last section, you read about the beginnings of the Renaissance in Italy. In this section, you will learn about art, literature, and education during the Renaissance.

ORGANIZING YOUR THOUGHTS

Use the chart below to help you take notes. List some of the characteristics of the following art forms during the Renaissance.

| Art Form | Characteristics |
|--------------|-----------------|
| Architecture | 1. |
| Sculpture | 2. |
| Painting | 3. |

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 12, Section 2 (continued)

READ TO LEARN

- **Italian Renaissance Humanism** (page 382)

Secularism and an emphasis on the individual characterized the Renaissance. A key intellectual movement of the Renaissance was humanism. **Humanism** was based on the study of the classics, the literary works of ancient Greece and Rome. Humanists studied subjects like grammar, rhetoric, poetry, moral philosophy, and history. Today these subjects are called the humanities.

Petrarch has been called the father of Italian Renaissance humanism. He looked for forgotten Latin manuscripts. This began a search for these manuscripts in monasteries throughout Europe. He also began the humanist emphasis on using pure classical Latin (Latin as it was used by the ancient Romans). Humanists used the works of Cicero as a model for prose. They used the works of Virgil as a model for poetry. Early humanists, like Petrarch, described the intellectual life as a life of solitude. In the early 1400s, however, humanists began to take a new interest in civic life. They believed that it was the duty of intellectuals to live active lives. They also believed that their study of the humanities should be used to serve the state.

4. How did humanism change in the early 1400s?

- **Vernacular Literature** (page 383)

Because of the humanists' emphasis on classical Latin, scholars, lawyers, and theologians used it. However, some writers wrote in the vernacular (the language spoken in their own regions, such as Italian, French, or German). In the fourteenth century, the works of Dante and Chaucer made vernacular literature popular. Dante was an Italian author. His masterpiece is the *Divine Comedy*. It is the story of the soul's journey to salvation. Chaucer was an English author. His famous work *The Canterbury Tales* is a collection of stories told by a group of pilgrims on their way to the tomb of Saint Thomas à Becket at Canterbury. Another writer who used the vernacular was Christine de Pizan. She was a Frenchwoman who wrote works in defense of women. She argued that women could learn as well as men if they could attend the same schools.

5. What two authors made vernacular literature popular in the fourteenth century?

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Chapter 12, Section 2 (continued)

• Education in the Renaissance (page 383)

Renaissance humanists believed that education could change people. They wrote books on education and opened schools based on their ideas. Humanists believed that the liberal studies (what we now call the liberal arts) helped people reach their full potential. The liberal studies included history, moral philosophy, eloquence (rhetoric), letters (grammar and logic), poetry, mathematics, astronomy, and music. The purpose of the liberal studies was to produce individuals who would act with virtue and wisdom. Humanists also stressed physical education, because they believed in the Greek ideal of a sound mind in a sound body. Humanists thought that a liberal education was practical. Their goal was not to create great scholars but complete citizens.

Women normally did not attend the humanist schools. If they did, they studied the classics and history and learned how to ride, dance, sing, play the lute, and appreciate poetry. They did not study mathematics or rhetoric. Religion and morals were emphasized, so that women would become good wives and mothers.

6. According to humanists, what was the purpose of a liberal education?

• The Artistic Renaissance in Italy (page 384)

Renaissance artists tried to imitate nature in their works. They wanted the objects and events they portrayed to look real. These artists also developed a new worldview in which human beings became the focus of attention. The first masterpieces of early Renaissance art were the frescoes painted by Masaccio in Florence. A **fresco** is a painting done on fresh, wet plaster with water-based paints. Human figures in medieval paintings looked flat. Masaccio mastered the laws of perspective, which helped him to create the illusion of three dimensions. As a result, Masaccio's figures have depth and look real. This new style was used and adapted by other Florentine painters in the fifteenth century. They understood the laws of perspective and the organization of outdoor space and light. They also studied movement and human anatomy. One of the chief aims of Italian Renaissance art was the realistic portrayal of people, especially human nudes.

Sculptors and architects also made advances during the Renaissance. The sculptor Donatello spent time in Rome studying and copying the statues of the Greeks and Romans. He created realistic, free-standing figures. The buildings of classical Rome inspired the architect Filippo Brunelleschi. He created a new architecture in Florence. The Medici family hired him to design the church of San Lorenzo. This church does not overwhelm worshipers like Gothic cathedrals did. It was created to fit human, not divine, needs.

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Chapter 12, Section 2 (continued)

The final stage of Italian Renaissance painting is called the High Renaissance. It flourished between 1490 and 1520. Three artistic giants, Leonardo da Vinci, Raphael, and Michelangelo, are associated with this period. Leonardo mastered the art of realistic painting. He even dissected human bodies to see how they worked. He went beyond realism, however. His goal was to create idealized forms that would show the perfection of nature and the individual. Raphael also tried to achieve an ideal of beauty that surpassed reality. He is especially well-known for his madonnas (paintings of the Virgin Mary) and his frescoes in the Vatican Palace. Michelangelo was an accomplished painter, sculptor, and architect. His famous figures on the ceiling of the Sistine Chapel show an ideal type of human being with perfect proportions. The beauty of these idealized forms was meant to be a reflection of divine beauty.

7. Who are the three artists most associated with the High Renaissance?

• The Northern Artistic Renaissance (page 386)

The artists of northern Europe were also interested in portraying the world realistically. Northern artists painted illustrations for books and wooden panels for altarpieces. They had to depict each object on a small scale and became masters at painting details. The most important northern school of art in the fifteenth century was in Flanders. The Flemish painter Jan van Eyck was one of the first to use oil paint. Oil paint allowed artists to use a wide variety of colors and to create fine details. Like the Italian Renaissance painters, van Eyck tried to imitate nature. But he did this, not by using the laws of perspective, but by observing reality and portraying details as best he could. By 1500, northern artists had begun to study in Italy and were influenced by Italian artists. One German artist who was influenced by the Italians was Albrecht Dürer. He used both minute details and the laws of perspective in his works. Like the Italians, he also tried to achieve a standard of ideal beauty by carefully examining human forms.

8. How did the technique of the northern Renaissance painters differ from that of the Italian Renaissance artists?

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 12, Section 3

For use with textbook pages 389–393

THE PROTESTANT REFORMATION

KEY TERMS

Christian humanism a movement in northern Europe during the Renaissance (also called Northern Renaissance humanism) that stressed a belief in the ability of human beings to reason and improve themselves (page 390)

salvation acceptance into heaven (page 390)

indulgence a release from all or part of the punishment for sin (page 391)

DRAWING FROM EXPERIENCE

Have you ever attended Catholic mass? Have you ever attended a Lutheran worship service? What differences did you see?

In the last two sections, you learned about the changes and achievements during the Renaissance period. In this section, you will learn about the Protestant Reformation that took place during the end of this period.

ORGANIZING YOUR THOUGHTS

Use the chart below to help you take notes. Summarize some of the main differences between Lutheranism and Catholicism at the time of the Reformation.

| | Salvation | Sacraments | Clergy and Marriage | Church Services |
|-------------|-----------|------------|---------------------|-----------------|
| Lutheranism | 1. | 2. | 3. | 4. |
| Catholicism | 5. | 6. | 7. | 8. |

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 12, Section 3 (continued)

READ TO LEARN

- **Erasmus and Christian Humanism** (page 389)

The Protestant Reformation is the name that is used for the reform movement that divided the western Church into Catholic and Protestant groups. Several developments set the stage for religious change. During the second half of the fifteenth century, the new classical learning that was part of Italian Renaissance humanism spread to northern Europe. A movement called **Christian humanism** (or Northern Renaissance humanism) developed. Christian humanists believed in the ability of human beings to reason and improve themselves. One of their major goals was the reform of the Catholic Church. Humanists believed that in order to change the Church and society, they needed to change individuals first. They thought that if people read the classics and the works of Christianity, they would become more pious. This would bring about a reform of the Church and society.

The best known of the Christian humanists was Desiderius Erasmus. He called his view of religion “the philosophy of Christ.” He believed that Christianity should show people how to live good lives. To reform the Church, Erasmus wanted to spread the philosophy of Christ and provide education in the works of Christianity. He also criticized the abuses of the Catholic Church. He did not wish to break away from the Church, however. He sought reform within the Catholic Church. But his ideas prepared the way for the Reformation.

9. What did Christian humanists believe was the best way to reform the Church and society?

- **Religion on the Eve of the Reformation** (page 390)

Erasmus and others were calling for reform because of the corruption of the Catholic Church. Between 1450 and 1520, the popes were more concerned with Italian politics and worldly interests than with spiritual matters. Pope Julius II personally led armies against his enemies. This disgusted Christians because the pope was supposed to be a spiritual, not a military, leader. Many church officials were concerned with money and used their church offices to get wealthy. Parish priests were often ignorant of their spiritual duties. People

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Chapter 12, Section 3 (continued)

wanted a meaningful religion and assurance of **salvation** (acceptance into Heaven), but many priests were unable to teach them. Collections of relics became popular as a means to salvation. According to Church practice at that time, a person could gain an **indulgence** (release from all or part of the punishment for sins) through relics. The church also sold indulgences in the form of certificates. This practice, in particular, upset many of the reformers.

10. Why did Erasmus and others think that the Catholic Church needed to be reformed?

• **Martin Luther** (page 391)

Martin Luther was a monk and a professor at the University of Wittenberg in Germany. Through his study of the Bible, Luther found an answer to a problem that had bothered him since he became a monk. This problem was how to be certain of salvation. Catholic teachings had stressed that both faith and good works were needed to gain salvation. Luther believed that people could never do enough good works to be saved. He came to believe that people are not saved through their goods works but through their faith in God. If a person has faith in God, God makes that person just, or worthy of salvation. God grants salvation because he is merciful, not because of a person's good works. This idea is called justification (being made right with God) by faith alone. It became the chief teaching of the Protestant Reformation. Because Luther had found the answer to his problem by studying the Bible, the Bible became the only source of religious truth for Luther and all other Protestants.

Luther did not see himself as a rebel, but the selling of indulgences upset him. He believed that people were actually harming their chances for salvation by buying indulgences. On October 31, 1517, Luther sent a list of Ninety-Five Theses to his church superiors. The theses (statements) were an attack on the selling of indulgences. Thousands of copies of the Ninety-Five Theses were printed and spread to all parts of Germany. By 1520, Luther was ready to break away from the Catholic Church. He asked the German princes to establish a reformed German church. Luther also attacked the Church's system of seven sacraments. He kept only two

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Chapter 12, Section 3 *(continued)*

sacraments, baptism and the Eucharist (Communion). Luther also thought that the clergy should marry. This went against the Catholic belief that the clergy should remain celibate (unmarried).

The Catholic Church excommunicated Luther in 1521. The newly elected emperor, Charles V, thought he could convince Luther to change his ideas. He summoned Luther to appear before the imperial diet (legislative assembly) of the Holy Roman Empire. But Luther refused to change his mind. By the Edict of Worms, Luther was made an outlaw in the empire. His works were supposed to be burned, and Luther was supposed to be captured and brought to the emperor. But Frederick of Saxony, Luther’s ruler, sent Luther into hiding. When Luther returned to Wittenberg in 1522, Frederick protected him.

During the next few years, Luther’s religious movement became a revolution. Many of the German rulers supported Luther and formed state churches. Luther set up new religious services to replace the Catholic mass. These services consisted of Bible readings, preaching of the word of God, and songs. These new churches became known as Lutheran churches, and Luther’s doctrine became known as Lutheranism. Lutheranism was the first Protestant faith.

11. What were the Ninety-Five Theses?

- **Politics in the German Reformation** *(page 393)*

Charles V, the Holy Roman emperor, was also Charles I, the king of Spain. He ruled an immense empire consisting of Spain, the Austrian lands, Bohemia, Hungary, the Low Countries, the duchy of Milan, the kingdom of Naples, and Spanish territories in the New World. He wanted to keep this empire under the control of his dynasty, the Hapsburgs. He hoped to preserve his empire by keeping it Catholic. However, he had other problems at the same time. His chief political concern was his rivalry with the king of France, Francis I. Their conflicts led to a series of wars that lasted 20 years. Charles also had problems with the pope, Clement VII, who sided with the French king. At the same time, the invasion of the Ottoman Turks forced Charles to send troops to the eastern part of his empire.

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Chapter 12, Section 3 *(continued)*

Many of the princes of the German states supported Luther as a way to assert their own authority over the authority of Charles V. By the time Charles V was able to bring military forces to Germany, the Lutheran princes were well organized. Charles was unable to defeat them and was forced to seek peace. An end to religious warfare in Germany came in 1555 with the Peace of Augsburg. This agreement formally accepted the division of Christianity in Germany. The German states could now choose between Catholicism and Lutheranism. Lutheran states were given the same legal rights as Catholic states. The right of each German ruler to determine the religion of his subjects was recognized, but not the right of the subjects to choose their own religion.

12. What was the result of the Peace of Augsburg?

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Chapter 12, Section 4

For use with textbook pages 395–401

THE SPREAD OF PROTESTANTISM AND THE CATHOLIC RESPONSE

KEY TERMS

predestination the belief that God has determined in advance (predestined) who will be saved and who will be damned (page 396)

annul declare a marriage invalid (page 397)

DRAWING FROM EXPERIENCE

Do you think religion should ever influence a government's policies? Why or why not?

In the last section, you read about the beginnings of the Protestant Reformation in Germany. In this section, you will learn about the spread of Protestantism to other countries. You will also learn about the Catholic Reformation that took place in response to Protestantism.

ORGANIZING YOUR THOUGHTS

Use the concept web below to help you take notes. Think about the different forms of Protestantism that started in Europe as the Reformation spread. Summarize the reforms of the following Protestant leaders.



Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 12, Section 4 (continued)

READ TO LEARN

- **The Zwinglian Reformation** (page 395)

Even before the Peace of Augsburg, other Protestant groups had developed. One of these new groups was in Switzerland. Ulrich Zwingli, a priest in Zürich led this movement. Due to his influence, the council of Zürich began to make religious reforms. All paintings, decorations, and relics were removed from the churches. A new church service replaced the Catholic mass. This service consisted of scripture reading, prayer, and sermons. In October 1531, war broke out in Switzerland between the Protestant and Catholic states. Zwingli was killed. The leadership of Protestantism in Switzerland passed to John Calvin.

5. Who was the leader of the first Protestant reform movement in Switzerland?

- **Calvin and Calvinism** (page 396)

John Calvin was born and educated in France. After he converted to Protestantism, he was forced to flee to Switzerland because France was still Catholic. In 1536, he published the *Institutes of the Christian Religion*, a summary of Protestant doctrines. This book made Calvin one of the new leaders of Protestantism. In many ways, Calvin's beliefs were similar to Luther's. Like Luther, he believed in the doctrine of justification by faith alone. But Calvin also emphasized the all-powerful nature of God. This caused him to believe in another doctrine, predestination. **Predestination** is the belief that God has determined in advance (predestined) who will be saved and who will be damned.

In 1536, Calvin began working to reform the city of Geneva. He created a church government that used both clergy and laity. A court was set up to oversee the moral life and religious doctrines of the people of Geneva. This court was called the Consistory. It had the right to punish people for crimes, which included dancing, drunkenness, swearing, and playing cards. Geneva became a powerful center of Protestantism. Missionaries trained in Geneva were sent to all parts of Europe. By the mid-sixteenth century, Calvinism had replaced Lutheranism as the most important form of Protestantism.

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Chapter 12, Section 4 (continued)

6. What religious doctrine is associated with John Calvin?

• The Reformation in England (page 397)

The Reformation in England had its beginnings in politics, not religion. King Henry VIII wanted to divorce his first wife, Catherine of Aragon, because she had not been able to have a son. Because Henry needed a male heir, he wanted to marry Anne Boleyn. Henry asked the pope to **annul** (declare invalid) his marriage to Catherine, but the pope refused. Henry then asked the church courts in England for the annulment. In 1533, Thomas Cranmer, the archbishop of Canterbury, granted the annulment, and Henry married Anne Boleyn.

The next year, Henry asked Parliament to separate the Church in England from the pope in Rome. The Parliament passed the Act of Supremacy of 1534. This act made the king the head of the Church of England. Henry used his new powers to close the monasteries and sell their land and possessions. This put more money in his treasury. It also created new supporters for the king, because the people who had bought the monks' land did not want the Catholic Church to be in power again. Despite these changes, Henry's religious beliefs were similar to those of the Catholic Church.

When Henry died in 1547, his son, Edward VI, took the throne. He was only nine years old and sickly. During Edward's reign, church officials moved the Church of England (also called the Anglican Church) in a Protestant direction. Parliament gave the clergy the right to marry and created a new Protestant church service. Many people opposed these changes. When Edward VI died in 1553, Mary, Henry's daughter by Catherine of Aragon, took the throne. She was a Catholic and wanted to restore England to Roman Catholicism. The way she went about it had the opposite effect, however. She had more than three hundred Protestants burned as heretics, which gave her the nickname "Bloody Mary." As a result, England was even more Protestant by the end of her reign than it had been at the beginning.

7. Why did England break away from the Roman Catholic Church?

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Chapter 12, Section 4 (continued)

• The Anabaptists (page 398)

Many of the Protestant reformers allowed the state (government) to play an important role in church affairs. Some people were against the state having this kind of power. These people were called the Anabaptists. According to the Anabaptists, the true Christian church was a voluntary community of adult believers. Believers were first reborn spiritually and then baptized. This belief in adult baptism separated Anabaptists from Catholics and also other Protestants who baptized infants. Anabaptists based many of their beliefs and practices on the accounts of the early Christian church in the New Testament. They believed that all Christians were equal. Each Anabaptist church chose its own minister (spiritual leader). Because all Christians were considered priests, any member of the community was eligible to be a minister.

Most Anabaptists believed in the complete separation of church and state. They thought that government should be kept out of religion. They even thought that government should not have any authority over real Christians. Anabaptists refused to hold political office or bear arms. Their political and religious beliefs caused the Anabaptists to be regarded as dangerous radicals. The only thing that most Protestants and Catholics could agree on was the need to persecute the Anabaptists.

8. How were the beliefs of the Anabaptists different from those of other Protestants?

• Effects on the Role of Women (page 399)

Protestants developed a new view of the family. They did not believe that there was anything especially holy about being celibate. They did away with monasticism and the requirement of celibacy for the clergy. Marriage and family were now emphasized. But the role of women did not change very much. Women were still subordinate to men. Women were expected to bear children and obey their husbands. Being a wife and mother was the only role that most Protestant women could play in society.

9. How did the Protestant view of marriage and family affect the clergy?

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Chapter 12, Section 4 (continued)

- **The Catholic Reformation** (page 400)

By the mid-sixteenth century, Protestantism was well established in many parts of Europe. The situation in Europe did not look good for the Catholic Church. However, the Catholic Church had its own reformation in the sixteenth century that gave it new strength. Three factors brought about this Catholic Reformation. These three factors were the Jesuits, reform of the papacy, and the Council of Trent.

Jesuits were also known as the Society of Jesus. Ignatius of Loyola, a Spanish nobleman, founded the Society. All Jesuits took a vow of absolute obedience to the pope. Jesuits used education to spread their message. Jesuit missionaries were very successful in restoring Catholicism to parts of Germany and eastern Europe. They also spread it to other parts of the world.

Pope Paul III saw the need for changes in the Catholic Church and appointed a Reform Commission in 1537. The commission blamed the Church's problems on the corruption of the popes. Renaissance popes had been involved in questionable financial dealings and in Italian political and military affairs. In 1545, Pope Paul III began the Council of Trent. It was made up of Church leaders and theologians. The Council met off and on for 18 years. It reaffirmed traditional Catholic teachings. According to the Council, both faith and good works were necessary for salvation. The seven sacraments, the Catholic view of the Eucharist, and celibacy were all upheld. However, the selling of indulgences was forbidden.

10. What three factors brought about a reformation of the Catholic Church in the sixteenth century?

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Chapter 13, Section 1

For use with textbook pages 407–413

EXPLORATION AND EXPANSION

KEY TERMS

conquistadors Spanish conquerors of the Americas (page 412)

colony a settlement of people living in a new territory, linked with the parent country by trade and direct government control (page 413)

mercantilism a set of principles that dominated economic thought in the seventeenth century, which emphasized the accumulation of bullion through government involvement in the promotion of industries and trade (page 413)

balance of trade the difference in value between what a nation imports and what it exports over time (page 413)

DRAWING FROM EXPERIENCE

What places today are unknown and still being explored? Do you think you would be interested in taking part in these explorations? Why or why not?

In this section, you will learn about early explorations by European nations, especially in the Americas.

ORGANIZING YOUR THOUGHTS

Use the chart below to help you take notes. Identify the nationality of each of the following explorers and summarize their explorations.

| Explorer | Nationality | Explorations |
|----------------------|-------------|--------------|
| Vasco da Gama | 1. | 2. |
| Christopher Columbus | 3. | 4. |
| John Cabot | 5. | 6. |
| Francisco Pizarro | 7. | 8. |
| Ferdinand Magellan | 9. | 10. |

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 13, Section 1 (continued)

READ TO LEARN

• Motive and Means (page 407)

In the fifteenth century, Europeans began to sail all over the world. Because of conquests by the Ottoman Turks in the fourteenth century, Europeans could no longer travel by land to the East, like Marco Polo had done in the thirteenth century. This problem made them attempt to reach Asia by sea. They had three main motives for undertaking these dangerous voyages. The first motive was economic. Europeans hoped to find precious metals and to expand trade, especially for the spices of the East. The second motive was religious. Many Europeans believed that it was their duty to convert other peoples to Christianity. The third motive was a desire for glory and adventure. These three motives are sometimes referred to as “God, glory, and gold.”

Not only did Europeans of the fifteenth century have motives for exploration, but they also had the means that they had not had before. By the second half of the fifteenth century, European monarchies had increased their power and their resources and were able to sponsor voyages. Europeans had also reached a level of technology that made the voyages possible.

- 11.** What were the three main reasons that Europeans of the fifteenth century were willing to make dangerous voyages?

• The Portuguese Trading Empire (page 409)

Beginning in 1420, Portuguese fleets began to explore the western coast of Africa. These fleets were sponsored by Prince Henry the Navigator. In Africa, the Portuguese discovered a new source of gold. The southern coast of West Africa became known to Europeans as the Gold Coast.

Portuguese sea captains heard about a route to Indian around the southern tip of Africa. In 1488, Bartholomeu Dias rounded the tip, called the Cape of Good Hope. Later, Vasco da Gama went around the cape and cut across the Indian Ocean to the coast of India. There he took on a cargo of spices. After he returned to Portugal, he made a profit of several thousand percent. Portuguese fleets returned to the area to gain control of the spice trade, which had been controlled by the Muslims. In 1509, a Portuguese fleet defeated a fleet of Turkish and Indian ships off the coast of India. A year later, Admiral Afonso de Albuquerque set up a port at Goa, on the western coast of India. The Portuguese then began to search for the source of the spice trade. Albuquerque gained control of Melaka, which was a thriving port for the spice trade. From Melaka, the Portuguese made expeditions to China and the Spice Islands. They

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Chapter 13, Section 1 *(continued)*

signed a treaty with a local ruler for the purchase and export of cloves. This treaty gave the Portuguese control of the spice trade. The Portuguese now had a trading empire, but they did not try to colonize the Asian regions.

12. How did the Portuguese gain control of the spice trade?

- **Voyages to the Americas** *(page 410)*

The Portuguese sailed eastward through the Indian Ocean to reach the source of the spice trade. The Spanish tried to reach it by sailing westward across the Atlantic Ocean. Christopher Columbus, an Italian, believed that he could reach Asia by sailing west, instead of east around Africa. He persuaded Queen Isabella of Spain to finance an expedition. In October 1492, he reached the Americas. He believed that he had reached Asia. He made three more voyages to try to find a route through the islands to the Asian mainland. In his four voyages, he reached all of the major islands of the Caribbean and Honduras in Central America. Still convinced that he was in Asia, he called the islands the Indies.

By the 1490s, both Spain and Portugal had explored new lands. Both countries were afraid that the other might claim some of its newly discovered territories. In 1494, they signed the Treaty of Tordesillas. This treaty created a line of demarcation, an imaginary line that extended from north to south through the Atlantic Ocean and the easternmost part of South America. Unexplored territories east of the line would be controlled by Portugal. Those west of the line would be controlled by Spain. The treaty gave Portugal control over its route around Africa. It gave Spain rights to almost all of the Americas.

The governments of many countries began to sponsor expeditions to the Americas. A Venetian seaman, John Cabot, explored the New England coastline for England. The Portuguese sea captain Pedro Cabral landed in South America in 1500. Amerigo Vespucci went along on several voyages and wrote letters describing what he saw. His letters led to the use of the name America for the new lands. Europeans called these lands the New World, but they were only new to the Europeans. They already had flourishing civilizations when the Europeans arrived.

13. What name did Columbus give to the islands he explored? Why?

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Chapter 13, Section 1 (continued)

• The Spanish Empire (page 412)

The Spanish conquerors of the Americas were known as **conquistadors**. Their weapons brought them incredible success. The forces of Hernán Cortés took only three years to overthrow the Aztec Empire in Central America. By 1550, the Spanish had gained control of northern Mexico. In South America, an expedition led by Francisco Pizarro took control of the Inca Empire. The Portuguese took over Brazil, which fell on their side of the line of demarcation.

By 1535, the Spanish had created a system of colonial administration in the Americas. Queen Isabella declared the Native Americans to be her subjects. She granted the Spanish settlers *encomienda* (the right to use Native Americans as laborers). Spanish settlers were supposed to protect Native Americans, but few did. Instead, they put them to work on sugar plantations and in gold and silver mines. Forced labor, starvation, and disease took a terrible toll on Native American lives. The native peoples had little resistance to European diseases, and 30 to 40 percent of them died from smallpox, measles, and typhus. In the early years of the conquest, Catholic missionaries converted and baptized hundreds of thousands of native peoples. Native American social and political structures were torn apart and replaced by European systems of religion, language, culture, and government.

- 14.** How did Spanish colonization of the Americas affect the Native American peoples?

• Economic Impact and Competition (page 412)

Wherever they went, Europeans searched for gold and silver. Gold, silver, sugar, dyes, cotton, vanilla, and hides soon flowed into Europe from the Americas. Agricultural products, such as potatoes, coffee, corn, and tobacco, were also shipped to Europe. Because of its trading posts in Asia, Portugal soon became the chief entry point for the trade in spices, jewels, silk, carpets, ivory, leather, and perfumes.

By the end of the sixteenth century, several European countries were vying for the eastern trade. Ferdinand Magellan, a Portuguese explorer who was financed by the king of Spain, sailed around the tip of South America and crossed the Pacific Ocean to the Philippine Islands. The Spanish then established a colony in the Philippines. Spanish ships carried silver from Mexico to the Philippines and returned to Mexico with silk and other luxury goods. At the beginning of the seventeenth century, an English fleet landed on the northwestern coast of India and established trade relations with the people there. The first Dutch fleet arrived in India in 1595. Shortly after, the Dutch formed the East India Company and began competing with the English and the Portuguese.

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Chapter 13, Section 1 *(continued)*

The Dutch also formed the West India Company to compete in the Americas. They established the Dutch colony of New Netherland in the Hudson River valley. However, the English seized the colony of New Netherland and renamed it New York. They also founded Virginia and the Massachusetts Bay Colony. By 1700, the English had established a colonial empire along the eastern seaboard of North America. The French were also interested in the Americas and colonized parts of what is now Canada and Louisiana.

In the 1500s and 1600s, European nations established trading posts and colonies in the Americas and the East. A **colony** is a settlement of people living in a new territory, linked with the parent country by trade and direct government control. Colonies played a role in the theory of **mercantilism**, a set of principles that dominated economic thought in the seventeenth century. According to mercantilists, the prosperity of a nation depended on a large supply of bullion (gold and silver). To bring in gold and silver, nations tried to have a favorable balance of trade. The **balance of trade** is the difference in value between what a nation imports and what it exports over time. When the balance is favorable, the goods exported are of greater value than those imported. To encourage exports, governments stimulated export industries and trade. They granted subsidies, or payments, to new industries and improved transportation systems. They tried to keep foreign goods out of their own countries by placing high tariffs (taxes) on these goods. Colonies were important because they were sources of raw materials and were markets for finished goods.

15. Why were colonies important in the theory of mercantilism?

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Chapter 13, Section 2

For use with textbook pages 415–418

AFRICA IN AN AGE OF TRANSITION

KEY TERMS

plantations large agricultural estates that often depended on slavery to provide the labor they needed (page 416)

triangular trade a pattern of trade that connected Europe, Africa and Asia, and the American continents (page 416)

Middle Passage the journey of slaves from Africa to the Americas (the middle portion of the triangular trade route) (page 416)

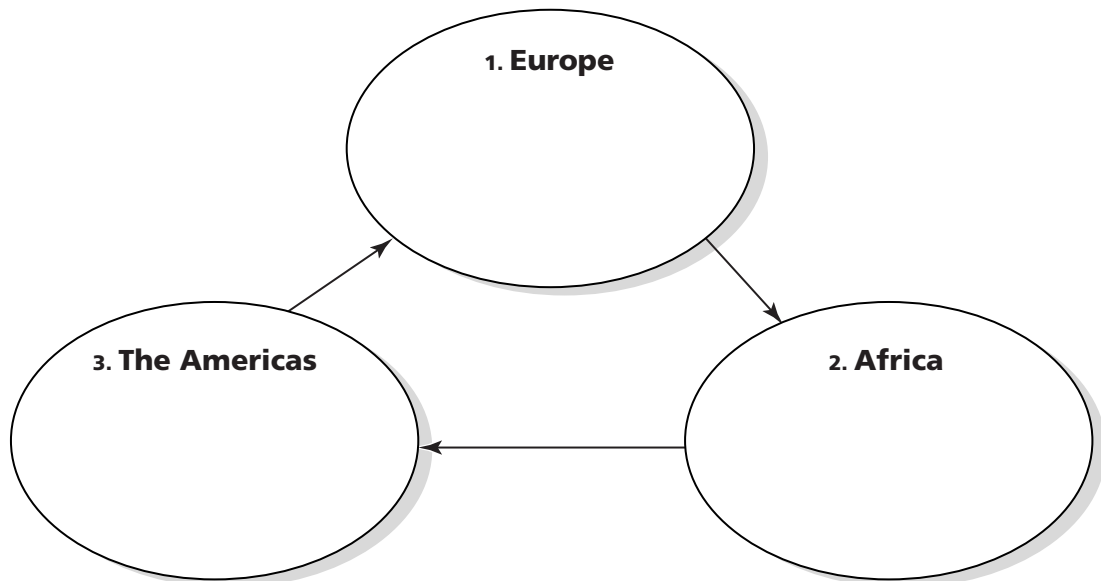
DRAWING FROM EXPERIENCE

Have you ever read about a plantation? How did the plantation owners live? How did the workers or slaves live?

In the last section, you learned about European exploration and colonization of the Americas. In this section, you will learn how the need for labor in the new colonies led to an increase in the slave trade. You will also learn about the impact that Europeans and the slave trade had on Africa.

ORGANIZING YOUR THOUGHTS

Use the diagram below to help you take notes. List the goods that were traded by each of the three areas on the triangular trade route. Indicate which section of the triangle was the Middle Passage.



Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 13, Section 2 (continued)

READ TO LEARN

- **The Slave Trade** (page 415)

Slavery had been practiced in Africa since ancient times. The primary market for slaves was Southeast Asia, where most slaves were used as domestic servants. Slavery also existed in some European countries. The demand for slaves increased dramatically with the discovery of the Americas in the 1490s. During the sixteenth century, **plantations** (large agricultural estates) that grew sugar cane were set up in Brazil and on islands in the Caribbean. Growing sugar cane requires much labor. African slaves were shipped to Brazil and the Caribbean to work on the plantations.

In 1518, a Spanish ship carried the first boatload of slaves directly from Africa to the Americas. During the next two centuries, the trade in slaves grew dramatically and became part of the **triangular trade**. In the triangular trade system, European ships carried manufactured goods, such as guns and cloth, to Africa, where they were traded for a cargo of slaves. The slaves were then shipped to the Americas and sold. Europeans then bought tobacco, molasses, sugar, and raw cotton and shipped them back to Europe. As many as ten million African slaves were brought to the Americas between the early sixteenth and the late nineteenth centuries.

The journey from Africa to the Americas became known as the **Middle Passage**, the middle portion of the triangular trade route. Many slaves died on the journey. Those who arrived often died because they had little or no immunity to diseases.

Before Europeans became involved in the slave trade, most slaves in Africa were prisoners of war. Slaves were sold at slave markets on the coasts. At first, African slave traders got their supplies of slaves from coastal areas nearby. As the demand for slaves increased, they began to move farther inland to find their victims. Many local rulers traded slaves. They viewed slaves as a source of income. Many sent raiders into defenseless villages in search of victims. Some local rulers became concerned about the impact of the slave trade on their societies, but their protests were generally ignored by Europeans and other Africans.

The slave trade led to the depopulation of some areas. It also took the youngest and strongest men and women from many communities. The need to provide a constant supply of slaves led to increased warfare in Africa. Coastal leaders increased their raids on neighboring peoples. Of course, the slave trade always had tragic effects on the lives of individual victims and their families. The slave trade also had a devastating effect on some African states. In Benin, for example, the slave trade caused the population to decline and warfare to increase. As time went on, the people of Benin lost their faith in their gods, their art deteriorated, and human sacrifice became more common.

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Chapter 13, Section 2 (continued)

4. How did the discovery of the Americas change the slave trade in Africa?

• **Political and Social Structures** (page 417)

In general, the European influence in Africa did not extend beyond the coastal regions. Only in a few areas, such as South Africa and Mozambique, were there signs of a permanent European presence. In most areas, traditional African political systems continued to exist. By the sixteenth century, monarchy had become a common form of government throughout Africa. Some kingdoms were highly centralized, but others were more like collections of small principalities, knit together by ties of kinship or other loyalties. Many Africans continued to live in small political units in which authority rested in a village leader.

Europeans were causing changes in other ways, however. In the western Sahara, trade with Europeans caused trade routes to shift toward the coast. This led to the weakening of the old Songhai trading empire. It also helped a new Moroccan dynasty to emerge in the late sixteenth century. In 1591, Moroccan forces defeated the Songhai army and then occupied the city of Timbuktu. Eventually, the Moroccans were forced to leave, but Songhai was never the same.

Foreigners also influenced African religious beliefs, but Europeans had less influence than the Islamic culture. In North Africa, Islam continued to expand. It also spread southward into the states of West Africa. The Portuguese engaged in some Christian missionary activity in Africa, but the English, Dutch and French did very little to spread the Christian message. The spread of Christianity was mainly limited to South Africa and Ethiopia.

5. In what ways did foreigners influence Africa?

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Chapter 13, Section 3

For use with textbook pages 419–422

SOUTHEAST ASIA IN THE ERA OF THE SPICE TRADE

KEY TERMS

mainland states states that are part of a continent, as distinguished from peninsulas or offshore islands (page 421)

bureaucracy a body of nonelective government officials (page 422)

DRAWING FROM EXPERIENCE

Have you ever thought what life would be like if you did not have spices for your food? What spices do you like best? How much would you be willing to pay for your favorite spices?

In the last section, you learned about the impact of Europeans and the slave trade on Africa. In this section, you will learn about the impact of Europeans and the spice trade on Southeast Asia.

ORGANIZING YOUR THOUGHTS

Use the chart below to help you take notes. There were four main styles of kingship in Southeast Asia at the time of the spice trade. Summarize those four styles of kingship in this chart.

| Region | Style of Kingship |
|--------|-------------------|
| 1. | 2. |
| 3. | 4. |
| 5. | 6. |
| 7. | 8. |

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 13, Section 3 (continued)

READ TO LEARN

- **Emerging Mainland States** (page 419)

In 1500, mainland Southeast Asia was a relatively stable region. Kingdoms with their own ethnic, linguistic, and cultural characteristics were being formed. Conflicts eventually erupted among the emerging states. There was a bitter conflict between the Thai and the Burmese. In 1767, a Burmese army sacked the Thai capital. This forced the Thai to create a new capital at Bangkok, farther to the south. By the end of the fifteenth century, the Vietnamese had subdued the state of Champa and gradually took control of the Mekong delta from the Khmer. By 1800, the Khmer monarchy had virtually disappeared.

In the Malay Peninsula and the Indonesian Archipelago, Muslim merchants in search of spices caused changes. New states arose along the trade route created by the Muslims. In the fifteenth century, the sultanate of Melaka became the leading power in the region. It owed its power to its location and to the rapid growth of the spice trade.

9. Why did Melaka become the leading power in the region?

- **The Arrival of Europeans** (page 420)

In 1511, the Portuguese seized Melaka and soon occupied the Moluccas. The Moluccas were known to Europeans as the Spice Islands. They were the chief source of the spices that had attracted the Portuguese to the Indian Ocean. The Portuguese set up small settlements, which they used as trading posts. They did not have the resources to make colonies in the area. When English and Dutch traders arrived, things changed. In the early 1600s, the Dutch gradually pushed the Portuguese out of the spice trade. They took over most of the Portuguese forts along the trade route, including Melaka. The Dutch traders also drove the English traders out of the spice market. The English were left with a single port on the southern coast of Sumatra. The Dutch tried to dominate the clove trade by limiting the growing of cloves to one island. They also established a fort at Batavia on the island of Java in 1619. They gradually took control of the entire island.

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Chapter 13, Section 3 *(continued)*

The arrival of Europeans had less impact on mainland Southeast Asia. The Portuguese had limited trade relations with several mainland states, including Thailand, Burma, and Vietnam. (Mainland states are states that are part of the continent, as distinguished from peninsulas or offshore islands.) These states had strong monarchies that resisted foreign intrusion. When other European nations began to compete for trade and missionary privileges in the area, the mainland states were able to unite and drive them out.

In Vietnam, a civil war temporarily divided the country into two separate states. When the Europeans arrived in the mid-seventeenth century, they began to build trading posts and to take sides in Vietnamese politics. By the end of the seventeenth century, however, most of the trading posts were abandoned, when it became clear that the economic opportunities in this area were limited. French missionaries tried to stay, but their efforts were blocked by the Vietnamese authorities, who saw Catholicism as a threat to the prestige of the Vietnamese emperor.

- 10.** Why did Europeans have less of an impact on mainland Southeast Asia than on non-mainland states?

• **Religious and Political Systems** *(page 422)*

Religious beliefs changed in Southeast Asia during the period from 1500 to 1800. Islam and Christianity were beginning to attract converts, especially in the non-mainland states and the Philippines. Buddhism was advancing on the mainland. It became dominant from Burma to Vietnam. Traditional beliefs still survived, however, and influenced the new religions.

The political systems in Southeast Asia evolved into four main styles of kingship: Buddhist kings, Javanese kings, Islamic sultans, and Vietnamese emperors. All of these styles adapted foreign models of government to local circumstances. The Buddhist style of kingship was the main form of government in Burma, Thailand, Laos, and Cambodia. In this style, the king was considered superior to other human beings. He served as a link between humans and the universe. The Javanese style was based on political traditions in India and was similar to the Buddhist system in many ways. Javanese kings were believed to have a sacred quality. They maintained the balance between the sacred and material worlds.

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Chapter 13, Section 3 (continued)

The Islamic style was found on the Malay Peninsula and in the small states on the Indonesian Archipelago. In this style, the head of state was a sultan. He was viewed as a mortal, but with some special qualities. He defended the Islamic faith and staffed his bureaucracy (a body of nonelected government officials) mainly with aristocrats.

In Vietnam, kingship followed the Chinese model. The Vietnamese emperor ruled according to the teachings of Confucius. He was seen as a mortal appointed by Heaven to rule because of his talent and virtue. He was also the intermediary between Heaven and Earth.

- 11.** How did religious beliefs change in Southeast Asia from 1500 to 1800?

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Chapter 14, Section 1

For use with textbook pages 429–432

EUROPE IN CRISIS: THE WARS OF RELIGION

KEY TERMS

militant combative (page 429)

armada a fleet of warships (page 432)

DRAWING FROM EXPERIENCE

Do you think having a single individual with total power to govern a nation could ever be good for a nation? Why or why not?

In this section, you will learn how conflict between Catholics and Protestants led to wars in many European nations. At the same time, many European rulers increased their power and their territories.

ORGANIZING YOUR THOUGHTS

Use the chart below to help you take notes. Identify the country and religion of the following rulers, and summarize their achievements.

| Ruler | Country | Religion | Achievements |
|-------------|---------|----------|--------------|
| Henry IV | 1. | 2. | 3. |
| Philip II | 4. | 5. | 6. |
| Elizabeth I | 7. | 8. | 9. |

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 14, Section 1 *(continued)*

READ TO LEARN

- **The French Wars of Religion** (*page 429*)

By 1560, Calvinism and Catholicism had become highly **militant** (combative) religions. They both wanted to win converts and to eliminate the other's authority. This was the main cause of the religious wars in Europe in the sixteenth century, but economic, social, and political forces also played important roles.

The French Wars of Religion lasted from 1562 to 1598. The French kings persecuted Protestants, but the persecution did not stop the spread of Protestantism. French Protestants who were influenced by John Calvin were called Huguenots. The Huguenots made up only about 7 percent of the total French population, but 40 to 50 percent of the nobility were Huguenots. The conversion of so many nobles made the Huguenots a threat to the French monarchy, which was strongly Catholic. An extreme Catholic party also strongly opposed the Huguenots. They were known as the ultra-Catholics. They were able to recruit and pay for large armies. Although the main issue in the French wars was religion, other factors also played a role. Many towns and provinces had long resisted the power of French monarchy. They were willing to assist the Huguenot nobles in weakening the monarchy.

For 30 years, there were battles in France between the Catholics and Huguenots. Finally in 1589, Henry of Navarre became king of France. As king, his name was Henry IV. He was the political leader of the Huguenots and a member of the Bourbon dynasty. He realized that he would never be accepted as king by most of Catholic France, so he converted to Catholicism. To solve the religious problem, he issued the Edict of Nantes in 1598. The edict recognized Catholicism as the official religion of France, but it gave Huguenots the right to worship. It also gave them full political rights.

10. Who were the Huguenots?

- **Philip II and Militant Catholicism** (*page 430*)

The greatest supporter of militant Catholicism in the second half of the sixteenth century was King Philip II of Spain. He reigned from 1556 to 1598. His first major goal as king was to consolidate the lands he had inherited from his father, Charles V. These included Spain, the Netherlands, and possessions in

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Chapter 14, Section 1 *(continued)*

Italy and the Americas. To strengthen his control, he insisted on strict conformity to Catholicism and strong monarchical authority. The Catholic faith was important to both Philip II and the Spanish people. Spain saw itself as a nation of people chosen by God to save Catholic Christianity from the Protestant heretics.

Philip II became a champion of Catholic causes. He led a Holy League against the Turks. This resulted in a victory over the Turkish fleet in the Battle of Lepanto in 1571. He was not as successful in the Netherlands. The Spanish Netherlands consisted of 17 provinces (modern Netherlands and Belgium). It was one of the richest parts of Philip’s empire. Philip tried to strengthen his control in this region. The nobles of the Netherlands strongly opposed him. Philip also tried to crush Calvinism in the Netherlands. Violence broke out in 1566 when Calvinists began to destroy statues in Catholic churches. Philip sent ten thousand troops to crush the rebellion. In the northern provinces, the Dutch, under the leadership of William the Silent, offered growing resistance. Finally, in 1609, a 12-year truce ended the war. The northern provinces began to call themselves the United Provinces of the Netherlands. They became the core of the modern Dutch state. The seventeenth century has been called the golden age of the Dutch Republic.

Philip’s reign ended in 1598. At that time, Spain was the most populous empire in the world. It controlled almost all of South America and a number of settlements in Asia and Africa. To most Europeans, it seemed to be the greatest power at the time. However, its treasury was empty. Philip II had gone bankrupt from spending too much on war. The armed forces were out-of-date, and the government was inefficient. Spain continued to play the role of a great power, but real power had shifted to England.

11. Why is Philip II called the “Most Catholic King”?

- **The England of Elizabeth** *(page 431)*

During the reign of Elizabeth Tudor, England became the leader of the Protestant nations of Europe and laid the foundations for a world empire. Elizabeth became queen in 1558. To solve the religious problem in England, she repealed the laws favoring Catholics that had been passed under her Catholic half-sister, Mary Tudor. A new Act of Supremacy named Elizabeth as the “only supreme governor” of both church and state. The Church of

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Chapter 14, Section 1 (continued)

England under Elizabeth was basically Protestant, but it followed a moderate Protestantism that kept most people satisfied.

Elizabeth tried to keep Spain and France from becoming too powerful by balancing power. If one nation seemed to be getting more powerful, England would support the weaker nation. Philip II of Spain wanted to invade England, partly to overthrow Protestantism. His advisers told him that the people of England would rise against Elizabeth when the Spaniards arrived. In 1588, Philip ordered preparations for an **armada** (a fleet of warships) to invade England. But the Spanish were no match for the English. After a number of battles, the Spanish armada sailed back to Spain by a northern route around Scotland and Ireland. The ships were pounded by storms, and many sank.

12. How did Elizabeth solve the religious problem in England?

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Chapter 14, Section 2

For use with textbook pages 434–439

SOCIAL CRISES, WAR, AND REVOLUTION

KEY TERMS

inflation rising prices (page 434)

witchcraft magic performed by witches (page 435)

divine right of kings the belief that kings receive their power from God and are responsible only to God (page 437)

commonwealth a republic (used especially for the government of England from 1649 to 1660) (page 438)

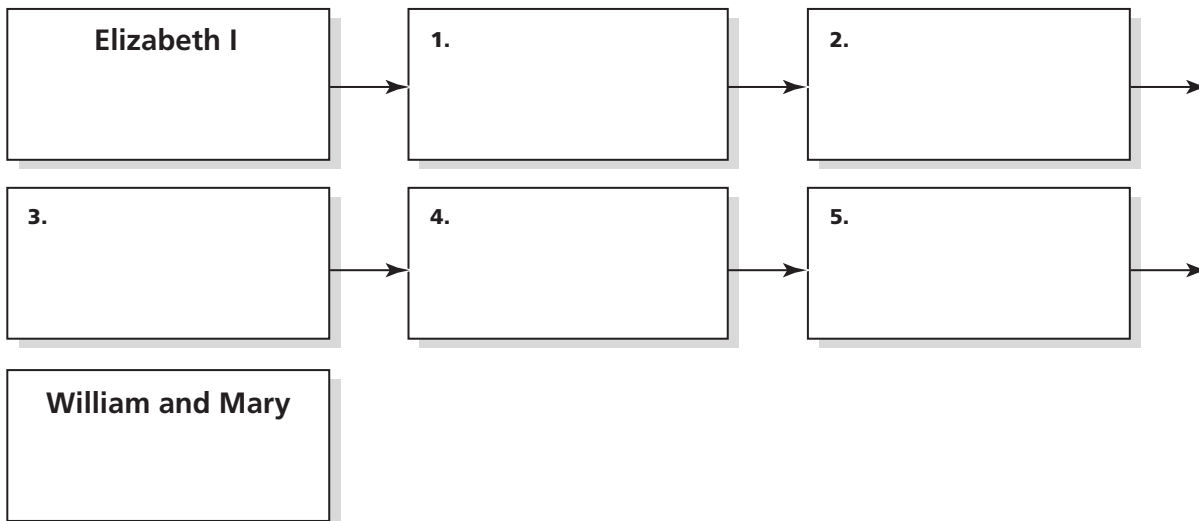
DRAWING FROM EXPERIENCE

Are you concerned about inflation? How have you been affected by inflation? How many times has the price of a postage stamp increased in your lifetime?

In the last section, you read about the religious wars in France and other countries in the sixteenth century. In this section, you will learn how religious disputes continued in many countries and led to the Thirty Years' War in Germany. You will also learn about the revolutions in England during the seventeenth century and about the social and economic problems, such as inflation, that plagued Europe during this time.

ORGANIZING YOUR THOUGHTS

Use the diagram below to help you take notes. Identify the rulers of England after Elizabeth I and before William and Mary.



Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 14, Section 2 (continued)

READ TO LEARN

- **Economic and Social Crises** (page 434)

From 1560 to 1650, Europe had severe economic and social crises. One major economic problem was **inflation**, or rising prices. The influx of gold and silver from the Americas was one cause of the inflation. There was also a growing population in the sixteenth century. This increased the demand for land and food and drove up prices for both. Spain's economy was seriously failing by the 1640s. It had grown dependent on imported silver, and the silver mines were producing less silver. Italy was the financial center of Europe in the Renaissance, but it was also declining economically.

The population in Europe increased from about 60 million in 1500 to 85 million by 1600. By 1620, the population began to level off. By 1650, it began to decline, especially in central and southern Europe. Warfare, plague, and famine all contributed to the population decline.

6. What were some of the causes of inflation in the sixteenth and early seventeenth centuries?

- **The Witchcraft Trials** (page 435)

A belief in **witchcraft**, or magic, had been part of traditional village culture for centuries. During the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, an intense hysteria about witchcraft affected the lives of many Europeans. More than a hundred thousand people were charged with witchcraft. As more and more people were brought to trial, the fear of witches grew. So did the fear of being accused of witchcraft. Poor, common people were the ones most often accused. More than 75 percent of those accused were women. Most of them were single or widowed and over 50 years old. Under torture, accused witches usually confessed.

By 1650, the witchcraft hysteria had begun to lessen. Officials were less willing to disrupt their societies with witch trials. People were also less willing to believe in the old view of a world haunted by evil spirits.

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Chapter 14, Section 2 (continued)

7. Which people were most likely to be accused of witchcraft?

• The Thirty Years' War (page 435)

Religious disputes continued in Germany after the Peace of Augsburg in 1555. One reason for the disputes was that Calvinism had not been recognized by the peace settlement. Religion played an important role in the start of the Thirty Years' War, but there were also political and territorial motives for this war. The war began in 1618. At first, it was a struggle between Catholic forces and Protestant nobles in Bohemia. The Protestant nobles were primarily Calvinists who rebelled against the Hapsburg emperors. Soon the conflict became a political one. Denmark, Sweden, France, and Spain all entered the war. The war became a struggle between France and the rulers of Spain and the Holy Roman Empire. Most of the battles of the war were fought on German soil. For 30 years, Germany was plundered and destroyed. The Peace of Westphalia ended the war in 1648. It stated that all German states, including the Calvinist ones, could determine their own religion. The states that had made up the Holy Roman Empire were recognized as independent states. This brought an end to the Holy Roman Empire. Germany would not be united again for another two hundred years. France, on the other hand, emerged from the war as the dominant nation in Europe.

8. What was the impact of the Thirty Years' War on Germany and France?

• Revolutions in England (page 437)

The civil war in England is known as the English Revolution. It began as a struggle between the king and Parliament to determine what role each should play in governing England. After Queen Elizabeth died in 1603, the Tudor dynasty came to an end. The Stuart line of rulers began when Elizabeth's

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Chapter 14, Section 2 (continued)

cousin, the king of Scotland, became James I of England. He ruled from 1603 to 1625. James believed in the **divine right of kings** (that kings receive their power from God and are responsible only to God). Parliament, on the other hand, believed that the king or queen and Parliament ruled England together.

Religion was also an issue. The **Puritans** (Protestants in England inspired by Calvinist ideas) did not like the king's strong defense of the Church of England. The Puritans were part of the Church of England, but they wanted to make it more Protestant. Many of England's wealthy landowners had become Puritans. These Puritans were an important part of the House of Commons, the lower house of Parliament.

The conflict began during the reign of James but came to a head during the reign of his son, Charles I. Charles ruled from 1625 to 1649. In 1628, Parliament passed a petition that prohibited the passing of any taxes without Parliament's consent. At first, Charles I accepted this petition, but he later changed his mind, because the petition put limits on the king's power. Charles also tried to impose more ritual on the Church of England. To the Puritans, this was a return to Catholic practices. When Charles tried to force them to accept his religious policies, thousands of Puritans went to America. This is an example of how religious struggles in England influenced American history.

In 1642, a civil war began between the supporters of the king (the Cavaliers or Royalists) and the parliamentary forces (called the Roundheads because of their short hair). Parliament was victorious. This was due mainly to the New Model Army of Oliver Cromwell. This army was made up primarily of extreme Puritans who believed that they were doing battle for God. After the victory, Cromwell purged Parliament of any members who had not supported him. What was left of the Parliament is known as the Rump Parliament. The Rump Parliament had Charles I executed on January 30, 1649. Parliament then abolished the monarchy and the House of Lords and declared England a republic, or **commonwealth**. Cromwell dispersed the Rump Parliament by force. Cromwell then set up a military dictatorship.

Cromwell ruled from 1653 until he died in 1658. In 1660, Parliament made Charles II king. He was the son of Charles I. He ruled until his death in 1685. Parliament passed laws that made the Church of England the state religion again. The laws also took away some rights of Catholics and Puritans. Charles II was sympathetic to Catholicism. He suspended the laws that Parliament had passed, but Parliament forced him to back down.

In 1685, James II, the brother of Charles II, became king. He was an open and devout Catholic. He named Catholics to high positions in the government and military. In 1688, a group of English noblemen invited the Dutch leader, William of Orange, to invade England. William of Orange was the husband of James' daughter, Mary. William and Mary were Protestants. They raised an army and "invaded" England. James fled to France. With almost no bloodshed, England had undergone a "Glorious Revolution."

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Chapter 14, Section 2 (continued)

In January 1689, Parliament offered the throne to William and Mary. They accepted it, along with a Bill of Rights. The Bill of Rights set forth Parliament's right to make laws and levy taxes. It also stated that standing armies could only be raised with Parliament's consent. The rights of citizens to keep arms and have a jury trial were also confirmed. The bill laid the foundation for a limited, or constitutional, monarchy. Another important action of Parliament was the Toleration Act of 1689. This act granted Puritans, but not Catholics, the right of free public worship. Few English citizens would ever again be persecuted for religion. By deposing one king and establishing another, Parliament destroyed the divine-right theory. William was king, not by the grace of God, but by the grace of Parliament.

9. What was the "Glorious Revolution" in England?

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Chapter 14, Section 3

For use with textbook pages 441–447

RESPONSE TO CRISIS: ABSOLUTISM

KEY TERMS

absolutism a system of government in which a ruler holds total power (page 441)

czar the Russian word for caesar, which became the title of the Russian rulers beginning with Ivan IV (page 445)

boyars the Russian nobility (page 446)

DRAWING FROM EXPERIENCE

What do you think is the purpose of dress codes? Do you think dress codes should be enforced in public schools? Why or why not?

In the last section, you read about the wars, revolutions, and economic problems in Europe during the seventeenth century. In this section, you will learn how monarchs in certain countries gained absolute power during this time. One of these absolute monarchs, Peter the Great, even told people how they should dress.

ORGANIZING YOUR THOUGHTS

Use the chart below to help you take notes. Identify the countries of the following monarchs and summarize their achievements.

| Monarch | Country | Achievements |
|-------------------------------------|---------|--------------|
| Louis XIV | 1. | 2. |
| Frederick William the Great Elector | 3. | 4. |
| Peter the Great | 5. | 6. |

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 14, Section 3 (continued)

READ TO LEARN

• France Under Louis XIV (page 441)

The reign of Louis XIV has been regarded as the best example of the practice of absolutism in the seventeenth century. **Absolutism** is a system in which a ruler holds total power. In seventeenth-century Europe, absolutism was tied to the idea of the divine right of kings. Absolute monarchs had tremendous powers. They had the ability to make laws, levy taxes, administer justice, control the state's officials, and determine foreign policy.

French history for the 50 years before Louis was a period of struggle. Both Louis XIII and Louis XIV were only boys when they became kings. Royal ministers controlled the government. Cardinal Richelieu, Louis XIII's chief minister, strengthened the power of the monarchy. Because the Huguenots were seen as a threat to the king's power, Richelieu took away their political and military rights. He also set up a network of spies to uncover plots by nobles against the government. When plots were discovered, he executed the conspirators. Louis XIV came to the throne in 1643 at the age of four. Due to the king's young age, Cardinal Mazarin, the chief minister, took control of the government. During the time of Mazarin, there was a revolt led by nobles who were unhappy with the growing power of the monarchy, but the revolt was crushed. When Mazarin died in 1661, Louis XIV, now age 23, took over supreme power. He had complete authority over foreign policy, the Church, and taxes. He created a myth of himself as the Sun King—the source of light for all of his people.

Louis set up his royal court at Versailles. His court served three purposes. It was the personal household of the king. The chief offices of the state were located there, so Louis could watch over them. It was also the place where people came to find favors and offices for themselves. The royal council was the king's chief administrative body. To keep nobles and royal princes from becoming too powerful, Louis removed them from the royal council. At the same time, he invited them to court, where he could keep them busy with court life and out of politics. At the local level, however, Louis's power was limited. The nobles, local officials, and town councils had more influence than the king in the day-to-day operations of the local governments. As a result, the king bribed people in the provinces to see that his policies were carried out. Louis had an anti-Protestant policy. He ordered the destruction of Huguenot churches and closed their schools. As many as two hundred thousand Huguenots left France for England, the United Provinces, and the German states.

Louis developed a standing army of four hundred thousand. He waged four wars between 1667 and 1713. His ambitions caused many nations to form coalitions against him. Through his wars, Louis added some territory to France's northeastern frontier and set up a member of his own family on the throne of Spain. The cost of pursuing wars, building palaces, and maintaining

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Chapter 14, Section 3 (continued)

his court made finances a crucial issue for Louis XIV. His controller-general of finances was Jean-Baptiste Colbert. Colbert followed the ideas of mercantilism. To decrease imports, he raised tariffs (taxes) on foreign goods. He also created a merchant marine to carry French goods. Nonetheless, when Louis XIV died in 1715, he left France with great debts and surrounded by enemies.

7. What is absolutism?

- **Absolutism in Central and Eastern Europe** (page 444)

After the Thirty Years' War, there was no German state, but over three hundred "Germanies." Two of these states, Prussia and Austria, became great powers in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries. Frederick William the Great Elector laid the foundation for the Prussian state. He built a large and efficient standing army. To maintain the army and his own power, Frederick William set up the General War Commissariat to levy taxes for the army and oversee its growth. The Commissariat soon became an agency for civil government as well. Many of its officials were members of the Prussian aristocracy, known as the Junkers. They also served as officers in the army. In 1701, Frederick William's son officially gained the title of king. Elector Frederick III became King Frederick I.

The Austrian Hapsburgs had long played an important role in European politics as Holy Roman emperors. The Hapsburgs made a difficult transition in the seventeenth century. After the Thirty Years' War, they had lost the German Empire, but now they created a new empire in eastern and southeastern Europe. The core of the new Austrian Empire was the traditional Austrian lands in present-day Austria, the Czech Republic, and Hungary. After the defeat of the Turks in 1687, Austria took control of all of Hungary, Transylvania, Croatia, and Slavonia. By the beginning of the eighteenth century, the Austrian Hapsburgs had a new empire, but it never became a highly centralized, absolutist state. This was chiefly because it was made up of so many different national groups. Each of these areas had its own laws and political life. No common sentiment tied the regions together.

8. How was the Austrian Empire of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries different from the old Hapsburg Empire?

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Chapter 14, Section 3 (continued)

- **Russia Under Peter the Great** (page 445)

In the sixteenth century, Ivan IV became the first ruler to take the title of **czar**, the Russian word for caesar. Ivan expanded the territories of Russia eastward. He also crushed the power of the Russian nobility, known as the **boyars**. He was known as Ivan the Terrible because of his ruthless deeds. When Ivan’s dynasty came to an end in 1598, a period of anarchy known as the Time of Troubles followed. This period did not end until the Zemsky Sobor, or national assembly, chose Michael Romanov as the new czar in 1613.

The Romanov dynasty lasted until 1917. One of its most prominent members was Peter the Great. Peter became czar in 1689. He was an absolutist monarch who claimed the divine right to rule. A few years after becoming czar, Peter made a trip to the West. When he returned to Russia, he was determined to westernize Russia. He borrowed European technology, especially for the military. Under Peter the Great, Russia became a great military power. One of his first goals was to reorganize the army. He employed both Russians and Europeans as officers. He built a standing army of 210,000 men. He also formed the first Russian navy. After his trip to the West, Peter introduced Western customs, practices, and manners into Russia. He ordered the preparation of the first Russian book of etiquette to teach Western manners. Because Westerners did not wear beards or long coats, Russian beards had to be shaved and coats shortened. Because Western women mixed freely with men, Peter insisted that Russian upper-class women remove the veils that had traditionally covered their faces and move out into society. Peter also held gatherings in which both sexes could mix for conversation and dancing, a practice he had learned in the West.

Peter also wanted to “open a window to the West,” an ice-free port with year-round access to Europe. This could only be achieved on the Baltic Sea. At that time, however, the Baltic coast was controlled by Sweden. Peter fought a long war with Sweden and finally acquired the lands he needed. In 1703, Peter began the construction of a new city, St. Petersburg, on the Baltic Sea. St. Petersburg was finished during his lifetime and became the Russian capital until 1918.

9. How did Peter’s trip to the West change Russia?

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 14, Section 4

For use with textbook pages 448–451

THE WORLD OF EUROPEAN CULTURE

KEY TERMS

Mannerism a movement in art that emerged in Italy in the 1520s and 1530s, which emphasized emotions, suffering, and religious ecstasy (page 448)

baroque a movement in art that began in Italy in the late sixteenth century, which tried to bring together the classical ideals of Renaissance art and the spiritual feelings of the sixteenth-century religious revival (page 449)

natural rights rights with which humans are born, including rights to life, liberty, and property (page 451)

DRAWING FROM EXPERIENCE

Have you ever attended the performance of a Shakespearean play? Have you read any of Shakespeare’s works? Which ones do you like best?

In the last three sections, you read about political, economic, and religious developments in Europe in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries. In this section, you will learn about developments in art, literature, and political thought during this period. Two of the world’s greatest writers, Shakespeare and Cervantes, lived during this time.

ORGANIZING YOUR THOUGHTS

Use the chart below to help you take notes. Two political thinkers, Thomas Hobbes and John Locke, both lived in England during the seventeenth century, but they developed quite different political theories. Compare and contrast their political ideas in this chart.

| | Thomas Hobbes | John Locke |
|--|---------------|------------|
| Title of political work | 1. | 2. |
| View of human nature | 3. | 4. |
| Reason given for why humans developed governments/social contracts | 5. | 6. |
| Type of government promoted | 7. | 8. |

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 14, Section 4 (continued)

READ TO LEARN

- **Mannerism** (page 448)

A new movement called **Mannerism** emerged in Italy in the 1520s and 1530s. The religious upheavals of the Reformation caused the worldly enthusiasm of the Renaissance to decline. People were anxious and uncertain and wished for spiritual experiences. This was reflected in Mannerism. The rules of proportion were deliberately ignored. Elongated figures were used to show suffering, heightened emotions, and religious ecstasy. Mannerism spread from Italy to other parts of Europe. It reached its high point in the work of El Greco. In his paintings, El Greco used elongated and contorted figures. He portrayed them in shades of yellow and green against an eerie background of stormy grays.

9. How did Mannerism reflect the uncertainty of the Reformation period?

- **The Baroque Period** (page 449)

Mannerism was eventually replaced by a new movement—the **baroque**. This movement began in Italy in the last quarter of the sixteenth century and spread to the rest of Europe and even Latin America. Baroque artists tried to bring together the classical ideals of Renaissance art with the spiritual feelings of the sixteenth-century religious revival. The baroque painting style was known for its use of dramatic effects to arouse the emotions. Baroque art and architecture also reflected the search for power in the seventeenth century. Baroque churches and palaces were magnificent and richly detailed. Perhaps the greatest baroque artist was the Italian architect and sculptor Gian Lorenzo Bernini. He completed Saint Peter’s Basilica in Rome.

10. What effect did Baroque artists try to achieve?

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Chapter 14, Section 4 (continued)

- **A Golden Age of Literature** (page 449)

The period in England from the late sixteenth to the early seventeenth centuries is often called the Elizabethan Era, because so much of it fell within the reign of Queen Elizabeth. During this period, there were many cultural achievements. Drama, in particular, flourished during this period. Of all the dramatists, none is more famous than William Shakespeare. During the Elizabethan period, theater was a very successful business. Both the lower classes and the well-to-do enjoyed the theater. Because Elizabethan audiences varied so much, playwrights had to write works that pleased many different kinds of people. Shakespeare understood this. He was a master of the English language, but he also had a remarkable understanding of human psychology.

The theater also flourished in Spain. Every large town had a public playhouse, including Mexico City in the New World. Touring companies brought the latest Spanish plays to all parts of the Spanish Empire. Beginning in the 1580s, the standard for playwrights was set by Lope de Vega. He wrote an extraordinary number of plays, perhaps 1500 in all. He wrote his plays to please his audiences and satisfy public demand. His plays are witty, charming, action-packed, and realistic. Other forms of literature also flourished during this time. One of the greatest achievements of the golden age of Spanish literature was the work of Miguel de Cervantes. His novel *Don Quixote* is considered one of the greatest literary works of all time.

11. What form of literature particularly flourished in England and Spain in the late sixteenth and early seventeenth centuries?

- **Political Thought** (page 451)

Two English philosophers, Thomas Hobbes and John Locke, developed political theories in response to the English revolutions of the seventeenth century. Their theories were very different. Thomas Hobbes wrote a political work called *Leviathan*. It was published in 1651. Hobbes was alarmed by the revolutionary upheavals in England. His work tried to deal with the problem of disorder. He believed that humans were guided not by reason and moral ideals, but by a ruthless struggle for self-preservation. He believed that people made a social contract and agreed to form a state to save themselves from destroying one another. Hobbes called the state “that great Leviathan to which we owe our peace and defense.” People in the state agreed to be governed by an absolute ruler who possessed unlimited power. Hobbes believed that absolute power was necessary to preserve order in society.

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Chapter 14, Section 4 (continued)

John Locke wrote a political work in 1690 called *Two Treatises of Government*. Locke did not believe in the absolute rule of one person. He believed that before society was organized, humans lived in a state of equality and freedom, not a state of war. He believed that humans had certain **natural rights** (rights with which they were born). These included rights to life, liberty, and property. He believed that people agreed to establish a government to ensure the protection of their rights. The contract between people and government involved mutual obligations. Government would protect the rights of people, and people would act reasonably toward government. If a government broke the contract, people could form a new government. Locke's ideas can be found in the American Declaration of Independence and the U.S. Constitution.

12. What are "natural" rights?

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Chapter 15, Section 1

For use with textbook pages 457–463

THE OTTOMAN EMPIRE

KEY TERMS

janissary a soldier in the Ottoman sultans' elite guard (page 458)

pasha a local official in the Ottoman empire, who collected taxes, maintained law and order, and was directly responsible to the sultan's court (page 459)

gunpowder empire an empire whose success was based largely on its mastery of the technology of firearms (page 460)

sultan the head of the Ottoman empire (page 460)

harem ("sacred place") the private domain of a sultan (page 461)

grand vizier a chief minister who led the meetings of the imperial council in the Ottoman Empire (page 461)

ulema a group of religious advisers in the Ottoman Empire who administered the legal system and the schools for educating Muslims (page 461)

DRAWING FROM EXPERIENCE

How is religious toleration guaranteed in the United States? Why do you think some people are not tolerant of religious beliefs that are different from their own?

In this section, you will learn about the empire of the Ottoman Turks. Although the Ottomans were Sunni Muslims, they were generally tolerant of other religions in their empire.

ORGANIZING YOUR THOUGHTS

Use the chart below to help you take notes. List the areas that were conquered by the Ottoman rulers in this chart.

| Ruler | Areas Conquered |
|------------|-----------------|
| Mehmet II | 1. |
| Selim I | 2. |
| Süleyman I | 3. |

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 15, Section 1 *(continued)*

READ TO LEARN

- **Rise of the Ottoman Turks** *(page 457)*

In the late thirteenth century, a new group of Turks began to build power in the northwest corner of the Anatolian Peninsula. The name of the leader of this group of Turks was Osman. As the Seljuk Empire began to decline in the early fourteenth century, the Osman Turks began to expand. This was the beginning of the Ottoman dynasty.

The Ottomans expanded westward and eventually controlled the Bosphorus and the Dardanelles. These two straits (narrow passageways) connect the Black Sea and the Aegean Sea. The Byzantine Empire had previously controlled this area. In the fourteenth century, the Ottoman Turks expanded into the Balkans. Ottoman rulers took the title of sultan and began to build a strong military by developing an elite guard called **janissaries**. The Ottomans also began to master firearms. The Ottomans defeated the Serbs at the Battle of Kosovo in 1389. During the 1930s, they took over Bulgaria.

4. What steps did the Ottomans take to build a strong military?

- **Expansion of the Empire** *(page 458)*

Under the leadership of Mehmet II, the Ottomans moved to end the Byzantine Empire. They attacked Constantinople. The Byzantines fought for almost two months to save their city, but the Ottomans finally conquered it. The Byzantine emperor died in the final battle. The Ottomans made Constantinople their capital. It was later renamed Istanbul. The Ottomans now dominated the Balkans and the Anatolian Peninsula. From 1514 to 1517, Sultan Selim I took control of Mesopotamia, Egypt, and Arabia. He now controlled several of the holy cities of Islam, including Jerusalem, Makkah, and Madinah. He declared himself to be the new caliph, defender of the Islamic faith and successor to Muhammad. Ottoman forces then moved westward along the African coast, eventually reaching almost to the Strait of Gibraltar. Where possible, the Ottomans preferred to administer their conquered lands through local rulers. The central government appointed officials, called **pashas**. The pashas collected taxes, maintained law and order, and were responsible to the sultan's court in Constantinople.

During the reign of Süleyman I, the Ottomans attacked Europe. They advanced up the Danube and seized Belgrade. In 1526, at the Battle of Mohacs on the Danube, they won a major victory over the Hungarians. The Ottomans

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Chapter 15, Section 1 (continued)

then conquered most of Hungary, moved into Austria, and advanced as far as Vienna. They were defeated at Vienna in 1529. They also extended their power into the western Mediterranean until a large Ottoman fleet was destroyed by the Spanish at Lepanto in 1571. For the next hundred years, the Ottomans did not try to conquer any more of eastern Europe. In the second half of the seventeenth century, however, they again went on the offensive. By mid-1683, the Ottomans had marched through the Hungarian plain and attacked Vienna. But an army of Europeans forced them to retreat, and they were pushed out of Hungary. They would never again be a threat to central Europe.

- How did the Ottomans prefer to administer their conquered territories?

- Nature of Ottoman Rule** (page 460)

The Ottoman Empire is often called a “**gunpowder empire.**” Gunpowder empires were formed by outside conquerors who unified the regions that they conquered. The success of these empires was based mainly on the use of gunpowder and firearms.

At the head of the Ottoman system was the **sultan**. He was the supreme authority in both a political and a military sense. The position of sultan was hereditary. As the empire expanded, the status and prestige of the sultan increased. The sultan controlled his bureaucracy through an imperial council that met four days a week. A chief minister, known as the **grand vizier**, led the meetings of the council. The empire was divided into provinces and districts, each governed by officials. Senior officials were given land by the sultan. They were then responsible for collecting taxes and supplying armies for the empire.

The sultan became increasingly isolated in his palace. The private domain of the sultan was called the **harem** (“sacred place”). The sultan and his wives resided here. When a son became sultan, his mother became known as the queen mother and acted as a major adviser to the throne.

- Why is the Ottoman Empire called a “gunpowder empire”?

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 15, Section 1 (continued)

• Religion in the Ottoman World (page 461)

The Ottomans were Sunni Muslims. The Ottoman sultans had claimed the title of caliph since the early sixteenth century. In theory, they were responsible for guiding the Muslims in their empire and maintaining Islamic law. In practice, they gave their religious duties to a group of religious advisers known as the **ulema**. The ulema administered the legal system and schools for educating Muslims.

The Ottoman system was generally tolerant of non-Muslims. Non-Muslims paid a tax, but they were allowed to practice their religion or to convert to Islam. Most people in the European areas of the empire remained Christian. In some areas, such as present-day Bosnia, many people converted to the Islamic faith.

7. How did the Ottomans treat non-Muslims in their empire?

• Ottoman Society (page 462)

Ottomans were divided into groups by occupation. In addition to the ruling class, there were four main occupational groups: peasants, artisans, merchants, and pastoral peoples (nomadic herders). Except for the ruling class, merchants were the most privileged class in Ottoman society. They were largely exempt from government regulations and taxes and often amassed large fortunes.

Women in the Ottoman Empire had the same restrictions as women in other Muslim societies, but their position was somewhat better. Women were allowed to own and inherit property. They could not be forced into marriage. In certain cases, they were permitted to seek divorce. A few women even served as senior officials, such as governors of provinces.

8. In what ways did women in the Ottoman Empire have a better legal position than women in other Muslim societies?

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Chapter 15, Section 1 *(continued)*

- **Problems in the Ottoman Empire** *(page 462)*

The Ottoman Empire reached its high point under Süleyman the Magnificent, who ruled from 1520 to 1566. After the death of Süleyman, sultans became less involved in government and allowed their ministers to exercise more power. Senior positions were given to the sons or daughters of the elite. Members of the elite soon formed a privileged group seeking wealth and power. The central bureaucracy became less connected with rural areas. As a result, local officials grew corrupt, and taxes rose.

Officials and merchants began to imitate the habits and lifestyles of Europeans. They wore European clothes, bought Western furniture and art objects, and ignored Muslim rules against the drinking of alcohol. Both coffee and tobacco were introduced into Ottoman society in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries.

9. How did the government of the Ottoman Empire change after the death of Süleyman?

- **Ottoman Art** *(page 463)*

During the period from Mehmet II to the early eighteenth century, the arts flourished in the Ottoman Empire. The sultans were enthusiastic patrons of the arts. By far the greatest contribution of the Ottoman Empire to world art was in architecture. The mosques of the last half of the sixteenth century were magnificent. In the mid-sixteenth century, the greatest of all Ottoman architects, Sinan, began building the first of his 81 mosques. One of Sinan's masterpieces was the Sulemaniye Mosque in Istanbul.

Textiles and rugs also flourished during the sixteenth century. Factories produced silks for wall hangings, sofa covers, and especially court costumes. Rugs were a peasant industry. The rugs were made of wool and cotton. Different regions had their own distinctive designs and color schemes.

10. What art forms flourished during the Ottoman Empire?

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Chapter 15, Section 2

For use with textbook pages 468–471

THE RULE OF THE SAFAVIDS

KEY TERMS

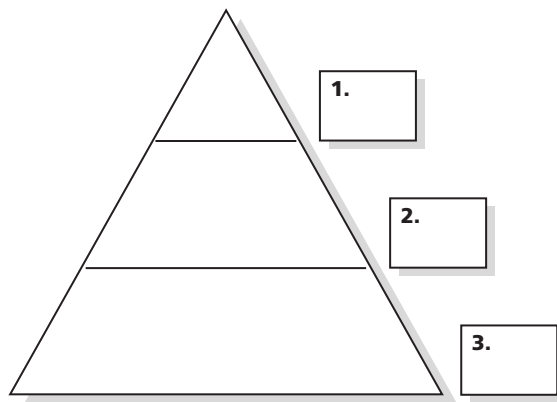
- shah** the title used by Safavid rulers (page 469)
- orthodoxy** conforming to traditional religious beliefs (page 469)
- anarchy** lawlessness and disorder (page 470)

DRAWING FROM EXPERIENCE

Have you ever seen a Persian rug? How are Persian rugs different from other rugs or carpets? Why do you think they are so valuable?

ORGANIZING YOUR THOUGHTS

Use the pyramid diagram below to help you take notes. Show the hierarchy of the Safavid political system.



READ TO LEARN

- Rise of the Safavid Dynasty** (page 468)

After the empire of Timur Lenk (Tamerlane) ended in the early fifteenth century, Persia fell into **anarchy** (lawlessness and disorder). At the beginning of the sixteenth century, a new dynasty took control. This dynasty was known as the Safavids. Ismail, who was the descendant of an earlier leader named Safi al-Din, founded it. (The word *Safavid* comes from his name.) In 1501, Ismail seized much of what is now Iran and Iraq. He then called himself the **shah**, or king, of a new Persian state.

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Chapter 15, Section 2 (continued)

The Safavids were devout Shiite Muslims. Ismail sent Shiite preachers into Anatolia to convert members of Turkish tribes in the Ottoman Empire. He also ordered the massacre of Sunni Muslims when he conquered Baghdad in 1508. The Ottoman sultan, Selim I, was alarmed and attacked the Safavids in Persia. He won a major battle near Tabriz, but a few years later, Ismail regained Tabriz. Like the Ottoman sultan, the shah claimed to be the spiritual leader of all Islam. In the 1580s, the Ottomans again attacked. They gained control of Azerbaijan and the Caspian Sea. This forced the new Safavid shah, Abbas, to sign a peace treaty in which he lost much territory.

4. Why did the Ottomans attack the Safavids?

- **Glory and Decline** (page 469)

Under Shah Abbas, who ruled from 1588 to 1629, the Safavids reached their high point. In the early seventeenth century, Shah Abbas moved against the Ottomans to regain lost territories. In 1612, a peace treaty was signed that returned Azerbaijan to the Safavids.

After the death of Shah Abbas in 1629, the Safavid dynasty gradually declined. Most of his successors did not have the same talent and political skills. The power of Shiite religious groups began to increase. The pressure to conform to traditional religious beliefs, called religious **orthodoxy**, also increased. Persian women were now forced into seclusion and were required to adopt the wearing of the veil.

During the reign of Shah Hussein in the early eighteenth century, Afghan peoples invaded and seized the capital of Isfahan. The Safavid ruling family was forced to retreat to Azerbaijan. The Turks took advantage of the situation to seize territories along the western border. Persia sank into a long period of political and social **anarchy**.

5. During what period was the Safavid dynasty at its height?

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Chapter 15, Section 2 *(continued)*

- **Political and Social Structures** *(page 470)*

Persia under the Safavids was a mixed society. The Safavids had come to power with the support of nomadic Turkish groups, but the majority of the people were Persian. Most of them were farmers or townspeople. The combination of Turkish and Persian elements affected nearly all aspects of Safavid society.

The Safavid political system was organized in the shape of a pyramid. The shah was at the top, the bureaucracy and landed classes were in the middle, and the common people were at the bottom.

The Safavid rulers were supported by Shiites. The Shiites believed that the founder of the empire (Shah Ismail) was a direct successor of the prophet Muhammad. The shahs declared Shia Islam to be the state religion. The shahs were more available to their subjects than other rulers were. Appointment to senior positions in the bureaucracy was based on merit rather than birth. To avoid competition between Turkish and non-Turkish people, Shah Abbas hired a number of foreigners for positions in his government.

The shahs played an active role in trade and manufacturing. There was also a large urban middle class involved in trade. Most goods traveled by horse or camel caravans. The government provided resting places for travelers. In times of strong rulers, the roads were kept fairly clear of thieves and bandits.

6. In what way was Persia under the Safavids a mixed society?

- **Safavid Culture** *(page 471)*

The arts flourished during the reign of Shah Abbas from 1588 to 1629. The capital of Isfahan was built by Shah Abbas. It was a planned city with wide spaces and a sense of order. Silk weaving based on new techniques also flourished. So did carpet weaving. There was a great demand for Persian carpets in the West. Persian painting during this period featured soft colors and flowing movement. Riza-i-Abbasi was the most famous artist of this period. He created beautiful works on simple subjects, such as oxen plowing, hunters, and lovers.

7. What art forms flourished in the Safavid Era?

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Chapter 15, Section 3

For use with textbook pages 473–478

THE GRANDEUR OF THE MOGULS

KEY TERMS

zamindar a local official in the Mogul Empire (page 474)

suttee the Hindu custom of cremating a widow on her husband's funeral pyre (page 475)

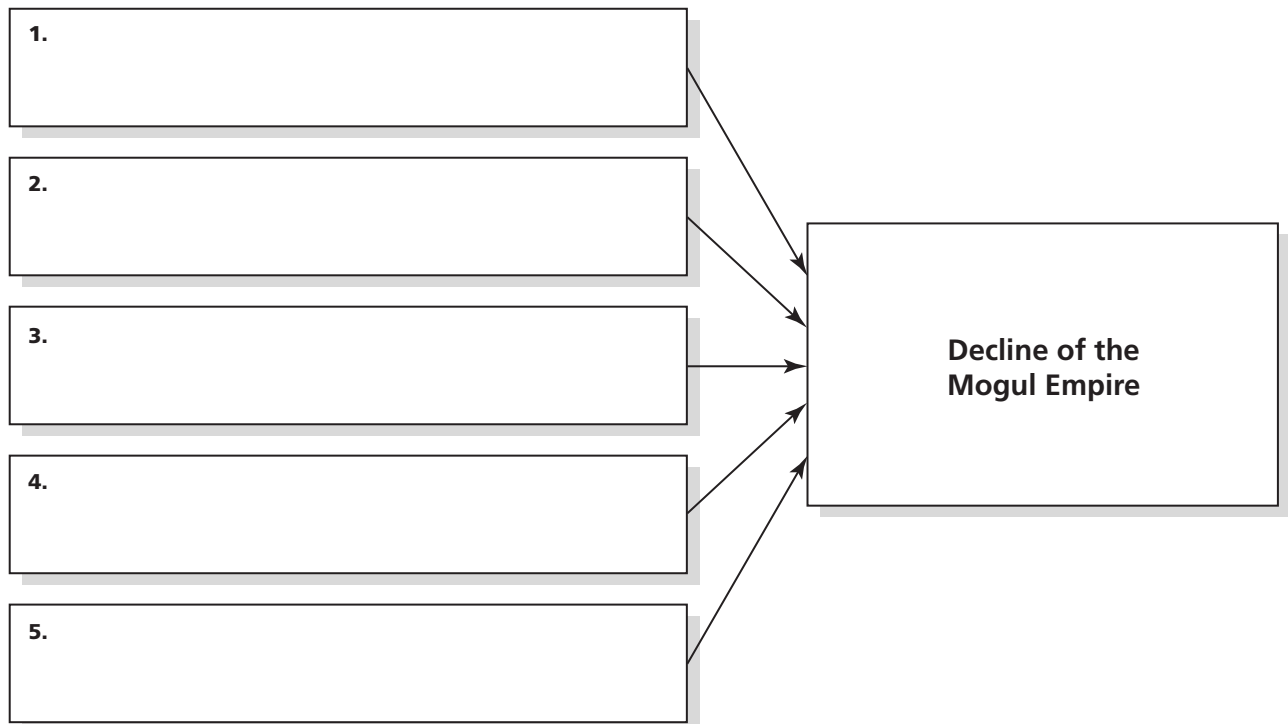
DRAWING FROM EXPERIENCE

Have you ever visited Washington, D.C.? What monuments have been built there in memory of U.S. presidents? Can you think of any other famous landmarks that honor former presidents?

In the last two sections, you learned about the Ottoman and Safavid Empires. In this section, you will learn about the Mogul Empire. One of the Mogul emperors built the famous Taj Mahal in memory of his wife.

ORGANIZING YOUR THOUGHTS

Use the chart below to help you take notes. After the Akbar Era, the Mogul Empire began to decline. List five factors that contributed to this decline.



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Chapter 15, Section 3 (continued)

READ TO LEARN

- **The Mogul Dynasty** (page 473)

In 1500, the Indian subcontinent was still divided into a number of Hindu and Muslim kingdoms. However, the Moguls established a new dynasty and brought a new era of unity to the region. The founder of the Mogul dynasty was Babur. His father was descended from Timur Lenk and his mother from Genghis Khan. Babur inherited a part of Timur Lenk's empire. As a youth, he commanded a group of warriors who seized Kabul in 1504. Thirteen years later, his forces crossed the Khyber Pass to India. Babur captured Delhi and established his power in the plains of North India. He continued his conquests in North India until his death in 1530.

6. Who founded the Mogul dynasty?

- **The Reign of Akbar** (page 474)

Babur's grandson Akbar was only 14 when he came to the throne. By 1605, he had brought Mogul rule to most of India. His armies used heavy artillery to overpower the stone fortresses of their enemies. Akbar created the greatest Indian empire since the Mauryan dynasty. He is best known for the humane character of his rule. He was a Muslim, but he was tolerant of other religions. The upper-ranks of his government were filled with non-native Muslims, but many of the lower-ranking officials were Hindus. It became common practice to give these officials plots of farmland for their use. These local officials were known as **zamindars**. They kept a portion of the taxes as their salaries. They forwarded the rest of the taxes to the central government. All Indian peasants were required to pay about one-third of their annual harvest to the state, but the system was applied justly. When bad weather struck, taxes were reduced or even suspended.

Foreign trade was prosperous in the Akbar Era. Indian goods, including textiles, tropical food products, spices, and precious stones, were exported in exchange for gold and silver.

7. In what ways was Akbar a humane ruler?

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Chapter 15, Section 3 (continued)

- **Decline of the Moguls** (page 475)

Akbar died in 1605. He was succeeded by his son Jahangir. During the early years of his reign, Jahangir continued to strengthen the central government’s control of the empire. His control began to weaken when he fell under the influence of one of his wives. The empress used her position to enrich her own family. She also arranged the marriage of her niece to her husband’s son, Shah Jahan.

Shah Jahan ruled from 1628 to 1658. He maintained the Mogul political system and expanded the boundaries of the empire. But he failed to deal with growing domestic problems. He had inherited a nearly empty treasury. His military campaigns and building projects put a heavy strain on the imperial finances and forced him to raise taxes, while most of the people lived in poverty.

When Shah Jahan became ill in the mid-1650s, two of his sons struggled for power. One of them, Aurangzeb, had his brother put to death and imprisoned his father. He then crowned himself emperor in 1658. He is one of the most controversial rulers in the history of India. He tried to eliminate what he thought were India’s evils. He forbade both the Hindu custom of **suttee** (cremating a widow on her husband’s funeral pyre) and the levying of illegal taxes. He was a devout Muslim and reversed many of the Mogul policies of religious tolerance. The building of new Hindu temples was prohibited, and Hindus were forced to convert to Islam. These policies led to Hindu protests. Revolt broke out in provinces throughout the empire. India became divided and vulnerable to attack. In 1739, Delhi was sacked by the Persians, who left it in ashes.

8. Why is Aurangzeb considered controversial?

- **The British in India** (page 475)

The arrival of the British hastened the decline of the Mogul Empire. In 1650, British trading forts had been established at Surat, Fort William, and Chennai. From Chennai, British ships carried Indian-made cotton goods to the East Indies, where they were traded for spices. The French established their own forts at Pondicherry, Surat, and in the Bay of Bengal. They even captured the British fort at Chennai. The British were eventually able to restrict the French to the fort at Pondicherry and a few other territories on the southeastern coast. This was largely due to the efforts of Sir Robert Clive. Clive became the

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Chapter 15, Section 3 (continued)

chief representative in India of the East India Company. The East India Company had been given authority by the British crown to act on its behalf. It was Clive's job to fight any force, French or Indian, that threatened the power of the East India Company in India. In 1757, Clive led a small British force to victory over a Mogul-led army more than ten times its size. The Mogul court was then forced to give the British East India Company the power to collect taxes from lands in the area surrounding Calcutta.

In the late eighteenth century, the East India Company moved inland from the coastal cities. British expansion made many British merchants and officials rich. British officials found that they could obtain money from local rulers by selling trade privileges. The British were in India to stay.

9. How did the arrival of the British hasten the decline of the Mogul Empire?

• Society and Daily Life in Mogul India (page 477)

The Moguls were foreigners in India. They were Muslims but were ruling a largely Hindu population. The Mogul attitudes toward women affected Indian society. Women had long played an active role in Mogul society, and some even fought on the battlefield alongside the men. Women from aristocratic families were allowed to own land and to take part in business activities. At the same time, Moguls placed certain restrictions on women under their interpretation of Islamic law. The practice of isolating women was compatible with Hindu customs and was adopted by many upper-class Hindus. In other ways, Hindu practices continued despite Mogul rule. The custom of suttee continued. Child marriage also remained common.

During the Mogul era, a wealthy landed nobility and a prosperous merchant class emerged. As the Mogul Empire declined, many prominent Indians made trading ties with the British. This benefited the Indians, but only temporarily.

10. How did Mogul attitudes toward women affect Indian society?

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Chapter 15, Section 3 (continued)

- **Mogul Culture** (page 477)

The Moguls brought together Persian and Indian influences in a new and beautiful architectural style. This style is best symbolized by the Taj Mahal. This building is considered to be the most beautiful in India, if not in the entire world. It was built by the emperor Shah Jahan in memory of his wife. To finance it, the government raised land taxes. This drove many Indian peasants into complete poverty.

Another major artistic achievement of the Mogul period was in painting. The “Akbar” style combined Persian and Indian elements. Akbar also encouraged his artists to imitate European art forms, including the use of perspective and lifelike portraits. The Mogul emperors were dedicated patrons of the arts. Going to India was the goal of painters, poets, and artisans from many other countries.

11. Mogul architecture and painting combined influences from what two cultures?

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Chapter 16, Section 1

For use with textbook pages 485–490

CHINA AT ITS HEIGHT

KEY TERMS

queue a pigtail worn by Chinese men during the Qing dynasty (page 488)

banner a Manchu military unit during the Qing dynasty (page 489)

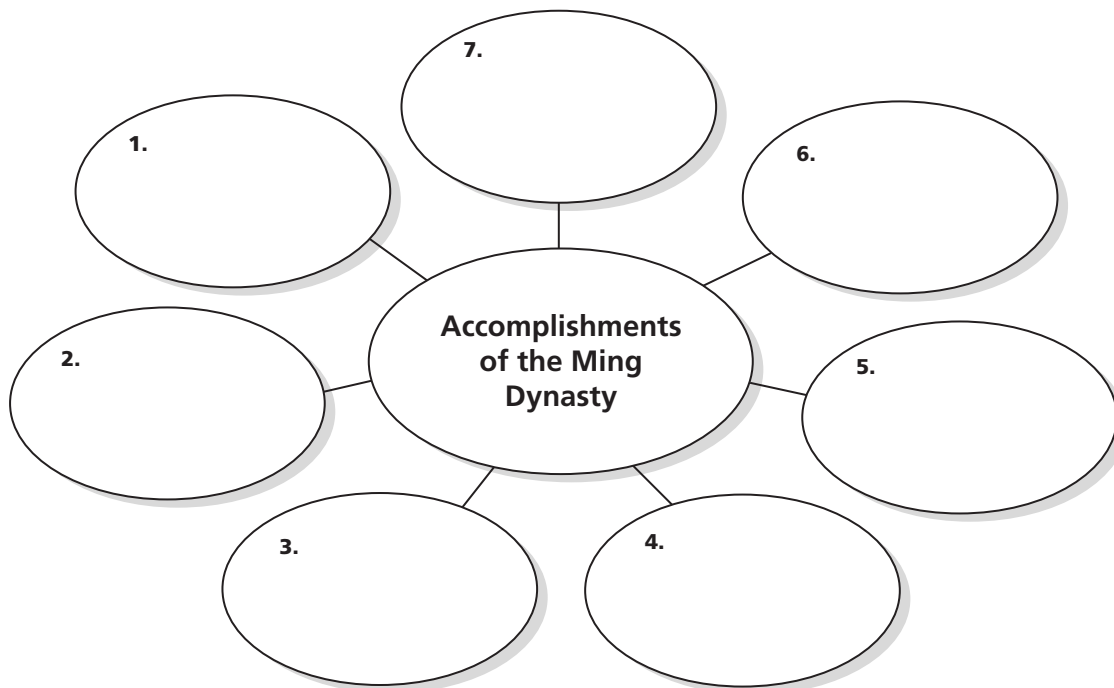
DRAWING FROM EXPERIENCE

What do you think life would be like in the United States if we did not have any contact with other countries? Do you think your own life would be affected very much? Why or why not?

In this section, you will learn about China during the Ming and Qing dynasties. During the Qing dynasty, the Chinese government began to limit contacts between Europeans and Chinese.

ORGANIZING YOUR THOUGHTS

Use the concept web below to help you take notes. During the Ming dynasty, China was at the height of its power as the most magnificent civilization on Earth. List seven accomplishments during the Ming dynasty.



Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 16, Section 1 (continued)

READ TO LEARN

• The Ming Dynasty (page 485)

The Mongol dynasty in China was overthrown in 1368. The founder of the new dynasty took the title of Ming Hong Wu (the Ming Martial Emperor). This was the beginning of the Ming dynasty, which lasted until 1644. The Ming dynasty was a time of greatness in Chinese history. The Chinese extended their rule into Mongolia and central Asia. They strengthened the Great Wall and made peace with nomadic tribes in the north. The Ming rulers had an effective government using a bureaucracy made up of officials chosen by the civil service examination system. They also set up a nationwide school system. More manufactured goods were produced in workshops and factories. New crops were introduced. These crops greatly increased food production. The Ming rulers also completed the Grand Canal. This made it possible to ship grain and other goods from southern to northern China.

Ming Hong Wu died in 1398. His son Yong Le then became emperor. Yong Le began construction of the Imperial City in Beijing in 1406. In 1421, he moved the capital from Nanjing to Beijing. For nearly 500 years, the Imperial City was the home to China's emperors. It is known today as the Forbidden City. Yong Le also built large monuments, strengthened the Great Wall, restored Chinese rule over Vietnam, and sent ships into the Indian Ocean. The ships sailed as far west as the eastern coast of Africa. The voyages were led by the court official Zheng He. The ships returned with items unknown in China and information about the outside world. The voyages also led to huge profits. Many traditionalists in the bureaucracy were upset, because they held the Confucian view that trading activities were unworthy. After Yong Le's death, the voyages were stopped and were never revived.

In 1514, a Portuguese fleet arrived off the coast of China. It was the first direct contact between the Chinese Empire and Europe since the journeys of Marco Polo. At first, the Portuguese had little impact on Chinese society. The emperor viewed Europeans as barbarians. Direct trade between Europe and China remained limited. But an exchange of ideas and cultures took place. Christian missionaries made the voyage to China on European merchant ships. They were impressed with many aspects of Chinese civilization, such as the teachings of Confucius, the printing and availability of books, and Chinese architecture. Chinese officials marveled at European inventions that were brought by the missionaries, such as clocks and eyeglasses.

During the late sixteenth century, a series of weak rulers led to a period of government corruption in China. High taxes led to peasant unrest. Crop production declined because of bad weather. In the 1630s, a major epidemic killed many people. The suffering caused by the epidemic helped spark a peasant revolt led by Li Zicheng. In 1644, Li and his forces occupied Beijing. The last Ming emperor hung himself from a tree in the palace gardens.

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Chapter 16, Section 1 *(continued)*

8. What impact did the Portuguese have in China in the sixteenth century?

• **Qing Dynasty** (*page 488*)

The overthrow of the Ming dynasty created an opening for the Manchus. The Manchus were a farming and hunting people who lived northeast of the Great Wall in the area known today as Manchuria. They defeated Li Zicheng’s army and conquered Beijing. The Manchus declared the creation of a new dynasty called the Qing (meaning “pure”). This dynasty remained in power from 1644 until 1911. At first, the Chinese resisted the new rulers. Rebels seized the island of Taiwan just off the coast of China. To make it easier to identify the rebels, the government ordered all men to adopt Manchu dress and hairstyles. All Chinese men had to shave their foreheads and braid their hair into a pigtail called a **queue**. Those who refused were executed.

The Qing eventually adopted the Chinese political system and were gradually accepted as the legitimate rulers of the country. But they faced one major problem. The Manchus were ethnically and culturally different from the rest of the Chinese. The Qing dealt with this in two ways. First, they tried to preserve their distinct identity within Chinese society. The Manchus were defined legally as distinct from everyone else in China. In the military, Manchus were organized into separate units, called **banners**. Second, the Qing brought Chinese people into the imperial administration. Most of the lower posts were filled by Chinese, although they held a much smaller share of the top positions. The Manchus’ willingness to share power won the support of many Chinese.

Kangxi was perhaps the greatest emperor in Chinese history. He ruled from 1661 to 1722. He calmed the unrest along the northern and western frontiers. He was a patron of the arts and gained the support of scholars throughout the country. He was also tolerant of Christian missionaries. It is estimated that three hundred thousand Chinese became Catholics during his reign. After the death of Kangxi, however, his successor began to suppress Christian activities in China.

Qianlong was another outstanding Qing ruler. He ruled from 1736 to 1795. As he grew older, however, he fell under the influence of destructive elements at court. Corrupt officials and higher taxes led to unrest in rural areas. Growing pressure on the land due to population growth led to economic hardship for many peasants. In central China, unhappy peasants started a

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Chapter 16, Section 1 *(continued)*

revolt known as the White Lotus Rebellion. The revolt was suppressed, but the expenses of fighting the rebels weakened the Qing dynasty. At the same time, Europe was seeking more trade with China. At first, the Qing government sold trade privileges to the Europeans. However, to limit contacts between Europeans and Chinese, the Qing confined all Europeans to a small island outside Guangzhou. They also limited the number of Chinese firms that European traders could deal with.

By the end of the eighteenth century, British traders began to demand access to additional cities along the Chinese coast. At the same time, the Chinese government was under pressure from their own merchants to open China to British manufactured goods. In 1793, a British mission led by Lord George Macartney visited Beijing to ask for more liberal trade policies. But Emperor Qianlong wrote to King George III that China had no need of British manufactured goods.

9. How did the Qing deal with the ethnic and cultural differences in China?

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For use with textbook pages 491–494

CHINESE SOCIETY AND CULTURE

KEY TERMS

commercial capitalism private business based on profit (page 492)

clan a group of related families (page 493)

porcelain a ceramic made of fine clay baked at very high temperatures (page 494)

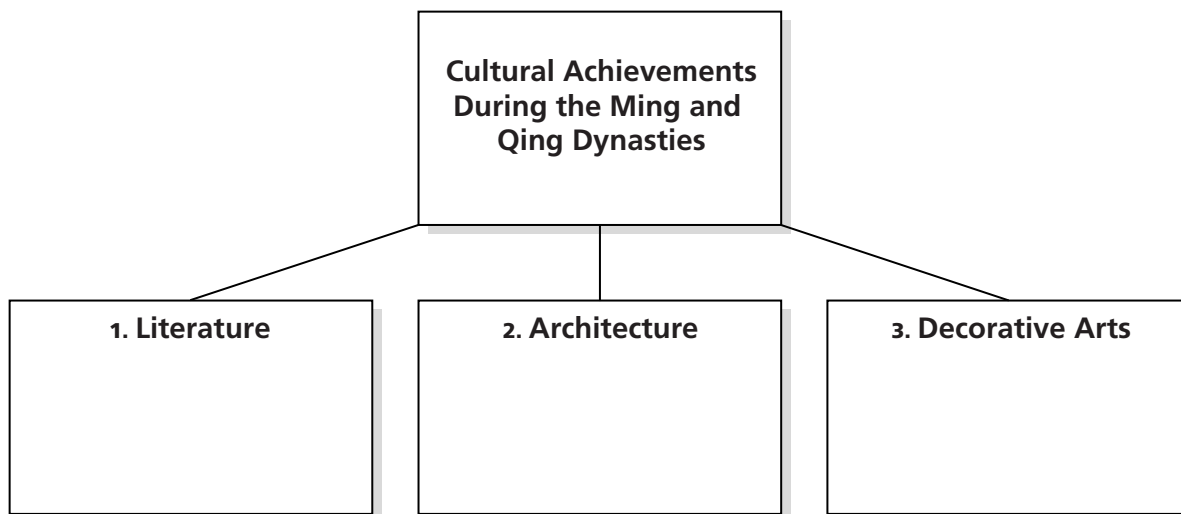
DRAWING FROM EXPERIENCE

How many people live in your home? Do any of your grandparents live with you? How often do you see your other relatives, such as aunts, uncles, and cousins?

The last section focused on politics and government during the Ming and Qing dynasties. In this section, you will learn about economic changes, cultural developments, and daily life during this period. In Chinese families, as many as three or four generations lived together under the same roof.

ORGANIZING YOUR THOUGHTS

Use the diagram below to help you take notes. During the late Ming and the early Qing dynasties, culture in China reached new heights. List at least one example of Chinese cultural achievements in the areas of literature, architecture, and decorative arts.



Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 16, Section 2 (continued)

READ TO LEARN

- **Economic Changes** (page 491)

Between 1500 and 1800, China was a mostly agricultural society. Nearly 85 percent of the people were small farmers. But the Chinese economy was changing. The population increased to more than 300 million by the end of the 1700s. One cause of this population increase was the peace and stability under the early Qing dynasty. Another cause was the food supply. A faster growing rice from Southeast Asia increased the food supply. The population increase meant that there was less land available for each family. The emperor tried to make more land available by limiting the amount wealthy landowners could hold. By the eighteenth century, however, almost all the land that could be farmed was being farmed.

Another change in this period was a growth in trade and manufacturing. Trade in silk, porcelain, cotton goods, and other products increased. China did not develop the kind of **commercial capitalism** (private business based on profit) that was emerging in Europe, however. Trade and manufacturing in China were under the control of the government. In China, trade and manufacturing were considered inferior to farming. The government levied heavy taxes on manufacturing and trade and low taxes on farming.

4. What were two causes of the population increase in China?

- **Daily Life** (page 492)

Chinese society was organized around the family. All family members were expected to sacrifice their individual desires for the benefit of the family as a whole. The ideal family unit was the extended family. As many as three or four generations lived under the same roof. When sons married, they brought their wives to live with them in the family home. The Chinese respected the elderly. Aging parents knew that they would be cared for by their children. Beyond the extended family was the **clan**. The clan consisted of dozens, or even hundreds, of related families. The clan system made it possible for wealthier families to help poorer relatives.

Women were considered inferior to men in Chinese society. Only males could have a formal education and pursue a career in government or scholarship. Legally, a woman could not divorce her husband or inherit property. The

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Chapter 16, Section 2 (continued)

husband, on the other hand, could divorce his wife if she did not produce sons. He could also take a second wife. One-half to two-thirds of the women in China bound their feet. The process of footbinding was begun in childhood and was very painful. But bound feet were a status symbol. Women who had bound feet were more marriageable than those who did not. Because women who had bound feet could not walk, women who worked in the fields or in occupations that required mobility did not bind their feet.

5. In what ways were women treated as inferior to men in Chinese society?

• Cultural Developments (page 494)

During the Ming dynasty, a new form of literature arose that eventually evolved into the modern Chinese novel. One Chinese novel, *The Golden Lotus*, is considered by many people to be the first realistic social novel. *The Dream of the Red Chamber*, by Cao Xuegin, is still considered to be China's most distinguished popular novel. It was published in 1791.

Art flourished during the Ming and early Qing dynasties. In architecture, the most outstanding example is the Imperial City in Beijing. Perhaps the most famous of all the arts of the Ming Era was blue-and-white **porcelain**. Europeans admired this porcelain and bought huge quantities of it.

6. What novel is considered to be China's most distinguished popular novel?

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Chapter 16, Section 3

For use with textbook pages 496–500

TOKUGAWA JAPAN AND KOREA

KEY TERMS

daimyo heads of noble families in Japan (*page 497*)

han a separate territory or domain in Japan, each ruled by a daimyo (*page 497*)

hostage system a system that the shogunate used to control the daimyo, by forcing the families of the daimyo to stay in Edo, where the court of the shogun was located (*page 498*)

eta outcasts in Japan during the Tokugawa Era (*page 499*)

DRAWING FROM EXPERIENCE

Are some occupations valued more highly than others in the United States? Which occupations do you think are the most highly valued? Which ones do you think are considered the least desirable?

In the last two sections, you learned about China during the Ming and Qing dynasties. In this section, you will learn about Japan and Korea during the Tokugawa Era, which lasted from 1598 to 1868. During this period, Japan developed a rigid class system, based largely on occupations.

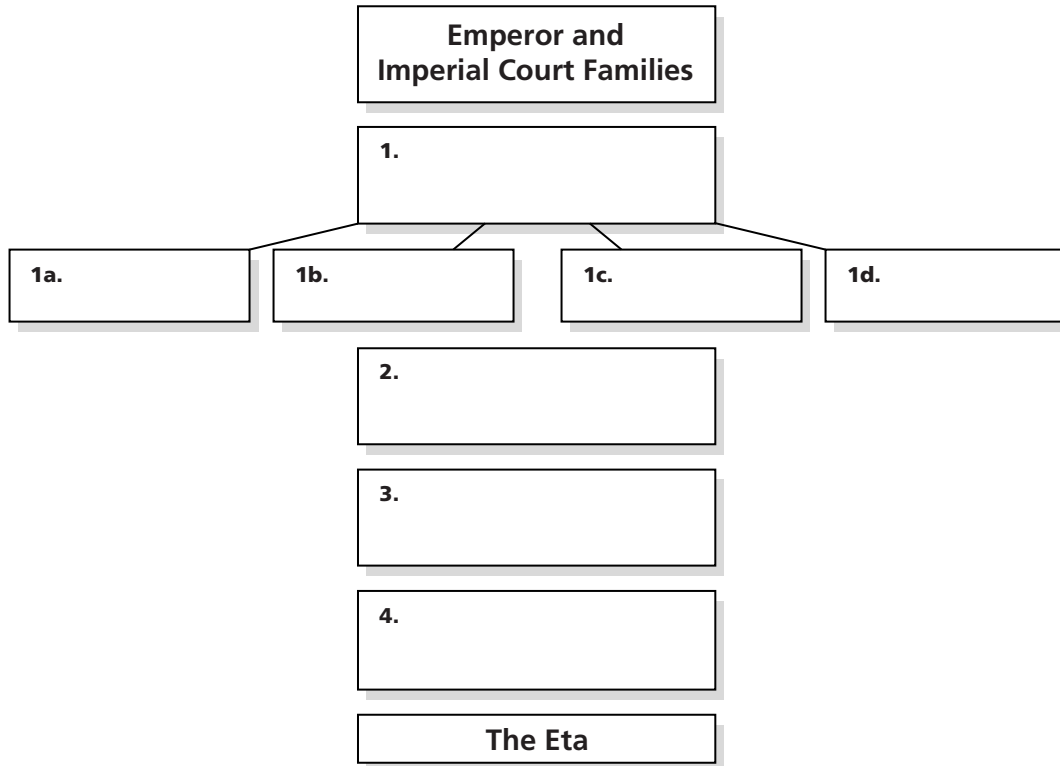
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Chapter 16, Section 3 (continued)

ORGANIZING YOUR THOUGHTS

Use the diagram below to help you take notes. List the four main social classes in Japan during the Tokugawa Era. Also identify the four groups that made up the first class.

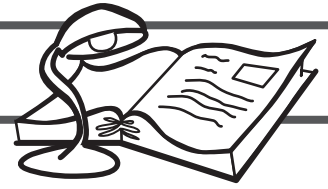


READ TO LEARN

• The Three Great Unifiers (page 496)

At the end of the fifteenth century, Japan was in chaos. The power of the shogunate had collapsed. **Daimyo** (heads of noble families) controlled their own lands and warred with their neighbors. In the late sixteenth century, however, Japan began to be unified. Three powerful people brought about this unification. Oda Nobunaga seized the imperial capital of Kyoto and placed the reigning shogun under his control. During the next few years, he tried to consolidate his rule throughout the central plains. He was succeeded by Toyotomi Hideyoshi. Hideyoshi was a farmer's son who became a military commander. By 1590, he had persuaded most of the daimyo to accept his authority. After Hideyoshi's death in 1598, Tokugawa Ieyasu took control of Japan. He was the powerful daimyo of Edo. In 1603, he took the title of shogun. Tokugawa shoguns remained in power until 1868. Their rule brought a long period of peace known as the "Great Peace."

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Chapter 16, Section 3 (continued)

5. What period in Japanese history is known as the “Great Peace”?

• Europeans in Japan (page 497)

Portuguese traders landed in Japan in 1543. At first, they were welcomed. The Japanese were fascinated by tobacco, clocks, eyeglasses, and other European goods. Daimyo were interested in buying all types of European weapons. In 1549, the first Jesuit missionary, Francis Xavier, arrived. By the end of the sixteenth century, thousands of Japanese had become Christians. However, the Jesuits destroyed shrines. This caused a severe reaction. In 1587, Hideyoshi issued an edict prohibiting Christian activities within his lands. At first, the edict was not strictly enforced, and Jesuits were allowed to continue their activities. Under Tokugawa Ieyasu, however, all missionaries were expelled, and Japanese Christians were persecuted. European merchants were also expelled from Japan. Only a small Dutch community in Nagasaki was allowed to remain in Japan.

6. What caused Jesuit missionaries to be expelled from Japan?

• Tokugawa Rule (page 497)

The Tokugawa rulers set out to establish control of the feudal system that had governed Japan for over three hundred years. The state was divided into about 250 separate territories, called **hans**, or domains. Each was ruled by a daimyo. The shogunate controlled the daimyo by a **hostage system**. In this system, the daimyo were required to maintain two residences, one in their own lands and one in Edo. Edo was the location of the shogun’s court. When the daimyo was away from his residence in Edo, his family was forced to stay there. During the Tokugawa Era, the samurai who had served the daimyo gradually ceased to be a warrior class. Many of them became managers on the lands of the daimyo.

7. How did the role of the samurai change during the Tokugawa Era?

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Chapter 16, Section 3 (continued)

- **Economic and Social Changes** (page 498)

A major economic change took place during the Tokugawa Era. Previously, trade and industry had been considered undesirable. Under the Tokugawa, trade and industry began to flourish. Banking also flourished, and paper money became the normal medium of exchange in business transactions. A Japanese merchant class emerged.

Some farm families benefited from the growing demand for cash crops (crops grown for sale). Most peasants, however, experienced both declining profits and rising costs and taxes. Many were forced to become tenants or to work as hired help. When conditions became desperate, some peasants revolted. Almost seven thousand peasant revolts and demonstrations against high taxes took place during the Tokugawa Era.

During this era, Japan's class system became rigid. There were four main classes: warriors, peasants, artisans, and merchants. The emperor and imperial court were at the very top of the political and social structure. Next came the warrior class. This class was composed of the shogun, daimyo, samurai, and ronin. The ronin were warriors without masters who traveled the countryside seeking employment. Below the warriors were the farmers (peasants). Next was the artisan class, which included craftspeople such as swordmakers and carpenters. The merchant class was at the bottom because they profited from the labor of others. Below these classes were Japan's outcasts, the **eta**. The Tokugawa had strict laws for the eta. They regulated the places of residence, the dress, and even the hairstyles of the eta.

The role of women in Tokugawa society became somewhat more restricted. Men had broad authority over property, marriage, and divorce. Parents arranged marriages, and a wife was expected to move in with her husband's family. A wife who did not meet the expectations of her husband or his family was likely to be divorced. Among the common people, women were generally valued for their roles as childbearers and homemakers. Both sexes worked in the fields.

8. Why did so many peasant revolts and demonstrations take place during the Tokugawa Era?

- **Tokugawa Culture** (page 499)

In the Tokugawa Era, popular literature written by and for townspeople began to appear. The best examples of the new urban fiction were the works of Ihara Saikaku. His greatest novel, *Five Women Who Loved Love*, has a tragic theme, but much of the popular literature of the Tokugawa Era was light-hearted. Exquisite poetry was also written during this period. The greatest of all Japanese poets, Matsuo Basho, lived during the seventeenth century.

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Chapter 16, Section 3 (continued)

Kabuki theater began to appear in the cities. Kabuki dramas were full of action, music, and dramatic gestures. Early dramas dealt with the world of teahouses and dance halls. Government officials feared that these dramas could corrupt the nation’s morals, so they forbade women to appear on stage. This led to the creation of a new professional class of actors who impersonated female characters.

Architecture flourished during this period because of the shogun’s order that all daimyo have residences in Edo. Nobles competed to build the most magnificent mansions. Japanese art during this period was influenced by other cultures. Japanese pottery makers borrowed techniques from Korea. The Japanese studied Western medicine, astronomy, languages, and painting styles. In turn, Westerners wanted Japanese ceramics.

9. Why did architecture flourish during the Tokugawa Era?

- **Korea: The Hermit Kingdom** (page 500)

The Yi dynasty in Korea was founded at the end of the fourteenth century. It remained in power during the entire Tokugawa Era in Japan. Yi rulers patterned their society after Chinese society. Korean rulers tried to keep their country isolated from the outside world. Because of this, Korea was referred to as “the Hermit Kingdom.” In the late sixteenth century, however, a Japanese force under Toyotomi Hideyoshi invaded Korea. The Japanese were defeated, but Korea was devastated. In the 1630s, a Manchu army invaded northern Korea and forced the Yi dynasty to become subject to China. Although Korea was not able to remain completely isolated, it was largely untouched by European merchants and missionaries.

10. What influence did Europeans have on Korea during the Tokugawa Era?

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Chapter 17, Section 1

For use with textbook pages 511–517

THE SCIENTIFIC REVOLUTION

KEY TERMS

- geocentric** (Earth-centered) placing Earth at the center of the universe (*page 513*)
- Ptolemaic system** a model of the universe constructed by philosophers of the Middle Ages that was based on the ideas of Ptolemy, a second-century astronomer (*page 513*)
- heliocentric** (sun-centered) placing the Sun at the center of the universe (*page 513*)
- universal law of gravitation** a law of nature defined by Isaac Newton that states that every object in the universe is attracted to every other object by a force called gravity (*page 514*)
- rationalism** a system of thought based on the belief that reason is the chief source of knowledge (*page 517*)
- scientific method** a systematic procedure for collecting and analyzing evidence (*page 517*)
- inductive reasoning** reasoning from particular facts to general principles (*page 517*)

DRAWING FROM EXPERIENCE

What field of science do you find most interesting? What aspects of the science make it most interesting to you?

In this section, you will learn how changes in scientific thought during the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries gave Europeans a new way to view the universe and their place in the universe.

ORGANIZING YOUR THOUGHTS

Use the chart below to help you take notes. Identify the contributions that the following people made to the Scientific Revolution.

| Scientist/Philosopher | Contributions to the Scientific Revolution |
|-----------------------|--|
| Copernicus | 1. |
| Kepler | 2. |
| Galileo | 3. |
| Newton | 4. |
| Bacon | 5. |

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 17, Section 1 (continued)

READ TO LEARN

- **Background to the Revolution** (page 511)

Medieval scientists were known as “natural philosophers.” They did not make observations of the natural world. They relied on a few ancient philosophers, especially Aristotle, for their scientific knowledge. In the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries, natural philosophers began to give up their old views and develop new ones. Renaissance humanists had learned Greek and Latin. They were able to read works by Ptolemy, Archimedes, and Plato. These writings made it obvious that some ancient thinkers disagreed with Aristotle. At the same time, the invention of new instruments, such as the telescope and microscope, made new scientific discoveries possible. The printing press helped spread new ideas quickly and easily.

Mathematics played an important role in the scientific achievements of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries. Nicholas Copernicus, Johannes Kepler, Galileo Galilei, and Isaac Newton were all great mathematicians who believed that the secrets of nature were written in the language of mathematics. After studying the ideas of the ancient mathematicians, they sometimes rejected these ideas. They developed new theories that became the foundation of the Scientific Revolution.

6. What developments in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries caused natural philosophers to give up their old ideas and develop new ones?

- **A Revolution in Astronomy** (page 512)

Discoveries in astronomy were an important part of the Scientific Revolution. These discoveries changed how Westerners viewed the universe. During the Middle Ages, philosophers had created a model of the universe known as the **Ptolemaic system**. Ptolemy was the greatest astronomer of antiquity. He lived during the second century A.D. It was from his ideas and those of Aristotle that philosophers had built the Ptolemaic system. This system is called **geocentric** because it places Earth at the center of the universe. According to this system, the universe is a series of concentric spheres (spheres one inside the other). Earth is fixed, or motionless, at the center of these spheres. The rotation of these spheres makes the heavenly bodies rotate around Earth.

In 1543, Nicolas Copernicus published his famous book, *On the Revolutions of the Heavenly Spheres*. Copernicus believed in a **heliocentric**, or sun-centered, model of the universe. He believed that the Sun, not Earth, was at the center

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Chapter 17, Section 1 (continued)

of the universe. The planets, including Earth, revolved around the Sun. Another mathematician, Johannes Kepler, used detailed astronomical data to create laws of planetary motion. His observations confirmed that the Sun was at the center of the universe. He also discovered that the orbits of the planets around the Sun were not circular, as Copernicus had thought. Instead, the orbits were elliptical (egg-shaped).

Another mathematician, Galileo Galilei, was the first European to make regular observations of the heavens with a telescope. He discovered mountains on the Moon, four moons revolving around Jupiter, and sunspots. His observations indicated that heavenly bodies were not pure orbs of light, but were composed of material substance like Earth. After Galileo published his discoveries in *The Starry Messenger* in 1610, the Catholic Church ordered him to abandon the Copernican system. The new system threatened the Church's view of the universe and seemed to contradict the Bible. In spite of the Church's position, by the 1630s and 1640s, most astronomers had come to accept the heliocentric model. However, the problem of explaining motion in the universe had not been solved.

Isaac Newton is considered the greatest genius of the Scientific Revolution. His major work, *Mathematical Principles of Natural Philosophy*, is also known as *Principia* (the first word of its Latin title). In the *Principia*, Newton defined the three laws of motion that govern both the planetary bodies and objects on Earth. The **universal law of gravitation** explains why the planetary bodies do not go off in straight lines but continue in elliptical orbits around the Sun. The law states that every object in the universe is attracted to every other object by a force called gravity. Newton's laws created a new picture of the universe. It was now seen as a huge machine that worked according to natural laws.

7. What is the main difference between the geocentric and heliocentric models of the universe?

- **Breakthroughs in Medicine and Chemistry** (page 515)

A revolution in medicine also began in the sixteenth century. In 1543, Andreas Vesalius wrote *On the Fabric of the Human Body*. In this book, he discussed what he had found when dissecting human bodies. He presented a careful and accurate examination of human organs and the general structure of the human body. In 1628, William Harvey published *On the Motion of the Heart and Blood*. His work was based on close observations and experiments.

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Chapter 17, Section 1 (continued)

Harvey showed that the heart was the beginning point for the circulation of blood in the body. He also proved that the same blood flowed in both veins and arteries and that it makes a complete circuit as it passes through the body. These observations disproved many of the theories of Galen, a second century Greek physician. His theories had dominated medicine in the Middle Ages.

The science of chemistry also arose in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries. Robert Boyle was one of the first scientists to conduct controlled experiments. His work on the properties of gas led to Boyle's Law. This law states that the volume of a gas varies with the pressure exerted on it. In the eighteenth century, Antoine Lavoisier invented a system of naming the chemical elements. He is considered by many to be the founder of modern chemistry.

8. Whose theories were disproved by William Harvey's observations?

• Women and the Origins of Modern Science (page 515)

Women as well as men were involved in the Scientific Revolution. Margaret Cavendish was one of the most prominent female scientists of the seventeenth century. She wrote a number of works on scientific matters, including *Observations Upon Experimental Philosophy*. In her work, she was critical of the belief that humans, through science, were masters of nature. In Germany, many of the women who were involved in science were astronomers. The most famous of the female astronomers in Germany was Maria Winkelmann. She made some original contributions to astronomy, including the discovery of a comet. However, when Winkelmann applied for a position as an assistant astronomer at the Berlin Academy, she was denied the position because she was a woman, even though she was highly qualified. Women scientists often faced these kinds of obstacles because scientific work was considered to be men's work.

9. What obstacles did women scientists face in the seventeenth century?

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Chapter 17, Section 1 (continued)

- **Descartes and Reason** (page 516)

The Scientific Revolution strongly influenced the Western view of man. This is especially evident in the work of the seventeenth-century French philosopher René Descartes. The starting point for Descartes was doubt. In his most famous work, *Discourse on Method*, Descartes decided to set aside everything that he had learned and to begin again. One fact seemed to him to be beyond doubt—his own existence. From his first principle—“I think, therefore I am”—Descartes used his reason to arrive at a second principle, the separation of mind and matter. He argued that because “the mind cannot be doubted but the body and material world can, the two must be radically different.” Descartes’s idea that mind and matter were completely separate allowed scientists to view matter as something that was totally detached from themselves and that could be investigated by reason. Descartes has been called the father of modern **rationalism**. This system of thought is based on the belief that reason is the chief source of knowledge.

10. What were Descartes’s first two principles?

- **The Scientific Method** (page 517)

During the Scientific Revolution, the **scientific method** was created. The scientific method is a systematic procedure for collecting and analyzing evidence. The person who developed the scientific method was Francis Bacon. He believed that instead of relying on the ideas of ancient authorities, scientists should use **inductive reasoning** to learn about nature. Scientists should proceed from the particular to the general. Systematic observations and carefully organized experiments to test hypotheses (theories) would lead to general principles. Bacon also believed that science could give humans power over nature.

11. According to Francis Bacon, how should scientists learn about nature?

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Chapter 17, Section 2

For use with textbook pages 518–525

THE ENLIGHTENMENT

KEY TERMS

philosophe an intellectual of the Enlightenment (*page 519*)

separation of powers the division of a government into executive, legislative, and judicial branches that limit and control each other in a system of checks and balances (*page 520*)

deism an eighteenth-century religious philosophy based on the idea that the world is a machine and that God is a mechanic who created the world and allows it to run without his interference, according to its own natural laws (*page 520*)

laissez-faire (“to let [people] do [what they want]”) the belief that government should not interfere in economic matters (*page 521*)

social contract in the theories of philosophers such as Locke and Rousseau, an agreement among individuals that they will be governed by the general will (*page 522*)

salon elegant drawing rooms of the wealthy upper class, in which writers, artists, aristocrats, and government officials gathered to take part in conversations that were often centered on the ideas of the philosophes (*page 524*)

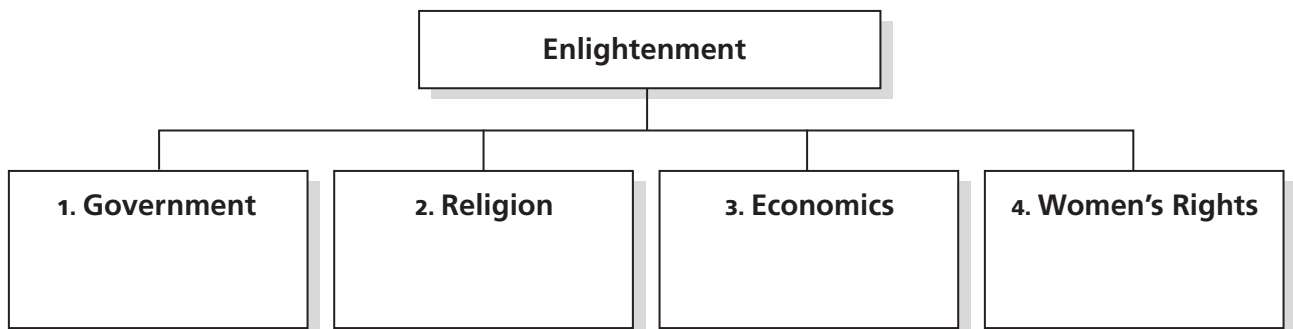
DRAWING FROM EXPERIENCE

Imagine that you are hosting a gathering of famous musicians, artists, writers, and politicians. Who would you ask to the gathering? Why?

In the last section, you read about the Scientific Revolution during the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries. In the eighteenth century, intellectuals used the ideas of the Scientific Revolution to reexamine all aspects of life. They often held gatherings to discuss these new Enlightenment ideas.

ORGANIZING YOUR THOUGHTS

Use the diagram below to help you take notes. Summarize the influence of Enlightenment ideas on government, religion, economics, and women’s rights.



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Chapter 17, Section 2 (continued)

READ TO LEARN

• Path to the Enlightenment (page 518)

The Enlightenment was an eighteenth-century philosophical movement of intellectuals who were impressed with the achievements of the Scientific Revolution. They hoped that by using the scientific method, they could make progress toward a better society. Words such as *reason*, *natural law*, *hope*, and *progress* were common words to the thinkers of the Enlightenment. The Enlightenment was especially influenced by the ideas of Isaac Newton and John Locke. To Newton, the physical world and everything in it was a giant machine. Because Newton had discovered natural laws that governed the physical world, the intellectuals of the Enlightenment thought they could discover the natural laws that governed human society. John Locke's theory of knowledge also greatly affected eighteenth-century intellectuals. Locke believed that people were born with blank minds and were molded by the experiences that came through their senses from the surrounding world. He believed that if environments were changed and people were exposed to the right influences, people could be changed and a new society could be created.

5. How did the ideas of Isaac Newton and John Locke influence the intellectuals of the Enlightenment?

• Philosophes and Their Ideas (page 519)

The intellectuals of the Enlightenment were known by the French name **philosophe**. To the philosophes, the purpose of philosophy was to change the world. A spirit of rational criticism was to be applied to everything, including religion and politics. Three French philosophers, Montesquieu, Voltaire, and Diderot, dominated Enlightenment thought. Montesquieu's most famous work, *The Spirit of the Laws*, was published in 1748. This work was a study of governments. Montesquieu tried to use the scientific method to find the natural laws that govern the social and political relationships of human beings. He identified three basic kinds of governments: republics, despotism, and monarchies. In his study of the English monarchy, he identified three branches: the executive, the legislative, and the judicial. The government functioned through a **separation of powers**. In this separation, the three branches limit and control each other in a system of checks and balances. By preventing any one person or group from gaining too much power, this system provides the greatest freedom and security for the state. Montesquieu's work was translated into English and influenced the U.S. Constitution.

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Chapter 17, Section 2 (continued)

The greatest figure of the Enlightenment was François-Marie Arouet, known simply as Voltaire. He wrote many pamphlets, novels, plays, letters, essays, and histories, which brought him both fame and wealth. He was especially well known for his criticism of Christianity and his strong belief in religious tolerance. He believed in **deism**, an eighteenth-century religious philosophy based on reason and natural law. Deism was built on the idea of the Newtonian world-machine. In the Deists' view, a mechanic (God) had created the universe. The universe was like a clock. God had created it, set it in motion, and allowed it to run without his interference, according to its own natural laws.

Denis Diderot was a writer who studied and read in many subjects and languages. His most famous contribution to the Enlightenment was his *Encyclopedia*. This was a 28-volume collection of knowledge that he edited. The purpose of the *Encyclopedia* was to “change the general way of thinking.” Many of its articles attacked religious superstition and supported religious toleration. Other articles called for social, legal, and political improvements that could lead to a more tolerant and humane society. The *Encyclopedia* was sold to doctors, clergymen, teachers, and lawyers, and helped to spread the ideas of the Enlightenment.

6. How did the ideas of Newton affect religious beliefs in the eighteenth century?

• Toward a New Social Science (page 521)

The philosophes' belief that there are natural laws that govern human society led to the development of the social sciences (areas such as economics and political science). The Physiocrats and Adam Smith are considered the founders of the social science of economics. The Physiocrats believed that if individuals were free to pursue their own economic self-interest, all society would ultimately benefit. They believed that government should not interrupt the free play of natural economic forces by imposing regulations on the economy. This doctrine became known by its French name, **laissez-faire**, meaning to “let (people) do (what they want).” The best statement of laissez-faire was made by Adam Smith in his work *The Wealth of Nations*. Smith believed that government should not interfere in economic matters. He believed that government should only have three basic roles: protecting society from invasion (the army); defending citizens from injustice (the police); and keeping up certain public works, such as roads and canals.

By the eighteenth century, most European states had developed a system of courts to deal with crime. Punishments for crimes were often cruel. It was believed that extreme punishments were needed to deter crime. One

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Chapter 17, Section 2 (continued)

philosophe proposed a new approach to justice. His name was Cesare Beccaria. He argued that punishments should not be cruel. He also opposed capital punishment. He did not believe that it stopped people from committing crimes.

7. What roles did Adam Smith believe that governments should and should not have?

- **The Later Enlightenment** (page 522)

By the late 1760s, there was a new generation of philosophes. The most famous was Jean-Jacques Rousseau. In his *Discourse on the Origins of the Inequality of Mankind*, Rousseau argued that people had adopted laws and government in order to protect their property. In the process, they had become enslaved by government. In another work, *The Social Contract*, Rousseau explained his concept of the **social contract**. Through a social contract, an entire society agrees to be governed by its general will. Individuals who wish to follow their own self-interests must be forced to abide by the general will.

Unlike many Enlightenment thinkers, Rousseau believed that emotions, as well as reason, were important to human development. He sought a balance between emotions and reason.

8. What was Rousseau's concept of the social contract?

- **Rights of Women** (page 523)

By the eighteenth century, female writers began to express their ideas about improving the condition of women. Mary Wollstonecraft is often viewed as the founder of the movement for women's rights. In her book, *A Vindication of the Rights of Women*, Wollstonecraft identified two problems with the views of many Enlightenment thinkers. She argued that if government based on the arbitrary power of monarchs was wrong, the power of men over women was equally wrong. She also argued that the Enlightenment was based on the idea of reason in all human beings. Because women have reason, they are entitled to the same rights as men.

9. What two arguments did Mary Wollstonecraft use to show that women should have equal rights?

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Chapter 17, Section 2 (continued)

- **Social World of the Enlightenment** (page 523)

The common people, especially the peasants, were mostly unaware of the Enlightenment. The Enlightenment had its greatest appeal with the aristocrats and upper classes in large cities. In the eighteenth century, publishing and reading began to grow. This was important to the spread of the Enlightenment. Many books were now directed at the new reading public of the middle classes, which included women and artisans. The development of daily newspapers and magazines for the general public began in the eighteenth century. The first daily newspaper was printed in London in 1702.

Enlightenment ideas were also spread through the **salon**. Salons were elegant drawing rooms of the wealthy upper class. Guests gathered in these salons and discussed the ideas of the philosophes. The salons brought writers and artists together with aristocrats, government officials, and wealthy middle-class people. The women who hosted the salons were in a position to sway political opinion and influence literary and artistic taste.

10. How did the salons help to spread Enlightenment ideas?

- **Religion in the Enlightenment** (page 525)

Although many philosophes attacked Christianity, most Europeans in the eighteenth century were still Christians. Many people sought a deeper personal devotion to God. In England, the most famous new religious movement was Methodism. This was the work of John Wesley, an Anglican minister. Wesley preached to the masses in open fields. He appealed especially to the lower classes. His sermons often caused people to have conversion experiences. Many of these converts joined Methodist societies in which they helped each other do good works. In this way, Methodism gave the lower and middle classes a sense of purpose and community. It proved that the need for spiritual experience had not been eliminated by the eighteenth-century search for reason.

11. How does Methodism prove that the need for spiritual experience had not been eliminated in the eighteenth century?

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Chapter 17, Section 3

For use with textbook pages 526–534

THE IMPACT OF THE ENLIGHTENMENT

KEY TERMS

rococo an artistic style in the eighteenth century that emphasized grace, charm, and gentle action (page 527)

enlightened absolutism a type of monarchy in which rulers tried to govern by Enlightenment principles, while maintaining their royal powers (page 529)

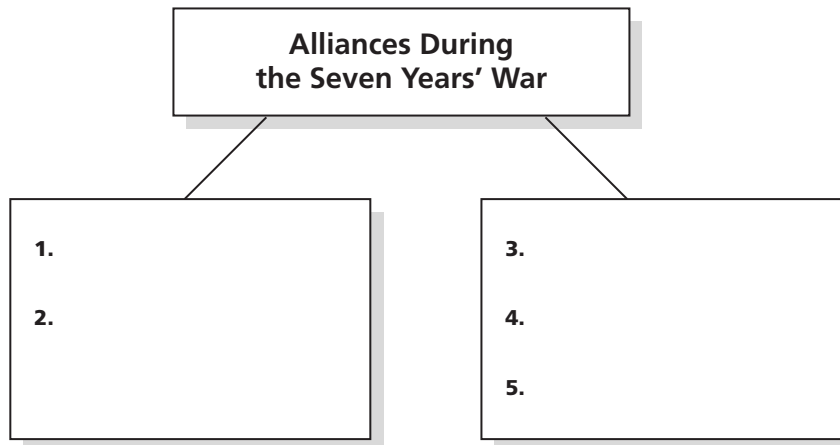
DRAWING FROM EXPERIENCE

Do you like classical music? Do you enjoy attending symphony performances? What composers do you like best?

In the last section, you read about the ideas of the Enlightenment. In this section, you will learn how these ideas had an impact on art, music, literature, and politics during the eighteenth century. Some of the world's greatest composers lived during this period.

ORGANIZING YOUR THOUGHTS

Use the diagram below to help you take notes. During the Seven Years' War, new alliances developed in Europe. Identify the members of the two new alliances.



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Chapter 17, Section 3 (continued)

READ TO LEARN

- **The Arts** (page 526)

During the eighteenth century, important achievements were made in architecture, art, music, and literature. After Louis XIV built the palace of Versailles in the seventeenth century, other European rulers began to build elaborate palaces. Most of these palaces were modeled after the Italian baroque style of the 1500s and 1600s. One of the greatest architects of the eighteenth century was Balthasar Neumann. His two masterpieces are the Church of the Fourteen Saints in southern Germany and the Residence, the palace of the prince-bishop of Würzburg.

The baroque and neoclassical styles continued into the eighteenth century. By the 1730s, however, a new artistic style had spread all over Europe. It is known as **rococo**. Rococo emphasized grace, charm, and gentle action. It made use of delicate designs with graceful curves. Its lightness and charm spoke of the pursuit of happiness, pleasure, and love. One of the most famous rococo painters was Antoine Watteau. In his paintings, upper-class men and women are depicted in a world of pleasure and joy. Another aspect of rococo was a sense of enchantment and enthusiasm. This is especially evident in the works of Giovanni Battista Tiepolo. His masterpiece is the ceiling of the bishop's residence at Würzburg.

The eighteenth century was one of the greatest periods in the history of European music. Johann Sebastian Bach and George Frederick Handel were two musical geniuses who composed music during the first half of the century. They perfected the baroque musical style. During the second half of the century, two other geniuses, Franz Joseph Haydn and Wolfgang Amadeus Mozart, wrote music called classical.

The eighteenth century was also important in the development of the European novel. Middle-class readers especially enjoyed the novel. The English author Henry Fielding wrote novels about people without morals who survive by their wits. His characters reflect real types in eighteenth-century English society.

6. What four musical geniuses lived during the eighteenth century?

- **Enlightenment and Enlightened Absolutism** (page 528)

The philosophes believed in natural rights for all people. These rights included equality before the law; freedom of religious worship; freedom of

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Chapter 17, Section 3 (continued)

speech; freedom of the press; and the rights to assemble, hold property, and pursue happiness. Most philosophes believed that people needed to be governed by enlightened rulers. Enlightened rulers allow religious toleration, freedom of speech and of the press, and the rights of private property. They promote the arts, sciences, and education. Above all, they obey the laws and enforce them fairly for all people. Many historians once assumed that a new type of monarchy emerged in the eighteenth century, which they called **enlightened absolutism**. In the system of enlightened absolutism, rulers tried to govern by Enlightenment principles while maintaining their royal powers. This idea has since been questioned. Of the major rulers in Europe in the eighteenth century, only Joseph II of Austria made truly radical changes based on Enlightenment ideas. Most rulers were guided primarily by a concern for the power and well-being of their states.

Two Prussian kings, Frederick William I and Frederick II, made Prussia a major European power in the eighteenth century. Frederick William I tried to maintain a highly efficient bureaucracy of civil service workers. He also doubled the size of the army. Because of its size and its reputation as one of the best armies in Europe, the army was the most important institution in Prussia. Frederick II (also called Frederick the Great) was cultured and well educated. He was well informed about the ideas of the Enlightenment. He, too, enlarged the Prussian army, and he kept a strict watch over the bureaucracy. He made some enlightened reforms. He abolished the use of torture except in treason and murder cases. He also granted limited freedom of speech and press and greater religious toleration. However, he did not abolish serfdom or the rigid social structure in Prussia.

By the beginning of the eighteenth century, the Austrian Empire had become one of the great European states. It was difficult to rule, however, because it was made up of many different nationalities, languages, religions and cultures. Empress Maria Theresa, who inherited the throne in 1740, worked to centralize the Austrian Empire and strengthen the power of the state. Her successor was Joseph II. He was determined to make changes. He abolished serfdom, eliminated the death penalty, established the principle of equality of all before the law, and enacted religious reforms. Most of his reforms failed, however. He made the nobles upset by freeing the serfs. The Catholic Church was unhappy with his religious reforms. Even the serfs were unhappy, because they were confused by the drastic changes in his policies.

In Russia, Peter the Great was followed by six weak czars. After the last of the six czars, Peter III, was murdered, his German wife became the ruler of Russia. Catherine II (also known as Catherine the Great) ruled Russia from 1762 to 1796. She was an intelligent woman who was familiar with the works of the philosophes, but she thought many of their ideas were impractical. She did consider the idea of a new law code that would recognize the equality of all people. In the end, however, she did nothing because she knew that her

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Chapter 17, Section 3 (continued)

success depended on the support of the Russian nobility. Her policies led to worse conditions for the Russian peasants and eventually to rebellion. The rebellion spread across southern Russia, but soon collapsed. Catherine took stronger measures against the peasants. All rural reform was halted, and serfdom was expanded into newer parts of the empire. Under Catherine, Russia spread southward to the Black Sea. To the west, Russia gained about 50 percent of Poland's territory.

7. What European ruler made major changes based on Enlightenment ideas?

- **War of the Austrian Succession** (page 531)

In 1740, a major war broke out in connection with the succession to the Austrian throne. When the Austrian emperor Charles VI died, he was succeeded by his daughter, Maria Theresa. King Frederick II of Prussia took advantage of the situation and invaded Austrian Silesia. France then entered the war against Austria, its traditional enemy. Maria Theresa made an alliance with Great Britain. The War of Austrian Succession was fought in three parts of the world. In Europe, Prussia seized Silesia, and France occupied the Austrian Netherlands. In the Far East, France took Madras in India from the British. In North America, the British captured the French fortress of Louisbourg at the entrance to the St. Lawrence River. After seven years of war, all parties were exhausted and agreed to the Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle in 1748. This treaty returned all occupied territories except Silesia to their original owners. Prussia's refusal to return Silesia meant another war between Prussia and Austria.

8. In what three parts of the world was the War of Austrian Succession fought?

- **The Seven Years' War** (page 532)

Maria Theresa refused to accept the loss of Silesia. She rebuilt her army and worked to separate Prussia from its chief ally, France. French-Austrian rivalry had been a fact of life in Europe since the late sixteenth century. However, two new rivalries now replaced the old one: the rivalry of Britain and France over colonial empires and the rivalry of Austria and Prussia over Silesia. France abandoned Prussia and allied with Austria. Russia joined the new alliance

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Chapter 17, Section 3 (continued)

with France and Austria. In turn, Britain allied with Prussia. This diplomatic revolution led to another worldwide war. The war had three major areas of conflict: Europe, India, and North America.

There were now two major alliances in Europe: the British and Prussians against the Austrians, Russians, and French. Frederick the Great of Prussia was able to defeat the Austrian, French, and Russian armies for a time. However, his forces were eventually worn down. He faced disaster until Peter III, a new Russian czar, withdrew Russian troops from the conflict. This withdrawal created a stalemate and led to the desire for peace. The European war ended in 1763. All occupied territories were returned to their original owners, and Austria officially recognized Prussia's control of Silesia.

The struggle between Britain and France in the rest of the world had more decisive results. Known as the Great War for Empire, it was fought in India and North America. The British ultimately won in India. With the Treaty of Paris in 1763, the French withdrew and left India to the British.

By far the greatest conflicts of the Seven Years' War took place in North America. French North America (Canada and Louisiana) was run by the French government as a vast trading area. It was valuable for its fur, leather, fish and timber. British North America consisted of 13 colonies on the eastern coast of the present United States. The British and French fought over two primary areas in North America. One was the waterway of the Gulf of St. Lawrence. The other was the Ohio River Valley. The French began to establish forts in the Ohio River Valley. This threatened the ability of British settlers to expand into this area. The French were able to gain the support of the Indians, because they were traders, not settlers. At first, the French had a number of victories. The French had more troops in North America than the British, but not enough naval support. The defeat of French fleets in major naval battles gave the British an advantage. A series of British victories soon followed. In 1759, British forces defeated the French on the Plains of Abraham, outside Quebec. The British went on to seize Montreal, the Great Lakes area, and the Ohio River Valley. The French were forced to make peace. By the Treaty of Paris, they transferred Canada and the lands east of the Mississippi to England. Their ally Spain transferred Florida to British control. By 1763, Great Britain had become the world's greatest colonial power.

9. Where did the greatest conflicts of the Seven Years' War take place?

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Chapter 17, Section 4

For use with textbook pages 536–540

COLONIAL EMPIRES AND THE AMERICAN REVOLUTION

KEY TERMS

mestizo the offspring of Europeans and Native Americans (page 537)

mulatto the offspring of Africans and Europeans (page 537)

federal system a system of government in which power is shared between the national, or federal, government and the state governments (page 540)

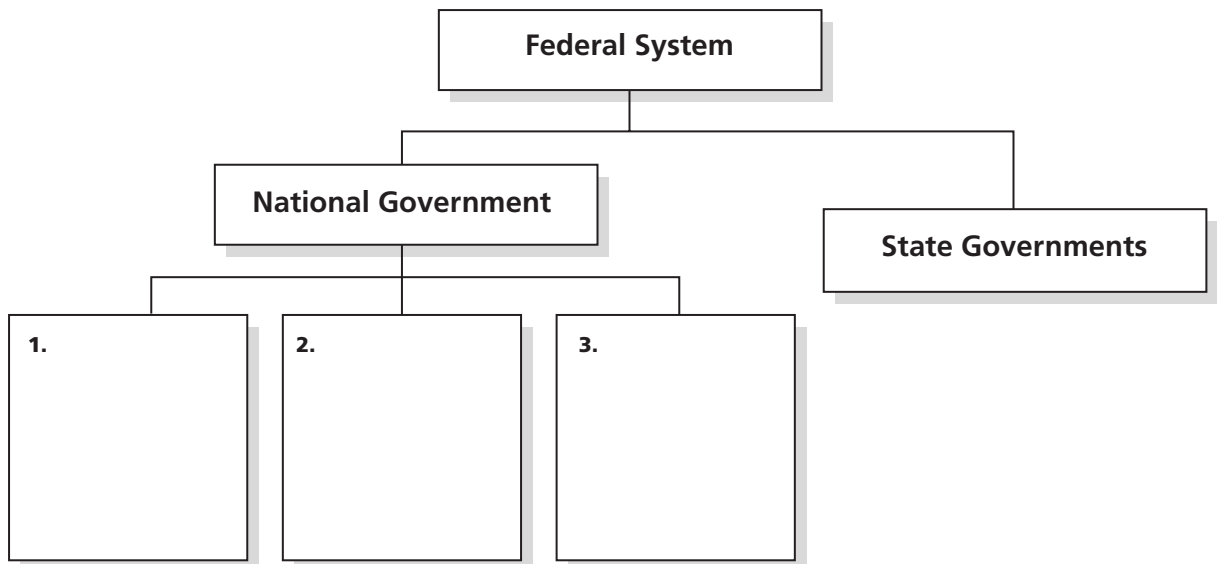
DRAWING FROM EXPERIENCE

What rights are guaranteed to all Americans by the Constitution? Which of these rights do you consider most important? Why?

In the last two sections, you read about the impact of Enlightenment ideas on European life during the eighteenth century. The ideas of the Enlightenment also made a strong impact on the colonies in North America, which eventually led to the American Revolution. Many of these ideas were incorporated into the Declaration of Independence and the Constitution of the United States.

ORGANIZING YOUR THOUGHTS

Use the diagram below to help you take notes. The Constitution created a federal system in which power was shared between the national and state governments. The national, or federal, government was divided into three branches. Identify and describe these three branches.



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Chapter 17, Section 4 (continued)

- **Colonial Empires in Latin America** (page 536)

In the sixteenth century, Portugal dominated Brazil. At the same time, Spain established an enormous colonial empire that included parts of North America, Central America, and most of South America. Within the lands of Central and South America, a new civilization arose, which we call Latin America. Latin America was a multiracial society. Spanish rulers permitted intermarriage between Europeans and Native Americans. Their offspring were known as **mestizos**. As many as 8 million African slaves were brought to Latin America to work the plantations. The offspring of Africans and Europeans were known as **mulattoes**. The society of Latin America was a combination of Europeans, Africans, Native Americans, mestizos, and mulattoes.

The Portuguese and Spanish both profited from their colonies in Latin America. The abundant supplies of gold and silver were one source of wealth. Other products that were shipped to Europe included sugar, tobacco, diamonds, and animal hides. Latin American agriculture was dominated by large landowners. Native Americans either worked on the estates of the large landowners or worked as poor farmers on marginal lands. This system of large landowners and dependent peasants has remained a lasting feature of Latin American society.

Spanish and Portuguese monarchs tried to oversee their empires, but the difficulties of communication and travel made this virtually impossible. As a result, colonial officials in Latin America had a great deal of freedom in carrying out imperial policies. Spanish and Portuguese rulers were determined to Christianize the native peoples. This policy gave the Catholic Church an important role in the Americas. Catholic missionaries went to different parts of the Spanish Empire. To make their efforts easier, the missionaries brought Native Americans together into villages, or missions, where the native peoples could be converted, taught trades, and encouraged to grow crops. The missions made it possible for the missionaries to control the lives of the Native Americans. The Catholic Church also built cathedrals, hospitals, orphanages, and schools in the colonies. The Catholic Church also allowed women who did not wish to marry to enter convents and become nuns. Many nuns worked outside their convents by running schools and hospitals.

4. What role did the Catholic Church play in Latin America?

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Chapter 17, Section 4 (continued)

- **Britain and British North America** (page 538)

The United Kingdom of Great Britain came into existence in 1707 when the governments of England and Scotland were united. The term *British* came to refer to both the English and the Scots. In eighteenth-century Britain, the monarch and the Parliament shared power, with the Parliament gradually gaining more power. In 1714, a new dynasty, the Hanoverians, was established when the last Stuart ruler, Queen Anne, died without an heir. The crown was offered to her nearest relatives, Protestant rulers of the German state of Hanover. The first two Hanoverian kings, George I and George II, did not know the British system very well and allowed their chief ministers to handle Parliament. Robert Walpole was the head of cabinet (later called prime minister) from 1721 to 1742. He pursued a peaceful foreign policy. The growing middle class favored expansion of trade and the British Empire. When William Pitt the Elder became head of cabinet in 1757, he expanded the British Empire by acquiring Canada and India in the Seven Years' War.

The British colonies in North America were thickly populated, containing more than one million people by 1750. The colonies were supposedly run by the British Board of Trade, the Royal Council, and Parliament. But the colonies had legislatures that tended to act independently. Merchants in many cities did not want the British government to run their affairs.

5. Why did British heads of cabinet become more powerful in the eighteenth century?

- **The American Revolution** (page 539)

After the Seven Years' War, British leaders wanted to get new revenues from the colonies. These revenues would be used to cover war costs, as well as to pay for the expenses of maintaining an army to defend the colonies. In 1765, the Parliament imposed the Stamp Act on the colonies. Certain printed materials, such as legal documents and newspapers, had to carry a stamp showing that a tax had been paid. Opposition was widespread and often violent. The act was repealed in 1766, but the crisis was not over.

To counteract British actions, the colonies organized the First Continental Congress. It met in Philadelphia in 1774. Fighting erupted between colonists and the British army in April 1775 in Lexington and Concord, Massachusetts. The Second Continental Congress met soon afterward and formed an army,

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Chapter 17, Section 4 *(continued)*

called the Continental Army. They named George Washington as commander in chief. On July 4, 1776, the Second Continental Congress approved a declaration of independence written by Thomas Jefferson. The American Revolution had formally begun.

The colonies had support from foreign countries. These countries wanted revenge for earlier defeats at the hands of the British. The French supplied arms and money to the rebels. French officers and soldiers also served in Washington’s army. Spain and the Dutch Republic also entered the war against Great Britain. When the army of General Cornwallis was forced to surrender to American and French forces under Washington at Yorktown in 1781, the British decided to end the war. The Treaty of Paris, signed in 1783, recognized the independence of the American colonies. It also gave the Americans control of the western territory from the Appalachians to the Mississippi River.

6. What countries supported the American colonies in their war against the British?

• **The Birth of a New Nation** *(page 539)*

The 13 American colonies had gained their independence. They were now states, but each one was primarily concerned about its own interests. At first, the states were not enthusiastic about creating a united nation with a strong central government. The Articles of Confederation were approved in 1781. This first American constitution did not provide for a strong central government. It soon became clear that the government under the Articles lacked the power to deal with the new nation’s problems. In the summer of 1787, 55 delegates met in Philadelphia to revise the Articles. The delegates decided to write a plan for an entirely new national government.

The proposed Constitution created a **federal system** in which power would be shared between the national government and the state governments. The national, or federal, government was given the power to levy taxes, raise an army, regulate trade, and create a national currency. The federal government was divided into three branches, each with some power to check the workings of the other branches. The first branch was the executive. A president served as the chief executive. The second branch was the legislative branch. It consisted of the Senate and the House of Representatives. The third branch was the judicial branch. It consisted of the Supreme Court and other courts.

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Chapter 17, Section 4 *(continued)*

Important to the eventual adoption of the Constitution was a promise to add a bill of rights. In 1789, the new Congress proposed 12 amendments, and the 10 that were approved by the states became known as the Bill of Rights. These amendments guaranteed freedom of religion, speech, press, petition, and assembly. They gave Americans the right to bear arms and to be protected against unreasonable searches and arrests. They guaranteed trial by jury, due process of law, and the protection of property rights. Many of the rights were derived from the natural rights proposed by the eighteenth-century philosophes.

7. How did the Articles of Confederation differ from the Constitution?

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Chapter 18, Section 1

For use with textbook pages 547–553

THE FRENCH REVOLUTION BEGINS

KEY TERMS

estate each of the three divisions of French society (page 548)

relics of feudalism obligations that French peasants owed to their local landlords even though serfdom no longer existed (page 548)

bourgeoisie the middle class in France that included merchants, bankers, industrialists, and professional people (page 548)

sans-culottes (“without breeches”) the name that members of the Paris Commune gave themselves (page 553)

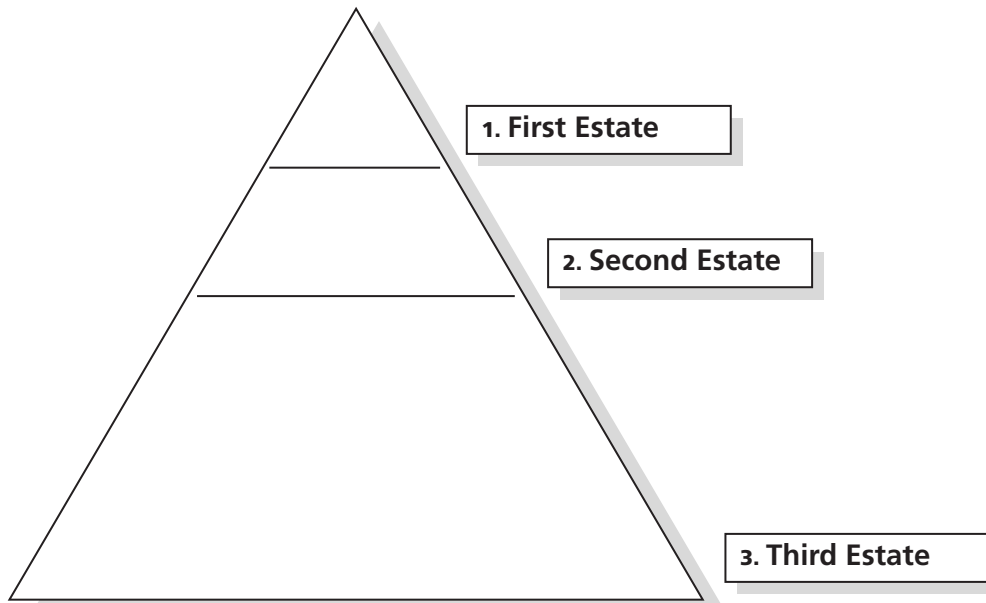
DRAWING FROM EXPERIENCE

Do you think the United States is divided into social classes? If yes, what are the classes in U.S. society? If not, why not?

In this section, you will learn about the factors that contributed to the French Revolution. France’s class system was one of those factors.

ORGANIZING YOUR THOUGHTS

Use the pyramid diagram below to help you take notes. French society was divided into three orders, or estates. Identify the groups that made up each estate. List some of the occupations of the people in the Third Estate.



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Chapter 18, Section 1 (continued)

READ TO LEARN

• Background to the Revolution (page 547)

The French Revolution began in 1789. It was more complex, more violent, and more radical than the American Revolution. It tried to create both a new political order and a new social order. The immediate causes of the French Revolution were economic problems at the time, but there were also long-range problems that created an environment for revolution. Before the revolution, French society was based on inequality. France was divided into three orders, or **estates**. The First Estate consisted of the clergy. There were about 130,000 people in the First Estate. They owned about 10 percent of the land and were exempt from the *taille*, the main tax in France. The Second Estate was the nobility. There were about 350,000 people in this estate. They owned about 25 to 30 percent of the land. They held many of the leading positions in the government, military, courts, and the higher church offices. They were also exempt from the *taille*.

The Third Estate consisted of the commoners. This was the majority of the French population. The Third Estate was further divided by occupations and wealth. The peasants were the largest segment of the Third Estate. They were about 75 to 80 percent of the total French population. As a group, they owned about 35 to 40 percent of the land, but over half of them had little or no land on which to survive. Serfdom had been largely eliminated, but French peasants still had obligations to their local landlords. These **relics of feudalism**, or aristocratic privileges, were obligations that survived from an earlier age. The peasants deeply resented these obligations, which included fees to use village facilities, such as the flourmill, community oven, and winepress. Another part of the Third Estate consisted of skilled craftspeople, shopkeepers, and other wage earners in the cities. A rise in consumer prices that was greater than the increase in wages made it difficult for these urban groups to survive. This struggle for survival led many of these people to play an important role in the revolution. The **bourgeoisie**, or middle class, was another part of the Third Estate. This group included about 8 percent of the population, or 2.3 million people. They owned about 20 to 25 percent of the land. This group included merchants, bankers, industrialists, doctors, lawyers, and writers. Members of the middle class were unhappy with the privileges of the nobility. At the same time, they had a great deal in common with the nobility. By obtaining public offices, wealthy middle-class people could become part of the nobility. Members of the nobility and the bourgeoisie were both influenced by the new ideas of the Enlightenment. Many of the people in both of these groups were opposed to the monarchy.

The social inequality in France created the background for the French Revolution, but the immediate cause of the revolution was the near collapse of government finances. Bad harvests in 1787 and 1788 and a slowdown in manufacturing led to food shortages, rising prices for food, and unemploy-

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Chapter 18, Section 1 *(continued)*

ment in the cities. The number of poor reached crisis proportions. At the same time, the French government continued to spend enormous amounts of money on wars and luxuries. The queen, Marie Antoinette, was known for her extravagance. On the verge of a complete financial collapse, the government of Louis XVI was forced to call a meeting of the Estates-General. This was the French parliament, and it had not met since 1614.

4. What was the immediate cause of the French Revolution?

- **From Estates-General to National Assembly** *(page 549)*

The Estates-General was composed of deputies (representatives) from the three estates. The First and Second Estates had about three hundred delegates each. The Third Estate had almost six hundred delegates. In order to fix France’s financial problems, most members of the Third Estate wanted to set up a constitutional government that would abolish the tax exemptions of the clergy and nobility. The meeting of the Estates-General opened at Versailles on May 5, 1789. There was an immediate dispute about voting. Traditionally, each estate had one vote. That meant that the First and Second Estates together could outvote the Third Estate two to one. The Third Estate demanded that each deputy have one vote. With the help of a few nobles and clerics, that would give the Third Estate a majority. The king, however, declared that he was in favor of the current system, in which each estate had one vote.

The Third Estate reacted quickly. On June 17, 1789, it called itself a National Assembly and decided to draft a constitution. When the deputies of the Third Estate arrived at their meeting place three days later, they found the doors locked. They moved to a nearby indoor tennis court and swore that they would continue to meet until they had produced a French constitution. The oath they swore is called the Tennis Court Oath. Louis XVI began to make plans to use force against the Third Estate. But before he could do this, a mob of Parisians stormed the Bastille, an armory and prison in Paris. They tore the Bastille apart, brick by brick. This took place on July 14. Paris soon came under the control of the rebels. Louis XVI was no longer in control. Revolutions and peasant rebellions broke out throughout France. They became part of the Great Fear, a panic that spread quickly through France in the summer of 1789. Citizens began to form militias, because they were afraid that they would be invaded by foreign troops that supported the French monarchy.

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Chapter 18, Section 1 *(continued)*

5. What event brought an end to Louis XVI's control in France?

• **The Destruction of the Old Regime** *(page 550)*

One of the first acts of the National Assembly was to destroy the relics of feudalism. On August 4, 1789, the National Assembly voted to abolish the rights of landlords and the financial privileges of the nobility and clergy. On August 26, the National Assembly adopted the Declaration of the Rights of Man and the Citizen. This was a charter of basic liberties that was inspired by the American Declaration of Independence and Constitution and the English Bill of Rights. It proclaimed freedom and equal rights for all men, access to public office based on talent, and an end to exemptions from taxation. All citizens were to have the right to take part in the making of laws. Freedom of speech and the press were guaranteed. The guarantee of equal rights did not include women, however. In response, Olympe de Gouges, a female author, wrote a Declaration of the Rights of Woman and the Female Citizen. In it, she insisted that women should have the same rights as men. But the National Assembly ignored her demands.

Louis XVI remained at Versailles and refused to accept the National Assembly's decrees on the abolition of feudalism and the Declaration of Rights. On October 5, thousands of Parisian women marched to Versailles. They forced the king to accept the new decrees. They insisted that the royal family return to Paris to show the king's support of the National Assembly. On October 6, the royal family moved to Paris, where they became virtual prisoners.

The Catholic Church was seen as a pillar of the old order. The National Assembly seized and sold the lands of the Church. A new Civil Constitution of the Clergy was put into effect. Bishops and priests were to be elected by the people and paid by the state. The French government now controlled the Church. As a result, many Catholics became enemies of the revolution.

The National Assembly completed a new constitution, the Constitution of 1791. It set up a limited monarchy. There was still a king, but a Legislative Assembly made the laws. This Assembly was to have 745 representatives. Although all males had the same rights, only men over 25 who paid a specified amount in taxes could vote. This ensured that only the more affluent members of society would be elected. By 1791, the old order had been

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Chapter 18, Section 1 (continued)

destroyed, but many people opposed the new order. These included Catholic priests, nobles, lower classes hurt by a rise in the cost of living, and radicals who wanted even more drastic solutions.

Some European leaders began to fear that revolutions would spread to their countries. The rulers of Austria and Prussia tried to use force to restore Louis XVI to full power. The Legislative Assembly declared war on Austria in the spring of 1792. The French fared badly at first. Defeats in war and economic shortages at home led to new demonstrations in the spring of 1792. In August, radical political groups in Paris declared themselves a commune. Many of the members of the Paris Commune proudly called themselves the *sans-culottes* ("without breeches"). This meant that they were ordinary patriots without fine clothes. They attacked the royal palace and the Legislative Assembly. They took the king captive. They forced the Legislative Assembly to suspend the monarchy and call for a National Convention. This convention would be chosen on the basis of universal male suffrage. (Under universal male suffrage, all adult males had the right to vote.)

6. What groups in France in 1791 opposed the new order?

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Chapter 18, Section 2

For use with textbook pages 555–561

RADICAL REVOLUTION AND REACTION

KEY TERMS

- factions** dissenting groups (page 556)
- elector** an individual qualified to vote in an election (page 561)
- coup d'état** a sudden overthrow of a government (page 561)

DRAWING FROM EXPERIENCE

Have you ever seen or heard about the play *Les Misérables*? What is the theme of the play?

In the last section, you read about the French Revolution. In this section, you will learn how radical groups and leaders began to control the revolution and how other countries reacted to the revolution.

ORGANIZING YOUR THOUGHTS

Complete the time line below using information from this section and the last section. Identify the four governmental bodies that ruled France after the Estates-General convened in 1789 and before Napoleon seized control in 1799. Also indicate the dates (years) that each of these four bodies controlled France.



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Chapter 18, Section 2 (continued)

READ TO LEARN

- **The Move to Radicalism** (page 555)

The Paris Commune had forced the Legislative Assembly to call a National Convention. The *sans-culottes* (members of the Commune) took other steps toward a more radical revolution. They took revenge on people who had helped the king or resisted the revolution. Thousands of people were arrested and killed. New leaders, such as Jean-Paul Marat, encouraged the poor to use violence to get what they needed.

In September 1792, the newly elected National Convention began to meet. Although it had been created to draft a new constitution, it also acted as the ruling body of France. The Convention was dominated by lawyers, professionals, and property owners. Almost all of the deputies distrusted the king. The Convention's first major step was to abolish the monarchy and establish a republic, the French Republic. The Paris Commune favored radical change and put constant pressure on the National Convention to adopt more radical positions. The National Convention did not rule all of France, however. Peasants in western France and people in France's major provincial cities refused to accept the authority of the National Convention.

The members of the Convention soon split into **factions** (dissenting groups) over the fate of the king. The two most important factions were the Girondins and the Mountain. Both factions were members of the Jacobin club, a large network of political groups throughout France. The Girondins represented the provinces, the areas outside the cities. The Girondins feared the radical mobs in Paris and wanted to keep the king alive. The Mountain represented the radicals in Paris. The Mountain won at the beginning of 1793 when they convinced the National Convention to condemn Louis XVI to death. He was beheaded on the guillotine on January 21, 1793. The execution of the king outraged the royalty of most of Europe. An informal coalition of Austria, Prussia, Spain, Portugal, Britain, and the Dutch Republic took up arms against France. By the spring of 1793, they were ready to invade France. To meet this crisis, the National Convention gave broad powers to a special committee of 12 known as the Committee of Public Safety. It was dominated at first by Georges Danton, then by Maximilien Robespierre.

5. Why did the National Convention form the Committee of Public Safety?

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Chapter 18, Section 2 (continued)

- **The Reign of Terror** (page 557)

For roughly a year during 1793 and 1794, the Committee of Public Safety took control. The Committee acted to defend France from foreign enemies and rebellions at home. The Committee set in motion an effort that came to be known as the Reign of Terror. During the Reign of Terror, nearly 40,000 people were killed, many by the guillotine. Most executions were held in places that had openly rebelled against the authority of the National Convention. The Committee of Public Safety decided to make an example of the city of Lyons. 1,880 people in that city were executed. In western France, the revolutionary armies were brutal in defeating rebel armies. Perhaps the most notorious act of violence occurred in Nantes, where victims were executed by being sunk in barges in the Loire River. People from all classes were killed during the Terror. About 15 percent of the victims were from the clergy and nobility, and the rest were from the bourgeoisie and peasant classes.

The Committee of Public Safety took other steps to control France and to create a new order, called the Republic of Virtue. The Committee tried to provide some economic controls by establishing price limits on goods considered necessities, such as food, fuel, and clothing. But the controls did not work very well. The National Convention also pursued a policy of dechristianization. The word *saint* was removed from street names, churches were pillaged or closed, and priests were encouraged to marry. In November 1793, a public ceremony dedicated to the worship of reason was held in the cathedral of Notre Dame. A new calendar was also adopted. Years were no longer numbered from the birth of Christ but from September 22, 1792—the first day of the French Republic. Sundays and church holidays were eliminated. Dechristianization failed to work, however, because France was still overwhelmingly Catholic.

Women were actively involved in the revolution. Women observed sessions of the National Convention and made their demands known. In 1793, two women founded the Society for Revolutionary Republican Women. This group was made up of working-class women. They were ready to defend the new French Republic if the need arose. Many men, however, continued to believe that women should not participate in political and military affairs.

6. What steps did the National Convention take to try to dechristianize France?

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Chapter 18, Section 2 (continued)

• A Nation in Arms (page 560)

To save the republic from its foreign enemies, the Committee of Public Safety decreed a universal mobilization of the nation on August 23, 1793. In less than a year, the revolutionary government had raised a huge army. By September 1794, the army numbered over one million. The republic's army was the largest in European history. It pushed the allies invading France back across the Rhine and even conquered the Austrian Netherlands. The French revolutionary army was a new kind of army. It was not made up of professional soldiers. It was created by a people's government. Its wars were people's wars, not wars between rulers.

By the summer of 1794, the French had defeated most of their foreign enemies. There was less need for the Committee of Public Safety, but it continued to exist. Robespierre had become very powerful and was obsessed with ridding France of all its corrupt elements. Many deputies in the National Convention feared Robespierre and voted to execute him. He was guillotined on July 28, 1794. After his death, more moderate leaders took control, and the Reign of Terror came to an end.

7. In what ways was the French revolutionary army different from previous armies?

• The Directory (page 560)

The National Convention reduced the power of the Committee of Public Safety. Churches were allowed to reopen. A new constitution was created in August 1795. It established a national legislative assembly. It had two chambers: a lower house, known as the Council of 500, which initiated legislation, and an upper house, the Council of Elders, which accepted or rejected the proposed laws. The members of the two chambers were chosen by **electors** (individuals qualified to vote in an election). The electors had to be owners or renters of property worth a certain amount. This limited the number of electors to 30,000.

The Council of Elders elected five directors to act as the executive committee, or Directory. The Directory and the legislature ruled the country. The period under the government of the Directory (1795–1799) was a time of corruption. The Directory had many enemies. Both royalists and radicals were unhappy. Royalists wanted to restore the monarchy. Radicals were unhappy

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Chapter 18, Section 2 (continued)

with the turn toward moderation. The Directory was unable to find a solution to the country's economic problems, and it was still carrying on wars started by the Committee of Public Safety. In 1799, a **coup d'état** (a sudden overthrow of the government) ended the Directory. The coup d'état was led by the successful and popular general Napoleon Bonaparte.

8. Why was the government of the Directory unpopular?

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Chapter 18, Section 3

For use with textbook pages 563–569

THE AGE OF NAPOLEON

KEY TERMS

consulate the French government under Napoleon before he was crowned emperor (*page 564*)

nationalism the unique cultural identity of a people based on common language, religion, and national symbols (*page 568*)

DRAWING FROM EXPERIENCE

What do you think of when you hear the name “Napoleon”? Does a particular picture of Napoleon come to mind? What do you know about Napoleon?

In the last two sections, you read about the French Revolution and its results. In this section, you will learn how Napoleon’s rise to power brought an end to the French Revolution but also helped to preserve certain aspects of the revolution.

ORGANIZING YOUR THOUGHTS

Use the chart below to help you take notes. Although Napoleon is best known for his military achievements (and failures), he also had significant domestic achievements (achievements within France). List three of Napoleon’s achievements in France and three of his achievements outside of France.

| Napoleon’s Achievements | |
|-------------------------|-------------------|
| In France | Outside of France |
| 1. | 4. |
| 2. | 5. |
| 3. | 6. |

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Chapter 18, Section 3 (continued)

READ TO LEARN

- **The Rise of Napoleon** (page 563)

Napoleon was born in 1769 on the island of Corsica. His family came from Italy. As a young man, Napoleon received a scholarship to study at a military school in France. In 1785, he was commissioned as a lieutenant in the French army. He rose quickly through the ranks. By age 24, he was made a brigadier general. In 1796, he became commander of the French armies in Italy, where he won many victories. He was able to win the confidence of his men and the support of many people because of his energy, charm, and intelligence. In 1797, he returned to France as a hero. He was given the command of an army in training to invade Britain. He proposed that France strike indirectly at Britain by taking Egypt and threatening India. However, because the British controlled the seas, they were able to cut off Napoleon’s army in Egypt. Napoleon abandoned his army and returned to Paris.

In Paris, Napoleon took part in the coup d’état that overthrew the government of the Directory. A new government called the **consulate** was proclaimed. As first consul, Napoleon controlled the entire government. He appointed members of the bureaucracy, controlled the army, conducted foreign affairs, and influenced the legislature. In 1802, he was made consul for life. Two years later, he had himself crowned Emperor Napoleon I.

7. How did Napoleon win the support of the French people?

- **Napoleon’s Domestic Policies** (page 565)

One of Napoleon’s first acts at home was to establish peace with the oldest enemy of the revolution, the Catholic Church. Napoleon himself had no personal religious faith, but he saw the need to restore stability to France. In 1801, Napoleon made an agreement with the pope. The agreement recognized Catholicism as the religion of a majority of the French people. In return, the pope agreed not to ask for the return of the church lands seized in the revolution. This agreement was popular both with Catholics and with people who had bought church lands during the revolution.

Napoleon’s most famous domestic achievement was his codification of the laws. Before the revolution, France did not have a single set of laws but almost 300 different legal systems. Napoleon completed seven codes of law.

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Chapter 18, Section 3 (continued)

The most important of the codes was the Civil Code (also called the Napoleonic Code). This code preserved most of the gains of the revolution by recognizing the principle of the equality of all citizens before the law, the right of the individual to choose a profession, religious toleration, and the abolition of serfdom and feudalism. Property rights were carefully protected. The rights of women were curtailed, however. Divorce was still allowed, but it was difficult for women to get divorces. When women married, their property came under the control of their husbands. In lawsuits, they were treated as minors.

Napoleon worked hard to develop a bureaucracy of capable officials. Promotion was based on ability, not on rank or birth. This was a change that the middle class had wanted before the revolution. Napoleon also created a new aristocracy based on merit in the civil or military service. 3,263 new nobles were created between 1808 and 1814. Only 22 percent of Napoleon's aristocracy came from the nobility of the old regime. Almost 60 percent were middle class people.

Napoleon claimed that he preserved the gains of the revolution. In some respects, this was true. The Civil Code preserved the equality of all citizens. Opening government careers to more people was another gain. On the other hand, Napoleon destroyed some revolutionary ideals. Liberty was replaced by despotism. He also eliminated freedom of the press. He shut down 60 of France's 73 newspapers and required that all manuscripts be approved before they were published. Even the mail was opened by government police.

8. In what ways did Napoleon preserve the gains of the revolution? In what ways did he destroy those gains?

• Napoleon's Empire (page 566)

When Napoleon became consul in 1799, France was at war with a European coalition of Russia, Great Britain, and Austria. Napoleon achieved a peace treaty in 1802, but it did not last long. War with Britain broke out again in 1803. Britain was eventually joined by Austria, Russia, Sweden, and Prussia. In a series of battles, Napoleon's army defeated the Austrian, Prussian, and Russian armies.

From 1807 to 1812, Napoleon was the master of Europe. His Grand Empire was composed of three parts: the French Empire, dependent states, and allied states. The French Empire consisted of an enlarged France that extended to the Rhine in the east and included the western half of Italy north of Rome.

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Chapter 18, Section 3 (continued)

Dependent states were kingdoms under the rule of Napoleon’s relatives. These included Spain, Holland, the kingdom of Italy, the Swiss Republic, the Grand Duchy of Warsaw, and the Confederation of the Rhine (a union of all German states except Austria and Prussia). Allied states were countries defeated by Napoleon and forced to join his struggle against Britain. They included Prussia, Austria, Russia, and Sweden. Within his empire, Napoleon tried to spread some of the principles of the French Revolution, including legal equality, religious toleration, and economic freedom. In many areas, the nobility and clergy lost their special privileges.

9. What countries were included in Napoleon’s Grand Empire?

- **The European Response** (page 567)

Napoleon’s Grand Empire collapsed almost as quickly as it had been formed. There were two main reasons for Napoleon’s defeat: the survival of Great Britain and the force of nationalism. Britain’s survival was due primarily to its sea power. Napoleon hoped to invade Britain, but the British navy’s defeat of a combined French-Spanish fleet at Trafalgar in 1805 destroyed any idea of an invasion. Napoleon then turned to his Continental System to defeat Britain. The goal of the Continental System was to prevent British goods from reaching the European continent. Napoleon hoped to weaken the British economy by preventing the sale of British goods. But the Continental System failed. Allied states resented being told that they could not trade with the British, and some began to cheat. New markets in the Middle East and in Latin America gave Britain other outlets for its goods. By 1809–1810, British exports were at near-record highs.

The second important factor in the defeat of Napoleon was **nationalism**. Nationalism is the unique cultural identity of a people based on common language, religion, and national symbols. Napoleon’s spread of the principles of the French Revolution beyond France indirectly brought a spread of nationalism as well. The French aroused nationalism in two ways. First, they were hated as oppressors. This hatred stirred the patriotism of other peoples in opposition to the French. Second, the French showed the people of Europe what nationalism was and what a nation in arms could do.

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Chapter 18, Section 3 (continued)

10. What were the two main factors that led to the defeat of Napoleon?

• **The Fall of Napoleon** (page 568)

The Russians refused to remain in the Continental System. This left Napoleon with little choice but to invade Russia. In June 1812, a Grand Army of over six hundred thousand men entered Russia. Napoleon’s hopes for victory depended on a quick defeat of the Russian armies. But the Russian forces refused to fight. They retreated for hundreds of miles. As they retreated, they burned their own villages and countryside to keep Napoleon’s army from finding food. When the Grand Army arrived in Moscow, they found it on fire. Without food and supplies, Napoleon abandoned Moscow and began the “Great Retreat” across Russia. Less than forty thousand of the original army made it back to Poland. This military disaster led other European states to attack the French army. Paris was captured in March 1814. Napoleon was sent into exile on the island of Elba. The Bourbon monarchy was restored to France. Louis XVIII became king. He was the brother of the executed king, Louis XVI.

The new king had little support, and Napoleon was able to slip back into France. When troops were sent to capture him, they went over to his side. Napoleon entered Paris in triumph on March 20, 1815. Napoleon raised another army and moved to attack the nearest allied forces in Belgium. At Waterloo in Belgium on June 18, 1815, Napoleon met a combined British and Prussian army under the Duke of Wellington. He was defeated and exiled to St. Helena, a small island in the South Atlantic.

11. What were the consequences of Napoleon’s invasion of Russia?

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Chapter 19, Section 1

For use with textbook pages 581–588

THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION

KEY TERMS

capital money available for investment (page 582)

entrepreneur a person who invests in a new business or businesses in order to make profits (page 582)

cottage industry a production method in which individuals did the work in their rural homes (page 582)

puddling a process developed by Henry Cort in the 1780s that produced high quality iron by using coke to burn away impurities in crude iron (page 583)

industrial capitalism an economic system based on industrial production (page 586)

socialism a system in which society, usually in the form of the government, owns and controls the means of production (page 588)

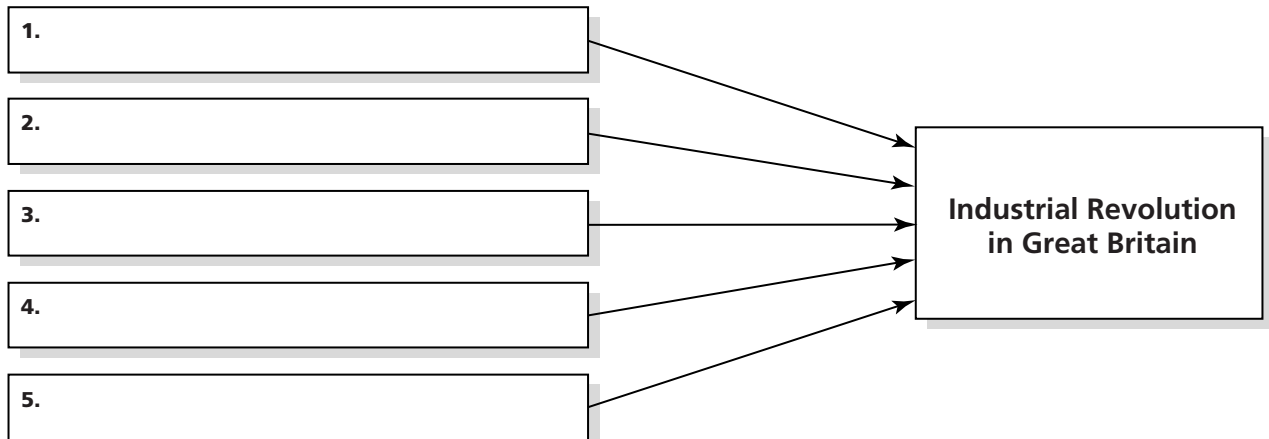
DRAWING FROM EXPERIENCE

Have you ever been to a history museum? Have you seen any early inventions used in the textile industry, such as a flying shuttle, a spinning jenny, or a cotton gin? What were these inventions like?

In this section, you will learn about the Industrial Revolution and the impact that it had in Europe and North America.

ORGANIZING YOUR THOUGHTS

Use the diagram below to help you take notes. The Industrial Revolution began in Great Britain. List five factors that help to explain why the Industrial Revolution began there.



Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 19, Section 1 (continued)

READ TO LEARN

• The Industrial Revolution in Great Britain (page 581)

The Industrial Revolution began in Great Britain in the 1780s. There were several reasons why it started there. First, agricultural practices in the eighteenth century had changed. More people could be fed at lower prices with less labor. Now even ordinary British families had money to buy manufactured goods. Second, with more abundant food supplies, the population grew. This increase created a large labor force to work in the new factories in Britain. Third, Britain had money to invest in the new industrial machines and factories. This money is called **capital**. Many British people were very wealthy and were interested in finding new business opportunities and new ways to make profits. These people are called **entrepreneurs**. Fourth, natural resources, such as coal and iron ore, were plentiful in Britain. Finally, Britain had a huge empire that gave the British many markets for their goods.

One of the main industries in Great Britain was the production of inexpensive cotton goods. There were two steps in the manufacture of cotton cloth—spinning (making thread) and weaving (turning the thread into cloth). Originally, the work was done by individuals in their rural homes. This production method is known as **cottage industry**. Advances in technology made cottage industry inefficient, however. The invention of the “flying shuttle” made weaving faster. Weavers now needed more thread from spinners. In 1764 James Hargreaves had invented a spinning machine called the spinning jenny, which made the spinning process faster. In fact, thread was being produced faster than weavers could use it. By 1787, Edmund Cartwright had invented a water-powered loom that made it possible for the weaving of cloth to catch up with the spinning of thread. It now became more efficient to do the work in factories, which were located near streams and rivers. The cotton industry became even more productive when the steam engine was improved by a Scottish engineer, James Watt. Watt made changes that allowed the engine to drive machinery. Steam power could now be used to spin and weave cotton. Before long, cotton mills were found all over Britain. By 1840, cotton cloth was Britain’s most valuable product. British cotton goods were sold everywhere in the world and were produced mainly in factories.

The steam engine was crucial to Britain’s Industrial Revolution. For fuel, the engine depended on coal. The need for coal led to an increase in coal production. The need for coal increased even more when Henry Cort developed a process called **puddling**. In this process, coke (which was derived from coal) was used to burn away impurities in crude iron. This produced a better quality of iron. The British iron industry boomed. The high-quality iron was used to build new machines, especially new means of transportation.

Railroads were particularly important to the success of the Industrial Revolution. In 1804, the first steam-powered locomotive ran on an industrial

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Chapter 19, Section 1 *(continued)*

rail-line in Britain. By 1850, there were over 6000 miles of railroad track across the country. Building railroads created new jobs for farm laborers and peasants. Less expensive transportation led to lower-priced goods, which created larger markets. More sales meant more factories and more machinery.

Factories created a new labor system. Factory owners wanted to use their new machines constantly. As a result, workers were forced to work in shifts to keep the machines running all day. Factory owners created a system in which employees became used to working set hours and doing the same work over and over. Adult workers were fined or fired for being late or for other misconduct. Child workers were often beaten.

6. How did factories create a new labor system?

• The Spread of Industrialization *(page 584)*

By the mid-nineteenth century, Great Britain had become the world's first and richest industrial nation. It produced one-half of the world's coal and manufactured goods. The Industrial Revolution spread to the rest of Europe at different times and speeds. The first countries to be industrialized in continental Europe were Belgium, France, and the German states. In these places, governments were very active in encouraging the development of industrialization.

An Industrial Revolution also occurred in the new nation of the United States. In 1800, six out of every seven American workers were farmers. By 1860, only 50 percent of American workers were farmers. Labor for the growing number of factories in the Northeast came mainly from the farm population. Many of the workers in the new factories were women. In fact, women and girls made up the majority of the workers in large textile factories.

The United States was a large country in the 1800s. A transportation system to move goods across the nation was vital. Thousands of miles of roads and canals were built to link east and west. Robert Fulton built the first paddle-wheel steamboat in 1807. By 1860, there were a thousand steamboats on the Mississippi River. The railroad was the most important part of the American transportation system. By 1860, about 30,000 miles of railroad track covered the United States.

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Chapter 19, Section 1 (continued)

7. What countries were the first to be industrialized in continental Europe? Why?

• Social Impact in Europe (page 585)

The Industrial Revolution drastically changed the social life of Europe and the world. By 1850, the population of Europe had almost doubled to 266 million. The key to this growth was a decline in death rates, wars, and diseases. Because of an increase in the food supply, more people were better fed and resistant to diseases. Famine disappeared from most of western Europe. Cities and towns grew dramatically in the first half of the nineteenth century. The growth was directly related to industrialization. People moved from the country to the cities to find work in factories. The rapid growth of cities led to pitiful living conditions for many people, however.

With the Industrial Revolution came the rise of **industrial capitalism**, an economic system based on industrial production. Industrial capitalism produced a new middle-class group—the industrial middle class. The new industrial middle class was made up of the people who built the factories, bought the machines, and figured out where the markets were. Their qualities included initiative, vision, ambition, and often, greed.

The Industrial Revolution also created an industrial working class. Industrial workers had terrible working conditions. Work hours ranged from 12 to 16 hours a day, six days a week, with a half-hour for lunch and dinner. The worst conditions were in the cotton mills. The mills were hot, dirty, dusty, dangerous, and unhealthy. In Britain, women and children made up two-thirds of the cotton industry’s workforce by 1830. However, the number of children declined under the Factory Act of 1833, which set 9 as the minimum age for employment. As the number of children declined, women took their places. They were mostly unskilled labor and were paid half, or less than half, of what men received. Excessive working hours for women were outlawed in 1844.

The laws that limited the work hours of children and women gradually led to a new pattern of work. In cottage industry, husband, wife, and children had always worked together. Men were now expected to earn most of the family income by working outside the home. Women took over daily care of the family and performed low-paying jobs, such as laundry work, that could be done in the home.

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Chapter 19, Section 1 (continued)

In the first half of the nineteenth century, the pitiful conditions created by the Industrial Revolution gave rise to a movement known as **socialism**. Socialism is a system in which society, usually through government, owns and controls some means of production (natural resources, factories, etc.). Early socialism was primarily the idea of intellectuals who believed in the equality of all people and who wanted to replace competition with cooperation in industry. Later socialists called these early socialists utopians because they thought their ideas were impractical dreams. Robert Owen, a British cotton manufacturer, was one utopian socialist. He believed that humans would show their natural goodness if they lived in a cooperative environment. He formed two communities, one at New Lanark in Scotland and one at New Harmony, Indiana. The community at New Lanark flourished, but the one at New Harmony failed.

8. In what ways did the Industrial Revolution change the social life of Europe?

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Chapter 19, Section 2

For use with textbook pages 589–594

REACTION AND REVOLUTION

KEY TERMS

conservatism a political philosophy based on tradition and social stability (page 590)

principle of intervention the belief that the great powers in Europe had the right to send armies into countries where there were revolutions, in order to restore legitimate monarchs to their thrones (page 591)

liberalism a political philosophy based largely on Enlightenment principles that held that people should be as free as possible from government restraint and that civil liberties should be protected (page 591)

universal male suffrage the right of all adult men to vote (page 592)

DRAWING FROM EXPERIENCE

In the 1800s, liberals were people who supported ideas such as individual freedom, freedom of speech, freedom of the press, and religious freedom. Do you think you would have been a liberal in the 1800s? Why or why not?

In the last section, you read about the Industrial Revolution. In this section, you will learn how liberalism and nationalism led to changes in Europe, including the revolutions of 1848.

ORGANIZING YOUR THOUGHTS

Use the chart below to help you take notes. Compare and contrast the philosophies of conservatism and liberalism.

| Political Philosophy | Views: | | |
|----------------------|------------|----------|--------------|
| | Government | Religion | Civil Rights |
| Conservatism | 1. | 2. | 3. |
| Liberalism | 4. | 5. | 6. |

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 19, Section 2 (continued)

READ TO LEARN

- **The Congress of Vienna** (page 589)

After the defeat of Napoleon, European rulers wanted to restore the old order. The great powers (Great Britain, Austria, Prussia, and Russia) met at the Congress of Vienna in September 1814 to arrange a final peace settlement. The leader of the congress was the Austrian foreign minister, Prince Klemens von Metternich. He claimed that he was guided by the principle of legitimacy. This meant that monarchs from the royal families that had ruled before Napoleon would be restored to their positions of power in order to keep peace and stability in Europe. The great powers rearranged territories in Europe because they believed that this would form a new balance of power. For example, to balance Russian territorial gains, new territories were given to Prussia and Austria.

7. What were the four great powers that met at the Congress of Vienna?

- **The Conservative Order** (page 590)

The arrangements that were worked out at the Congress of Vienna were a victory for rulers who wanted to stop the forces of change begun by the French Revolution. These rulers, like Metternich, believed in the political philosophy known as **conservatism**. Conservatism is based on tradition and social stability. Most conservatives favored obedience to political authority and believed that organized religion was crucial to order in society. Conservatives hated revolutions and were unwilling to accept demands from people who wanted either individual rights or representative governments.

To maintain the new balance of power, Great Britain, Russia, Prussia, Austria, and later France, agreed to have meetings that would maintain the peace in Europe. These meetings were called the Concert of Europe. Eventually, most of the great powers adopted a **principle of intervention**. According to this principle, the great powers had the right to send armies into countries where there were revolutions in order to restore legitimate monarchs to their thrones. Britain refused to accept the principle, arguing that the great powers should not interfere in the internal affairs of other states. But the other great powers used military force to crush revolutions in Spain and Italy.

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Chapter 19, Section 2 (continued)

8. What was the principle of intervention?

• Forces of Change (page 591)

Between 1815 and 1830, conservative governments tried to maintain the old order. But powerful forces for change were also at work. One of these forces was **liberalism**. Liberalism was a political philosophy based on Enlightenment principles. Liberals believed that people should be as free as possible from government restraint. They also believed in the protection of civil liberties (the basic rights of all people). Most liberals wanted religious toleration and the separation of church and state. They believed that laws should be made by a representative assembly (legislature) elected by qualified voters. Many liberals favored government ruled by a constitution. They believed that written constitutions would guarantee civil rights. Liberals did not believe in a democracy in which everyone had a right to vote, however. They feared mob rule and thought that the right to vote and hold office should be open only to men of property.

Another force for change was nationalism. Nationalism arose out of people's awareness of being part of a community with common institutions, traditions, language, and customs. This community is called a nation. After the French Revolution, nationalists came to believe that each nationality should have its own government. The Germans were separated into many different states but wanted a single German nation-state with one central government. The Hungarians were part of the Austrian Empire but wanted the right to establish their own government. Conservatives feared these changes and tried hard to repress nationalism, but many liberals supported nationalism. Most liberals believed that freedom would only be possible if people ruled themselves. So most liberals agreed with the nationalists that each people group should have its own state.

Beginning in 1830, liberalism and nationalism began to change the political order in Europe. In France, liberals overthrew the Bourbon king Charles X and established a constitutional monarchy. Louis-Philippe, a cousin of Charles X, became king. Nationalism brought changes in other countries. Belgium rebelled against the Dutch Republic and became an independent state. There were also revolutions in Poland and Italy, but they were soon crushed by the Russians and Austrians.

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Chapter 19, Section 2 (continued)

9. How did conservatives and liberals feel about nationalism in the early nineteenth century?

• The Revolutions of 1848 (page 592)

The forces of nationalism and liberalism erupted again in the revolutions of 1848. Beginning in 1846, there were severe economic problems in France. These problems brought suffering to the lower middle class, workers, and peasants. At the same time, the middle class demanded the right to vote, but the government of Louis-Philippe refused to make changes. In 1848, the monarchy was overthrown. A group of republicans set up a provisional (temporary) government. The republicans were people who wanted France to be a republic (a government in which leaders are elected). The provisional government called for the election of representatives to a Constituent Assembly that would draw up a new constitution. Election would be by **universal male suffrage** (that is, all adult men could vote). The new constitution was ratified on November 4, 1848. It set up a new republic, called the Second Republic. The Second Republic had a single legislature and a president who served for four years. The legislature and the president were both elected by universal male suffrage. Elections for the presidency were held in December 1848, and Charles Louis Napoleon Bonaparte (called Louis-Napoleon) won. He was the nephew of Napoleon Bonaparte.

News of the 1848 revolution in France led to revolutions in other parts of Europe. Cries for change led many German rulers to promise constitutions, a free press, and jury trials. An all-German parliament, called the Frankfurt Assembly, was held to prepare a constitution for a new united Germany. The members drafted a constitution but had no real way of forcing the German rulers to accept it. As a result, German unification was not achieved.

The Austrian Empire was a multinational state. It was a collection of different peoples, including Germans, Czechs, Magyars (Hungarians), Slovaks, Romanians, Slovenes, Poles, Croats, Serbians, and Italians. Many of these peoples wanted their own governments. In March 1848, there were demonstrations in the major cities in the Austrian Empire. In Vienna, revolutionary forces took control of the capital and demanded a liberal constitution. To appease the revolutionaries, the government gave Hungary its own legislature. In Bohemia, the Czechs demanded their own government. Austrian

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Chapter 19, Section 2 *(continued)*

officials had made concessions to appease the revolutionaries, but they were determined to reestablish control. Austrian military forces crushed the Czech rebels and the rebels in Vienna. In 1849, the Hungarian revolutionaries were also defeated.

In 1848, a revolt also broke out in Lombardy and Venetia, two provinces in Italy that were part of the Austrian Empire. Revolutionaries in other Italian states also took up arms and tried to create liberal constitutions and a unified Italy. By 1849, however, the Austrians had regained complete control over Lombardy and Venetia. Italy was not unified.

10. What revolutions took place in Europe in 1848?

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Chapter 19, Section 3

For use with textbook pages 596–603

NATIONAL UNIFICATION AND THE NATIONAL STATE

KEY TERMS

militarism reliance on military strength (page 598)

kaiser the title of the emperors of the Second German Empire (page 599)

plebiscite popular vote on a particular issue (page 600)

emancipation setting people free from slavery or serfdom (page 601)

abolitionism a movement to end slavery (page 602)

secede to withdraw from a political group or nation (used especially for the withdrawal of the Southern States from the Union at the start of the U.S. Civil War) (page 603)

DRAWING FROM EXPERIENCE

Have you ever wondered what our country would be like today if the South had won the Civil War? Have you ever thought what it would be like if each state were its own separate country with its own government and national leaders? How would this affect your life?

In the last section, you learned how the forces of liberalism and nationalism led to changes and revolutions in Europe in the first half of the nineteenth century. In this section, you will learn how nationalism contributed to the unification of Germany and Italy. You will also learn how divisions over slavery and other issues threatened national unity in the United States and led to the U.S. Civil War.

ORGANIZING YOUR THOUGHTS

Use the chart below to help you take notes. Identify some of the causes and effects of the following wars.

| Causes | War | Effects |
|--------|-------------------------|---------|
| 1. | Crimean War | 2. |
| 3. | Franco-Prussian War | 4. |
| 5. | United States Civil War | 6. |

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 19, Section 3 *(continued)*

READ TO LEARN

- **Breakdown of the Concert of Europe** *(page 596)*

The revolutions of 1848 had not achieved unification in Germany and Italy. By 1871, however, both Germany and Italy would be unified. The changes that made this possible began with the Crimean War. This war was the result of conflicts between Russia and the Ottoman Empire. The Ottoman Empire had long controlled much of the territory in the Balkans in southeastern Europe. Russia was interested in expanding its territories into the Ottoman lands in the Balkans. In 1853, the Russians invaded the Balkan provinces of Moldavia and Walachia. In response, the Ottoman Turks declared war on Russia. Great Britain and France also declared war on Russia because they were afraid that Russia would gain control of this area. The Crimean War was poorly planned and poorly fought. Heavy losses caused the Russians to seek peace. By the Treaty of Paris in 1856, Russia agreed to allow Moldavia and Walachia to be placed under the protection of all the great powers.

The Crimean War destroyed the Concert of Europe. Austria and Russia became enemies, because Austria had its own interests in the Balkans and had refused to support Russia in the war. Russia withdrew from European affairs for 20 years. Austria was now without friends among the great powers. This new situation opened the door for the unification of Italy and Germany.

7. How did the Crimean War destroy the Concert of Europe?

- **Italian Unification** *(page 597)*

After the failure of the revolution of 1848, people began to look to the northern Italian state of Piedmont for leadership in achieving the unification of Italy. The ruler of the kingdom of Piedmont was King Victor Emmanuel II. The king named Camillo di Cavour his prime minister in 1852. Cavour knew that Piedmont's army was not strong enough to defeat the Austrians. He would need help, so he made an alliance with the French emperor Louis-Napoleon. He then provoked the Austrians into declaring war in 1859. The final result of this conflict was a peace settlement that gave the French Nice and Savoy. (Cavour had promised Nice and Savoy to the French for making the alliance.) Lombardy was given to Piedmont, but Venetia was still controlled by Austria. Cavour's success caused nationalists in some other northern Italian states (Parma, Modena, and Tuscany) to overthrow their governments and join their states to Piedmont.

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Chapter 19, Section 3 (continued)

In southern Italy, Giuseppe Garibaldi, an Italian patriot, raised an army of a thousand volunteers. They were called Red Shirts because of the color of their uniforms. Garibaldi's forces landed in Sicily, which was ruled by France. By the end of July 1860, they controlled most of the island. In August, they crossed over to the mainland and marched up the Italian peninsula. Naples, which was ruled by France, fell in early September. Garibaldi turned over his conquests to Piedmont. On March 17, 1861, a new kingdom of Italy was proclaimed under King Victor Emmanuel II. But the task of Italian unification was not yet complete, because Venetia was still held by Austria and Rome was under the control of the pope.

The Italians gained control of Venetia as a result of the Austro-Prussian War of 1866. The kingdom of Italy was an ally of Prussia in the war. Prussia won the war and gave Venetia to the Italians. In 1870, during the Franco-Prussian War, French troops withdrew from Rome. Their withdrawal made it possible for the Italian army to annex Rome on September 20, 1870. Rome then became the capital of the united Italian state.

8. How did the Austro-Prussian and Franco-Prussian Wars contribute to the unification of Italy?

• German Unification (page 598)

After the Frankfurt Assembly was unable to achieve German unification, Germans looked to Prussia to take the lead in this cause. Prussia had become a strong and prosperous state. It was also known for its **militarism** (reliance on military strength). In the 1860s, King William I tried to enlarge the Prussian army. When the Prussian legislature refused to levy new taxes for the army, William I appointed a new prime minister, Count Otto von Bismarck. Bismarck is known for his practice of *realpolitik* (“the politics of reality”)—politics based on practical matters rather than on theory or ethics. From 1862 to 1866, he governed Prussia without the approval of the parliament. He collected taxes and strengthened the army. He also followed an active foreign policy that soon led to war. Bismarck created friction with the Austrians and forced them into a war on June 14, 1866. The Austrians were no match for the Prussian army and were defeated on July 3.

Prussia now organized the German states north of the Main River into a North German Confederation. The southern German states were largely Catholic and feared Prussia. But they also feared the French and agreed to sign military alliances with Prussia for protection against the French. In 1870, Prussia and France came into conflict because a relative of the Prussian king

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Chapter 19, Section 3 (continued)

was a candidate for the throne of Spain. Bismarck took advantage of the misunderstandings between the French and Prussians and pushed the French into declaring war on Prussia on July 19, 1870. This conflict was called the Franco-Prussian War. The French were no match for the Prussian army. The southern German states also joined the war effort against the French. On September 2, 1870, an entire French army and the French ruler, Napoleon III, were captured. France surrendered on January 28, 1871. France had to pay 5 billion francs (about \$1 billion) and give up the provinces of Alsace and Lorraine to the new German state.

Even before the war ended, the southern German states had agreed to enter the North German Confederation. On January 18, 1871, William I of Prussia was proclaimed **kaiser** (emperor) of the Second German Empire. German unity had been achieved. With its industrial resources and military might, this new German state became the strongest power on the European continent.

9. How did Prussia achieve German unity?

• Nationalism and Reform in Europe (page 600)

In 1832, the British Parliament passed a bill that increased the number of male voters. The new voters were mainly members of the industrial middle class. By giving the industrial middle class an interest in ruling Britain, Britain avoided revolution in 1848. In the 1850s and 1860s, Parliament continued to make social and political reforms that helped the country to remain stable. Another reason for Britain's stability was its continuing economic growth. After 1850, the working classes began to share in the prosperity. Wages for laborers increased more than 25 percent between 1850 and 1870. The British feeling of national pride was well reflected in Queen Victoria. She ruled from 1837 to 1901—the longest reign in English history. Her sense of duty and moral responsibility reflected the attitude of her age, which is known as the Victorian Age.

In France, Louis Napoleon asked the people to restore the empire. In this **plebiscite** (popular vote), 97 percent responded with a yes vote. On December 2, 1852, Louis-Napoleon became Napoleon III, Emperor of France. The Second Empire had begun. The government of Napoleon III was authoritarian. He controlled the armed forces, police, and civil service. Only he could introduce legislation and declare war. There was a Legislative Corps that gave an appearance of representative government, but its members could not initiate legislation or affect the budget. Napoleon III completely controlled the government and limited civil liberties. Nonetheless, the first five years of his reign

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Chapter 19, Section 3 (continued)

were a huge success. Railroads, harbors, roads, and canals were built. Iron production tripled. Napoleon III also carried out a vast rebuilding of the city of Paris. In the 1860s, however, oppositions to some of Napoleon’s policies grew. In response, Napoleon III gave the legislature more power. In a plebiscite held in 1870, the French people gave Napoleon III another victory. After the French were defeated in the Franco-Prussian War, however, the Second Empire fell.

Until the Austro-Prussian War, the Austrian Empire had been able to keep the ethnic groups in its empire from gaining independence. Austria’s defeat in 1866, however, forced the Austrians to make concessions to the Hungarians. The result was the Compromise of 1867. This compromise created the dual monarchy of Austria-Hungary. Austria and Hungary each had its own constitution, its own legislature, its own bureaucracy, and its own capital. The two countries shared a common army, foreign policy, and system of finances. They also had a single monarch. Francis Joseph was both Emperor of Austria and King of Hungary.

At the beginning of the nineteenth century, Russia was overwhelmingly agricultural and autocratic. After the Russians were defeated in the Crimean War, Czar Alexander II decided to make serious reforms. Serfdom was the biggest problem in czarist Russia. On March 3, 1861, Alexander issued an **emancipation** edict that freed the serfs. Peasants could now own property and marry as they chose. The government provided land for the peasants by buying it from the landlords. But there were problems with the new land system. The landowners kept the best lands for themselves, so the Russian peasants did not have enough good land to support themselves. Alexander II attempted other reforms but soon found that he could please no one. He was assassinated in 1881 by a group of radicals. His son, Alexander III, turned against reform and returned to the old methods of repression.

10. What was the Compromise of 1867?

- **Nationalism in the United States** (page 602)

In the United States, two factions fought over the division of power in the new government. The Federalists favored a strong central government. The Republicans wanted the federal government to be subordinate to the state governments. These early divisions ended with the War of 1812. There was a surge of national feeling. The election of Andrew Jackson as president in 1828 opened a new era in American politics. Property qualifications for voting had been reduced. The right to vote was extended to all adult white males.

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Chapter 19, Section 3 (continued)

By the mid-nineteenth century, national unity was again an issue. Slavery had become a threat to that unity. The economy in the southern states was based on growing cotton on plantations, using slave labor. At the same time, **abolitionism**, a movement to end slavery, arose in the North. Abolitionism challenged the southern way of life. As opinions over slavery grew more divided, compromise became less possible. After Abraham Lincoln was elected president in 1860, a South Carolina convention voted to **secede** (with-draw) from the United States. In February 1861, six more southern states did the same. A rival nation, the Confederate States of America, was formed. In April, fighting erupted between North and South—the Union and the Confederacy. The American Civil War lasted from 1861 to 1865. It was an extremely bloody war. The Union had more men and resources and gradually wore down the Confederacy. On January 1, 1863, Abraham Lincoln’s Emancipation Proclamation declared that most of the nation’s slaves were “forever free.” The Confederate forces finally surrendered on April 9, 1865. National unity had prevailed in the United States.

- 11.** What was the main issue that divided Federalists and Republicans in the United States before the War of 1812?

• **Emergence of a Canadian Nation** (page 603)

The Treaty of Paris in 1763 gave Canada to the British. By 1800, most Canadians wanted more freedom from British rule. But there were serious differences among Canadians. Upper Canada (now Ontario) was mostly English-speaking, and Lower Canada (now Quebec) was mostly French. In 1840, the British Parliament formally joined Upper and Lower Canada into the United Provinces of Canada. Canadians began to push for self-government. John Macdonald, the head of Upper Canada’s Conservative Party, was a leader in this cause. The British were afraid of losing Canada to the United States and finally gave in to Canadian demands. In 1867, Parliament passed the British North American Act. This act established a Canadian nation, the Dominion of Canada. It had its own constitution, and John Macdonald became the first prime minister. Canada now had a parliamentary system and ruled itself, but foreign affairs were still in the hands of the British government.

- 12.** What was the main difference between Upper Canada and Lower Canada?

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Chapter 19, Section 4

For use with textbook pages 605–609

CULTURE: ROMANTICISM AND REALISM

KEY TERMS

romanticism an intellectual movement that emphasized feelings, emotions, and imagination as sources of knowing (page 605)

secularization indifference or rejection of religion or religious consideration (page 607)

organic evolution the principle that each kind of plant and animal has evolved over a long period of time from earlier and simpler forms of life (page 608)

natural selection the process whereby organisms that are more adaptable to the environment survive and thrive, while those that are less adaptable do not survive (page 608)

realism a movement in the arts that emphasized a realistic view of the world and focused on the everyday life of ordinary people (page 608)

DRAWING FROM EXPERIENCE

Have you ever read the novels *A Christmas Carol*, *Oliver Twist*, or *Great Expectations*, by Charles Dickens? Perhaps you have seen the movies or plays based on these novels. What is the main theme of these novels?

In the last three sections, you read about the Industrial Revolution and other changes in Europe and North America during the nineteenth century. In this section, you will learn how the Industrial Revolution created a new interest in science, which helped produce the realist movement in the arts. Another movement, romanticism, was also important in the nineteenth century.

ORGANIZING YOUR THOUGHTS

Use the chart below to help you take notes. Summarize the main emphases and themes of romanticism and realism, and list some of the important writers and artists in these two movements.

| Movement | Emphases/Themes | Important Writers | Important Artists |
|-------------|-----------------|-------------------|-------------------|
| Romanticism | 1. | 2. | 3. |
| Realism | 4. | 5. | 6. |

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 19, Section 4 (continued)

READ TO LEARN

- **Romanticism** (page 605)

At the end of the eighteenth century, a new intellectual movement, known as **romanticism**, emerged. It was a reaction to the ideas of the Enlightenment. The Enlightenment had stressed reason as the chief means for discovering truth. The romantics emphasized feelings, emotion, and imagination as ways of knowing. Romantics also valued individualism, the belief in the uniqueness of each person. Many romantics had a strong interest in the past. They revived medieval architecture and built castles, cathedrals, and other public buildings in a style called neo-Gothic. Literature also reflected this interest in the past. For example, many of the novels of Walter Scott were set in medieval England and other historical periods and became best-sellers. The exotic and unfamiliar also attracted many romantics and gave rise to Gothic literature. Mary Shelley's *Frankenstein* and Edgar Allen Poe's short stories are examples of Gothic literature.

The romantics viewed poetry as the direct expression of the soul. Romantic poetry gave expression to one of the most important characteristics of romanticism—its love of nature. This is especially evident in the poetry of William Wordsworth. The worship of nature caused Wordsworth and other romantic poets to be critical of eighteenth-century science. They believed that science had reduced nature to a cold object of study. Many romantics were convinced that the emerging industrialization would cause people to become alienated from their inner selves and the natural world around them.

The visual arts and music were also affected by romanticism. Romantic artists abandoned classical reason for warmth and emotion. Romantic art was a reflection of the artist's inner feelings. Eugène Delacroix was one of the most famous romantic painters from France. His paintings showed two chief characteristics: a fascination with the exotic and a passion for color. To many romantics, music was the most romantic of the arts, because it enabled the composer to probe deeply into human emotions. Music historians have called the nineteenth century the age of romanticism. One of the greatest composers of all time, Ludwig van Beethoven, was the bridge between the classical and romantic periods in music. His early work was largely classical, but his music also reflected his deepest inner feelings.

7. How did many romantics view science and industrialization?

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Chapter 19, Section 4 (continued)

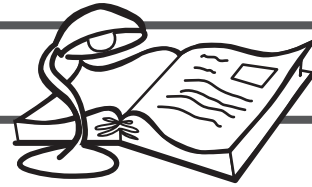
- **A New Age of Science** (page 607)

The Industrial Revolution led to an increased interest in scientific research. By the 1830s, new discoveries in science had brought many practical benefits that affected all Europeans. In biology, Louis Pasteur proposed the germ theory of disease. This was crucial to the development of modern scientific medical practices. In chemistry, Dmitri Mendeleev classified all the material elements then known on the basis of their atomic weights. In Great Britain, Michael Faraday created a primitive generator that laid the foundation for the use of electric current.

The dramatic material benefits often provided by science and technology led Europeans to have a growing faith in science. This faith undermined the religious faith of many people. The nineteenth century was an age of increasing **secularization** (indifference or rejection of religion or religious consideration). For many people, truth was now to be found in science and the material existence of humans. Charles Darwin, in particular, created a picture of humans as material being that were simply part of the natural world. In 1859, Darwin published *On the Origin of Species by Means of Natural Selection*. The basic idea of this book was that each kind of plant and animal had evolved over a long period of time from earlier and simpler forms of life. Darwin called this principle **organic evolution**. Darwin believed that some organisms are more adaptable to the environment than others, a process that Darwin called **natural selection**. Those that are naturally selected for survival (“survival of the fittest”) reproduce and thrive. The unfit do not. In the *Descent of Man*, published in 1871, Darwin argued that human beings had animal origins and were not an exception to the principle of organic evolution. Darwin’s ideas created a huge controversy. Some people objected that Darwin’s theory made human beings ordinary products of nature rather than unique beings. Others were bothered by his idea of life as a mere struggle for survival. Many people also condemned Darwin for denying God’s role in creation. Gradually, however, many scientists and other intellectuals began to accept Darwin’s theory.

8. How did achievements in science and technology contribute to secularization in the nineteenth century?

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Chapter 19, Section 4 (continued)

- **Realism** (page 608)

After 1850, many people believed that the world should be viewed realistically. This belief was closely related to the scientific outlook. **Realism** became a movement in the literary and visual arts. Realists rejected romanticism. Realist writers wanted to write about ordinary people from real life rather than romantic heroes in exotic settings. They also tried to avoid emotional language by using precise description. They preferred novels to poems. The realist novel was perfected by the French author Gustave Flaubert. Another important realist was the British novelist Charles Dickens. His realistic novels focused on the lower and middle classes in Britain's early Industrial Age.

Realism also became dominant in art after 1850. Realist artists tried to show the everyday life of ordinary people and the world of nature with photographic realism. The French became leaders in realist painting. Gustave Courbet was the most famous artist of the realist school. One of his famous works, *The Stonebreakers*, shows two roadworkers breaking stones to build a road. To Courbet, no subject was too ordinary, too harsh, or too ugly.

9. What literary form did realist writers prefer?

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Chapter 20, Section 1

For use with textbook pages 615–619

THE GROWTH OF INDUSTRIAL PROSPERITY

KEY TERMS

bourgeoisie the middle class (page 619)

proletariat the working class (page 619)

dictatorship a government in which a person or group has absolute power (page 619)

revisionists Marxists who rejected the revolutionary approach and argued that workers must organize in mass political parties and work with other parties to gain reforms (page 619)

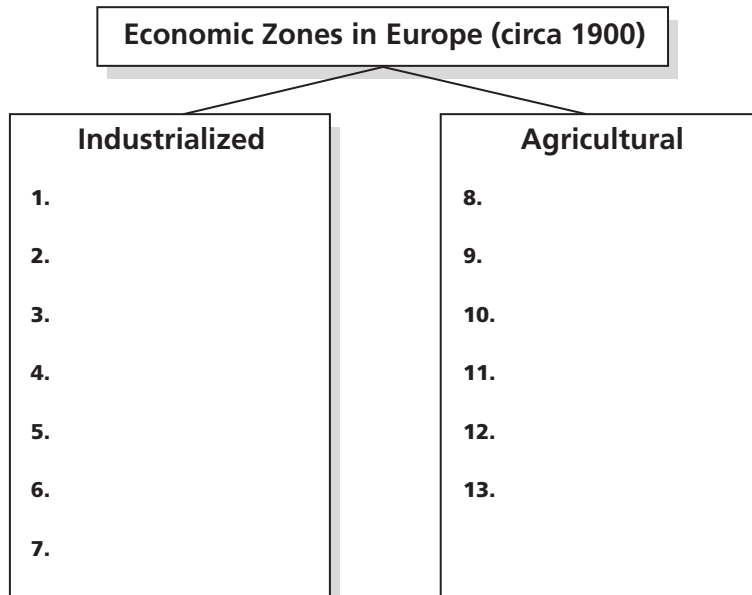
DRAWING FROM EXPERIENCE

Have you ever thought about ways to improve society? What are some areas of society that need improvement? What are your ideas for improving these areas of society?

In this section, you will learn about the Second Industrial Revolution and the changes that it brought to many European countries. You will also learn how the desire to improve working and living conditions led many industrial workers to form political parties and unions based on the theories of Karl Marx.

ORGANIZING YOUR THOUGHTS

Use the diagram below to help you take notes. By 1900, Europe was divided into two economic zones. One zone was highly industrialized, and the other was still largely agricultural. Identify the countries or regions that made up each zone.



Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 20, Section 1 (continued)

READ TO LEARN

• The Second Industrial Revolution (page 615)

Westerners in the late 1800s worshiped progress. The main reason for their belief in progress was the material growth created by what is called the Second Industrial Revolution. The first Industrial Revolution changed the production of textiles, iron, and coal. In the Second Industrial Revolution, new industries arose in steel, chemicals, electricity, and petroleum. The first major change in industry between 1870 and 1914 was the substitution of steel for iron. New methods for shaping steel made it useful in the building of lighter, smaller, and faster machines and engines. It was also used to make railways, ships, and weapons.

Electricity was a major new form of energy. It could be easily converted into other forms of energy, such as heat, light, and motion. In the 1870s, the first practical generators of electrical current were developed. The use of electricity led to a series of inventions. The light bulb was created by Thomas Edison in the United States and Joseph Swan in Great Britain. Alexander Graham Bell invented the telephone in 1876, and Guglielmo Marconi sent the first radio waves across the Atlantic in 1901. Electricity also transformed factories. Conveyor belts, cranes, and machines could all be powered by electricity. With electric lights, factories could remain open 24 hours a day.

The development of the internal combustion engine revolutionized transportation. This engine was powered by oil and gasoline. It made ocean liners, airplanes, and automobiles possible. In 1903, Orville and Wilbur Wright made the first flight in a fixed-wing plane at Kitty Hawk, North Carolina.

Industrial production grew as sales of manufactured goods increased. Europeans could afford to buy more goods for several reasons. Wages for workers increased after 1870. Prices for manufactured goods were lower because of lower transportation costs. In the cities, the first department stores began to sell new products, such as clocks, bicycles, electric lights, and typewriters.

Not all nations benefited from the Second Industrial Revolution. By 1900, Europe was divided into two economic zones. Great Britain, Belgium, France, the Netherlands, Germany, the western part of the Austro-Hungarian Empire, and northern Italy made up an advanced industrialized zone. These nations had a high standard of living and decent transportation systems. Another part of Europe was still primarily agricultural. This was the area to the south and east. It was made up southern Italy, most of Austria-Hungary, Spain, Portugal, the Balkan kingdoms, and Russia. These countries provided food and raw materials for the industrial countries.

The Second Industrial Revolution and the growth of transportation by steamship and railroad led to a true world economy. By 1900, Europeans were receiving beef and wool from Argentina and Australia, coffee from Brazil, iron

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 20, Section 1 (continued)

ore from Algeria, and sugar from Java. Foreign countries also provided markets for the manufactured goods of Europe. With its capital, industries, and military might, Europe dominated the world economy by the beginning of the twentieth century.

14. How was the Second Industrial Revolution different from the first Industrial Revolution?

- **Organizing the Working Classes** (page 618)

The desire to improve their working and living conditions led many industrial workers to form Socialist political parties and trade unions. These organizations emerged after 1870, but the theory on which they were based had been developed earlier by Karl Marx. In 1848, Marx and Friedrich Engels published *The Communist Manifesto*, which they had written. They were shocked by the horrible conditions in factories. They blamed the system of industrial capitalism for these conditions. They proposed a new social system. One form of Marxist socialism was eventually called communism. Marx believed that all of world history was a “history of class struggles.” One group of people, the oppressors, owned the means of production (land, raw materials, money, and so forth). This gave them the power to control government and society. The other group, the oppressed, depended on the owners of the means of production. Marx believed that industrialized societies were splitting up into two great classes. The **bourgeoisie** (the middle class) were the oppressors. The **proletariat** (the working class) were the oppressed. Marx predicted that the struggle between the two groups would finally lead to an open revolution where the proletariat would violently overthrow the bourgeoisie. After their victory, the proletariat would form a **dictatorship** (government in which a person or group has absolute power) to organize the means of production. Marx believed that the final revolution would ultimately produce a classless society.

In time, working-class leaders formed socialist parties based on Marx’s ideas. Most important was the German Social Democratic Party (SPD). Once in parliament, SPD delegates worked to pass laws that would improve conditions for the working class. After the 1912 elections, it became the largest single party in Germany. Socialist parties also emerged in other European countries. In 1889, leaders of the various socialist parties joined together and formed the Second International. This was an association of national socialist

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Chapter 20, Section 1 *(continued)*

groups that would fight against capitalism worldwide. Marxist parties were divided over their goals. Pure Marxists wanted to overthrow capitalism by a violent revolution. Other Marxists, called **revisionists**, disagreed. They believed that workers must continue to organize in mass political parties and even work with other parties to gain reforms.

Trade unions were another socialist force working for change. In Great Britain, unions won the right to strike in the 1870s. (A strike is a work stoppage called by members of a union to pressure an employer into meeting their demands.) Workers in factories organized into trade unions so that they could use strikes to achieve reforms. By 1914, trade unions in Europe had made considerable progress in bettering the living and working conditions of the working classes.

- 15.** What was the main difference in the beliefs of pure Marxists and revisionists?

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Chapter 20, Section 2

For use with textbook pages 621–628

THE EMERGENCE OF MASS SOCIETY

KEY TERMS

feminism the movement for women's rights (page 625)

literacy the ability to read (page 627)

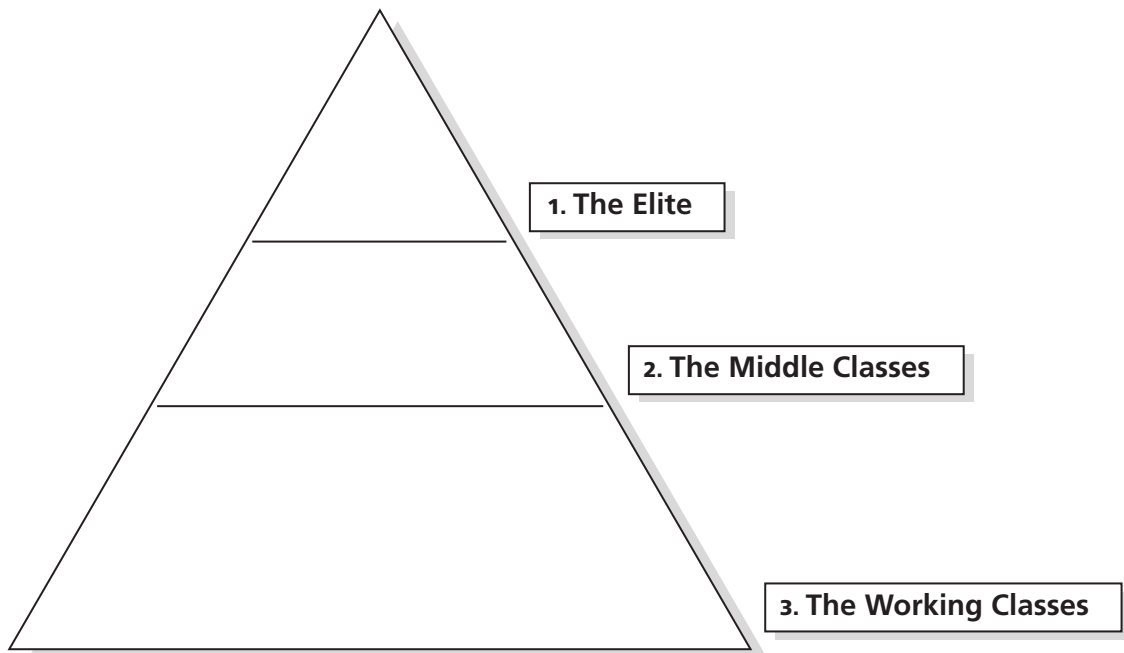
DRAWING FROM EXPERIENCE

Have you ever thought what your life would be like if you were unable to read? What problems would you have? How would this affect your ability to find a job?

In the last section, you read about the Second Industrial Revolution. In this section, you will read about the mass society that emerged as a result of the industrialization of Europe. Public education and an increase in literacy were two products of the new mass society.

ORGANIZING YOUR THOUGHTS

Use the pyramid diagram below to help you take notes. List the groups or occupations that made up the elite, the middle classes, and the working classes in Europe at the end of the nineteenth century.



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Chapter 20, Section 2 (continued)

READ TO LEARN

- **The New Urban Environment** (page 621)

By the end of the nineteenth century, a mass society emerged in the industrial world. In this society the concerns of the majority—the lower classes—were central. Urban populations grew rapidly because of the vast migration to cities from rural areas. In the cities, people found jobs in factories and, later, in service trades and professions. Cities also grew because living conditions improved so much that people could survive there longer. City governments created boards of health to improve the quality of housing. Dwellings were now inspected for health hazards. New building regulations required running water and drainage systems for all new buildings. The ability to bring in clean water and expel sewage was essential to the public health in cities. New systems of aqueducts, tunnels, and pipes made this possible.

4. What changes were made in cities in the nineteenth century to improve the public health?

- **Social Structure of Mass Society** (page 622)

After 1871, most people enjoyed an improved standard of living. Even so, great poverty remained a part of Western society. The wealthy elite were at the top of European society. This group was only 5 percent of the population but controlled 30 to 40 percent of the wealth. It was made up of the landed aristocrats and the most successful industrialists, bankers, and merchants (the wealthy upper middle class). Members of the elite became leaders in the government and military.

The middle classes consisted of a variety of groups. Below the upper middle class was a middle group that included lawyers, doctors, members of the civil service, business managers, engineers, architects, accountants, and chemists. Beneath this middle group was a lower middle class of small shopkeepers, traders, and prosperous peasants. The members of this group provided goods and services for the classes above them. The Second Industrial Revolution produced a new group of white-collar workers between the lower middle class and the lower classes. Although not highly paid, these white-collar workers were often committed to middle-class ideals. The European middle classes believed in hard work. They were also regular churchgoers who associated good conduct with Christian morality.

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Chapter 20, Section 2 (continued)

Below the middle classes on the social scale were the working classes. They made up almost 80 percent of the European population. Many of the members of these classes were peasants, farm laborers, and sharecroppers. The urban working class consisted of many different groups, including artisans and semi-skilled laborers. At the bottom of the urban working class were the unskilled laborers. They were the largest group of workers and included day laborers and large numbers of domestic servants. Urban workers experienced an improvement in their lives after 1870. Reforms created better living conditions in cities. As wages increased and the cost of consumer goods declined, workers could buy more than just food and housing. Workers now had money for more clothes and even leisure activities. At the same time, strikes were leading to 10-hour workdays and Saturday afternoons off.

5. In what ways did the lives of urban workers improve after 1870?

• The Experiences of Women (page 624)

During much of the nineteenth century, middle-class and working-class groups believed that women should remain at home and not be allowed in the industrial workforce. Marriage remained the only honorable and available career for most women. One important change in women's lives did occur during this time, however. The number of children born to the average woman began to decline.

Some differences existed in the lives of middle-class and working-class women. Most working-class women had to earn money to help their families. Daughters in working-class families generally worked until they married. After marriage, they often did small jobs at home to help support the family. Between 1890 and 1914, however, higher-paying jobs in heavy industry allowed many working-class families to depend on the income of husbands alone.

The Second Industrial Revolution opened the door to new jobs for women. A high demand for relatively low paid white-collar workers led many employers to hire women. Industrial plants and retail shops both needed clerks, typists, secretaries, file clerks, and salespeople. Women also took jobs in the fields of education, health, and social services.

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Chapter 20, Section 2 *(continued)*

Modern **feminism**, or the movement for women’s rights, had its beginnings during the Enlightenment. In the 1830s, a number of women in the United States and Europe argued for the right of women to divorce and own property. These early efforts were not very successful, and married women in Britain did not win the right to own some property until 1870. The fight for property rights was only the beginning of the women’s movement. Some middle-class women fought for and gained access to universities. Others tried to enter occupations dominated by men. Women generally could not train to become doctors. Some, however, entered the medical field by becoming nurses. Amalie Sieveking, Florence Nightingale, and Clara Barton were leaders in the nursing profession.

In the 1840s and 1850s, the movement for women’s rights expanded as women demanded equal political rights. Many feminists believed that the right to vote was the key to improving the overall position of women. Suffragists (people who advocate the extension of political rights) had one basic aim: the right of women to full citizenship. Before World War I, however, women had the right to vote only in a few European nations like Norway and Finland, and in a few states in the United States.

6. How did the Second Industrial Revolution open the door to new jobs for women?

- **Universal Education** *(page 626)*

Universal education was a product of the mass society of the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries. Most Western governments began to set up state-financed primary schools. Both boys and girls between the ages of 6 and 12 were required to attend these schools. Western nations made this commitment to public education for two main reasons. One reason was industrialization. The new firms of the Second Industrial Revolution needed trained, skilled labor. Both boys and girls with an elementary education now had new job possibilities. These included white-collar jobs in railways, post offices, and the teaching and nursing fields. The chief reason for public education, however, was political. Giving more people the right to vote created a need for better-educated voters. Primary schools also instilled patriotism.

The most immediate result of public education was an increase in **literacy** (the ability to read). In western and central Europe, most adults could read by

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Chapter 20, Section 2 (continued)

1900. With the increase in literacy after 1870 came the rise of mass newspapers. These newspapers were all written in an easily understood style. They were also sensationalistic (that is, they provided gossip and gruesome details of crimes).

7. What were the two main reasons that Western nations made a commitment to public education?

• New Forms of Leisure (page 628)

The Second Industrial Revolution allowed people to pursue new forms of leisure. Leisure came to be viewed as what people do for fun after work. The industrial system gave people new times for leisure activities—evening hours, weekends, and a week or two in the summer.

Amusement parks introduced people to new experiences and technology. Team sports also developed into another form of leisure. Subways and streetcars made it possible for even the working classes to get to athletic games, amusement parks, and dance halls. Amusement parks and professional sports teams were essentially big businesses organized to make profits.

8. How did the Second Industrial Revolution allow people to pursue new forms of leisure?

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Chapter 20, Section 3

For use with textbook pages 629–634

THE NATIONAL STATE AND DEMOCRACY

KEY TERMS

ministerial responsibility the idea that the prime minister is responsible to the popularly elected legislative body, not to the executive officer (page 631)

Duma a legislative assembly in Russia during the time of Nicholas II (page 632)

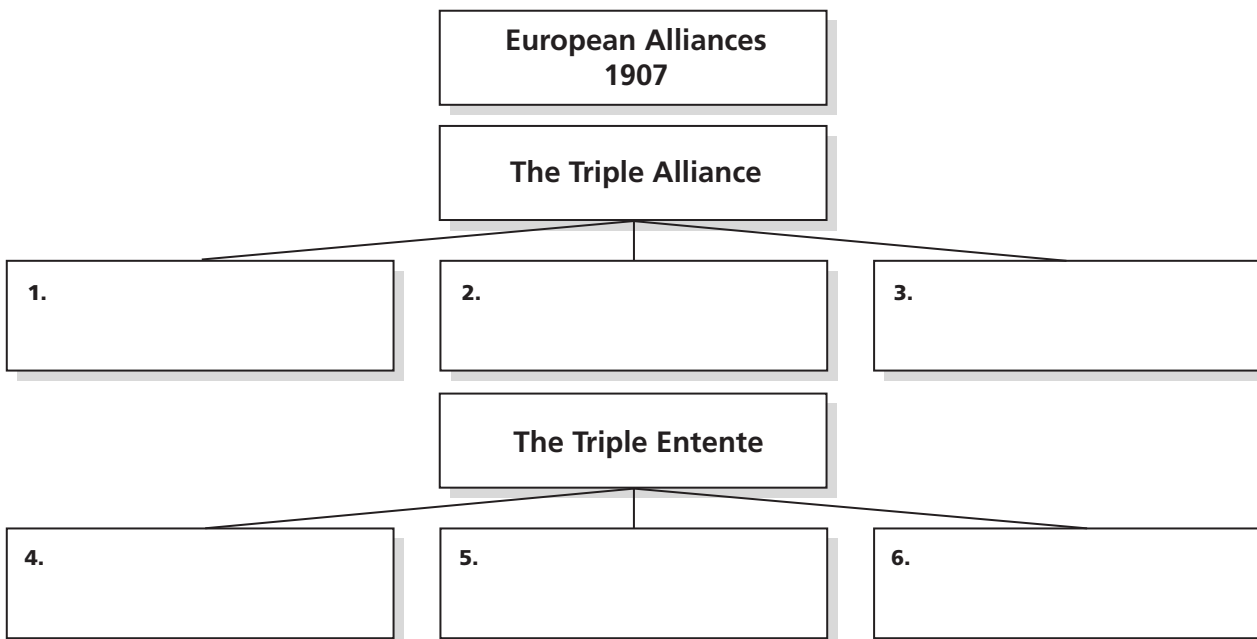
DRAWING FROM EXPERIENCE

Have you ever thought what your life would be like if you had been born in a different country? What do you think would affect you more—the difference in economics or the difference in political systems?

In the last section, you learned about the effects of industrialization in Europe and the United States in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries. In this section, you will learn about the political developments during this time. Many nations in Western Europe became more democratic, but rulers in much of Central and Eastern Europe resisted change.

ORGANIZING YOUR THOUGHTS

Use the diagram below to help you take notes. By 1907, Europe was divided into two opposing camps. List the countries in each of the two alliances.



Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 20, Section 3 (continued)

READ TO LEARN

- **Western Europe and Political Democracy** (page 629)

By the late nineteenth century, progress had been made toward establishing constitutions, parliaments, and individual liberties in the major European states. By 1871, Great Britain had a working two-party parliamentary system. Laws passed in 1867 and 1884 increased the number of adult males who could vote. By the end of World War I, all males over age 21 and women over 30 could vote. The working class supported the Liberal Party, but two developments threatened this support. First, trade unions grew, and they began to favor a more radical change of the economic system. Second, in 1900, a new party, the Labour Party, was formed. It was dedicated to the interest of workers. To keep the support of the workers, the Liberals voted for a series of social reforms. The National Insurance Act of 1911 provided benefits for workers in case of sickness and unemployment. Other laws provided a small pension for people over 70 and compensation for people injured in accidents at work.

In France, the Second Empire had collapsed. In 1875, five years after it was proclaimed, the Third Republic gained a republican constitution. The new government had a president and a legislature made up of two houses. Members of the upper house, called the Senate, were elected indirectly. Members of the lower house, called the Chamber of Deputies, were elected by universal male suffrage. The powers of the president were not well defined by the constitution. A premier (prime minister) actually led the government. The premier and his deputies were actually responsible to the Chamber of Deputies, not to the president. This principle of **ministerial responsibility** (the idea that the prime minister is responsible to the popularly elected legislative body and not to the executive officer) is crucial for democracy. The existence of a dozen political parties forced the premier to depend on a coalition of parties to stay in power. There were frequent changes in government leadership.

By 1870, Italy was a united national state. The nation had little sense of unity, however. A huge gulf separated the poverty-stricken south from the industrialized north. Constant turmoil between labor and industry weakened the nation. Universal male suffrage was granted in 1912 but did little to stop corruption and weakness in the government.

7. What reforms did the Liberal Party make in Great Britain to keep the support of the workers?

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Chapter 20, Section 3 (continued)

• Central and Eastern Europe: The Old Order (page 631)

The new imperial Germany begun by Otto von Bismarck in 1871 had a two-house legislature. The lower house of the German parliament, the Reichstag, was elected by universal male suffrage. Ministers of government were responsible to the emperor, not to the parliament, however. The emperor controlled the armed forces, foreign policy, and the government bureaucracy. As chancellor (prime minister), Bismarck worked to keep Germany from becoming a democracy. By the reign of William II, who was the emperor from 1888 to 1918, Germany had become the strongest military and industrial power in Europe. Demands for democracy increased. Conservative forces in Germany tried to block the movement for democracy by supporting a strong foreign policy. They believed that expansion abroad would not only increase profits but also divert people from pursuing democratic reforms.

After the creation of the dual monarchy of Austria-Hungary in 1867, Austria enacted a constitution that, in theory, set up a parliamentary system with ministerial responsibility. In reality, the emperor, Francis Joseph, ignored the system. He appointed and dismissed his own ministers and issued laws when the parliament was not in session. Austria remained troubled by conflicts between the various nationalities in the empire. Representatives of these groups in parliament worked for their freedom. This encouraged the emperor to ignore the parliament even more. On the other hand, Hungary had a parliament that worked. But it was controlled by Magyar landowners who dominated the peasants and ethnic groups.

In Russia, Nicholas II began his rule in 1894 believing that the absolute power of the czars should be preserved. Conditions in Russia were changing, however. Industrialization progressed rapidly in Russia after 1890. With industrialization came factories, an industrial working class, and pitiful working and living conditions. Socialist parties developed, but government repression forced them to go underground. Opposition to the czar finally exploded into the Revolution of 1905. On January 22, a procession of workers went to the Winter Palace in St. Petersburg to present a petition of grievances to the czar. Troops opened fire on the peaceful demonstration, killing hundreds. This “Bloody Sunday” caused workers throughout Russia to call strikes. Nicholas II was forced to grant civil liberties and create a legislative assembly, called the **Duma**. By 1907, however, the czar had already reduced the power of the Duma. He again used the army and bureaucracy to rule Russia.

8. Why did conservative forces in Germany support a strong foreign policy?

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Chapter 20, Section 3 (continued)

• The United States and Canada (page 633)

After the Civil War, the old South was destroyed. One-fifth of the adult male population in the South had been killed, and four million slaves had been freed. In 1865, the Thirteenth Amendment to the Constitution was passed, which abolished slavery. Later, the Fourteenth and Fifteenth Amendments gave citizenship to African Americans and the right to vote to African American males. However, new state laws in southern states soon stripped African Americans of their right to vote.

Between 1860 and 1914, the United States shifted from an agrarian to an industrial nation. Industrialization led to urbanization. By 1900, over 40 percent of Americans lived in cities. The United States had become the world's richest nation, but serious problems remained. In 1890, the richest 9 percent of Americans owned 71 percent of the wealth. Labor unrest led workers to try to organize unions, but the American Federation of Labor represented only 8.4 percent of the labor force.

From the mid-nineteenth century, the United States began to expand abroad. The United States acquired Alaska by buying the territory from Russia in 1867. The Samoan Islands in the Pacific became the first important United States colony. By 1887, American settlers had gained control of the sugar industry on the Hawaiian Islands. When Queen Liliuokalani tried to strengthen the power of the Hawaiian monarchy to keep the islands under her people's control, the U.S. government sent military forces to the islands. The queen was deposed, and the United States annexed Hawaii in 1898. In the same year, the United States defeated Spain in the Spanish-American War. As a result, the United States acquired Puerto Rico, Guam, and the Philippines. By the beginning of the twentieth century, the United States had an empire.

At the beginning of 1870, the Dominion of Canada had four provinces: Quebec, Ontario, Nova Scotia, and New Brunswick. In 1871, two more provinces, Manitoba and British Columbia, were added. The Dominion of Canada now extended from the Atlantic to the Pacific. However, the English-speaking and French-speaking peoples of Canada distrusted each other. Wilfred Laurier, who became the first French-Canadian prime minister in 1896, was able to reconcile these two groups. During his administration, industrialization boomed. Immigrants from Europe helped to populate Canada's vast territories.

9. What provinces were added to the Dominion of Canada in 1871?

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 20, Section 3 *(continued)*

- **International Rivalries** *(page 633)*

Otto von Bismarck was afraid that France would create an anti-German alliance, so he created an alliance with Austria-Hungary in 1879. In 1882, Italy joined the alliance. The Triple Alliance of 1882 united Germany, Austria-Hungary, and Italy in a defensive alliance against France. At the same time, Bismarck had a separate treaty with Russia and tried to remain on good terms with Great Britain. In 1890, Emperor William II fired Bismarck and took control of Germany’s foreign policy. He dropped the treaty with Russia. This brought France and Russia together. In 1894, they formed a military alliance. Over the next 10 years, German policies caused the British to draw closer to France. By 1907, an alliance of Great Britain, France, and Russia—known as the Triple Entente—was formed. Europe was now divided into two opposing camps that became more and more unwilling to compromise. A series of crises in the Balkans between 1908 and 1913 set the stage for World War I.

10. What sequence of events led to the formation of the Triple Entente?

- **Crises in the Balkans** *(page 634)*

During the nineteenth century, the Balkan provinces had gradually gained their freedom. By 1878, Greece, Serbia, Romania, and Montenegro had become independent states. Bulgaria did not become totally independent, but was allowed to operate under Russian protection. The Balkan territories of Bosnia and Herzegovina were placed under the protection of Austria-Hungary. In 1908, Austria-Hungary annexed Bosnia and Herzegovina. Serbia was outraged. Bosnia and Herzegovina were Slavic-speaking territories, and Serbia had hopes of creating a large Serbian kingdom that would include most of the southern Slavs. Backed by the Russians, the Serbs prepared for war against Austria-Hungary. Emperor William II of Germany demanded that the Russians accept Austria-Hungary’s annexation of Bosnia and Herzegovina or face war with Germany. The Russians backed down, but two wars between Balkan states in 1912 and 1913 created more tensions between the great powers.

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Chapter 20, Section 3 *(continued)*

The Serbians blamed Austria-Hungary for their failure to create a large Serbian kingdom. Austria-Hungary was convinced that Serbia was a threat to its empire and must be crushed. As Serbia's chief supporters, the Russians were angry and determined not to back down again. The allies of Austria-Hungary and Russia were determined to support their allies more strongly in another crisis. By the beginning of 1914, most of the countries of Europe viewed each other with suspicion.

- 11.** What tensions existed in Europe at the beginning of 1914?

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Chapter 20, Section 4

For use with textbook pages 636–641

TOWARD THE MODERN CONSCIOUSNESS

KEY TERMS

psychoanalysis a method of psychotherapy developed by Freud, in which a therapist and patient probe deeply into a patient’s memory (page 637)

pogrom an organized massacre (especially of Jews) (page 639)

modernism changes in the arts in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries involving a break with traditional literary and artistic styles and a search for new forms of expression (page 639)

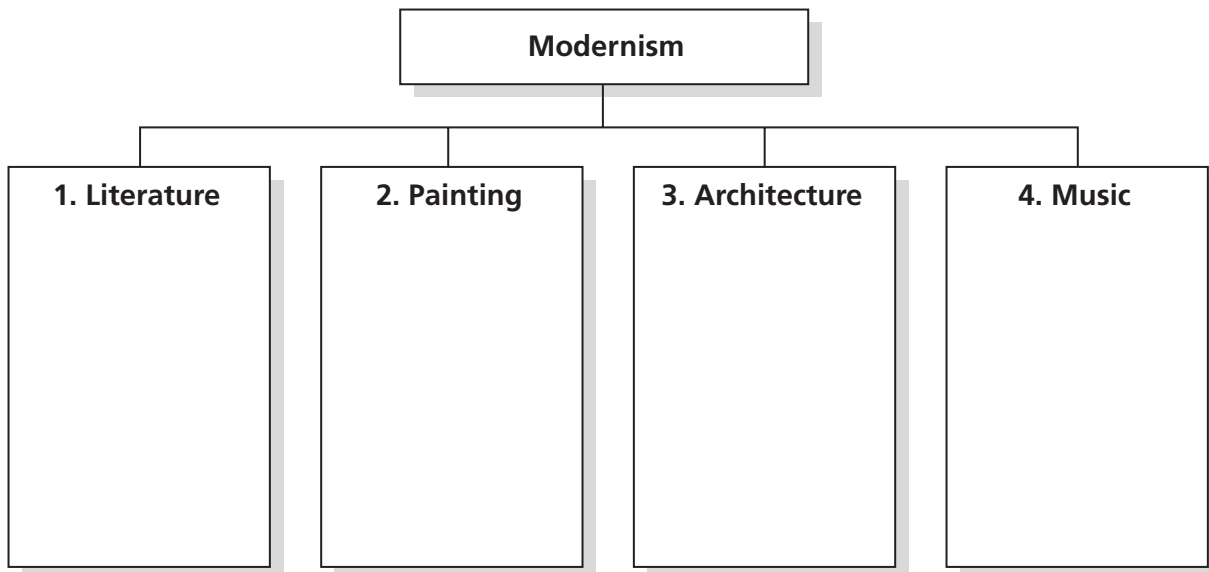
DRAWING FROM EXPERIENCE

Do you like modern art? Who is your favorite artist? Is there a particular movement that you are especially interested in?

In the last three sections, you read about the Second Industrial Revolution and other social and political changes in the late 1800s and early 1900s. In this section, you will read about new ideas in the arts and sciences during this time.

ORGANIZING YOUR THOUGHTS

Use the diagram below to help you take notes. In the late 1800s and early 1900s, many writers and artists rebelled against traditional literary and artistic styles. List the movements in literature, painting, architecture, and music during this period. Also list some of the important writers, artists, and musicians in these movements.



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Chapter 20, Section 4 (continued)

READ TO LEARN

- **A New Physics** (page 636)

In the nineteenth century, Westerners had a view of the world that was based on the ideas of Isaac Newton. The universe was viewed as a giant machine. Matter was thought to be composed of solid material bodies called atoms. Time, space, and matter were believed to be objective realities that existed independently of people observing them. These views were questioned at the end of the nineteenth century. The French scientist Marie Curie discovered that an element called radium gave off energy, or radiation, that came from the atom itself. This meant that atoms were not simply hard material bodies but were small, active worlds.

At the beginning of the twentieth century, a new view of the universe was provided by Albert Einstein. In 1905, Einstein published his special theory of relativity. It stated that space and time are not absolute but are relative to the people observing them. Matter and energy also reflect the relativity of time and space. Einstein concluded that matter is simply another form of energy. This idea led to an understanding of the vast energies contained within the atom and to the Atomic Age. To some people, however, a relative universe was a universe without certainty.

5. How did Einstein's theory of relativity change people's view of the universe?

- **Freud and Psychoanalysis** (page 637)

The ideas of Sigmund Freud added to the uncertainty that people felt about the world at the turn of the century. In 1900 his theories were published in *The Interpretation of Dreams*. According to Freud, human behavior was strongly determined by past experiences. Freud believed that painful experiences were repressed, or hidden, from a person's conscious awareness. But these experiences continued to influence behavior because they were part of the unconscious. Repression of these experiences began in childhood. Freud devised a method by which a therapist and patient could probe deeply into the patient's memory. This method is called **psychoanalysis**. Freud's ideas gained worldwide acceptance in the 1920s. Psychoanalysis developed into a major profession. Freudian terms, such as *unconscious* and *repression*, became standard vocabulary words.

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Chapter 20, Section 4 (continued)

6. What was Freud's theory concerning human behavior?

• **Social Darwinism and Racism** (page 638)

In the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries, scientific theories were sometimes applied inappropriately. For example, nationalists and racists applied the theories of Charles Darwin to human society. Their ideas are known as Social Darwinism. One Social Darwinist, Herbert Spencer, argued that social progress came from the "struggle for survival" in which the "fit" survive. Some businessmen used Social Darwinism to explain their success. They believed that they were successful because they were "fit" (strong and capable). Extreme nationalists also believed that nations were engaged in a "struggle for existence" in which only the fittest (the strongest) survived. In Germany, extreme nationalism and racism were combined. Houston Stewart Chamberlain, for example, believed that Germans were the only pure successors of the Aryans (who were the original creators of Western culture, according to Chamberlain). Chamberlain also believed that Jews were enemies who wanted to destroy the Aryan race.

7. What are some ways that Darwin's theories were applied inappropriately in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries?

• **Anti-Semitism and Zionism** (page 638)

Anti-Semitism (hostility toward and discrimination against Jews) had been a part of European civilization since the Middle Ages. In the nineteenth century, Jews were granted legal equality in many European countries. Many Jews became successful as bankers, lawyers, scientists, scholars, and journalists. Discrimination still existed, however. In 1894, Alfred Dreyfus, a French Jew, was found guilty of selling army secrets and was condemned to life

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Chapter 20, Section 4 (continued)

imprisonment. Evidence soon showed that Dreyfus was innocent and that the real traitor was a Catholic aristocrat. But the army refused a new trial. Public outrage finally forced the government to pardon Dreyfus in 1899.

In Germany and Austria-Hungary, new parties arose during the 1880s and 1890s that used anti-Semitism to win votes. The worst treatment of Jews at the turn of the century occurred in eastern Europe, where a majority of the world's Jews lived. Russian Jews were forced to live in certain regions of the country. Persecutions and **pogroms** (organized massacres) were widespread. Hundreds of thousands of Jews decided to emigrate (move to another country) to escape the persecution. Many went to the United States. Some went to Palestine, the land of ancient Israel. Palestine became home for a Jewish nationalist movement called Zionism. Settlement in Palestine was difficult, however, because it was part of the Ottoman Empire and the Ottomans opposed Jewish immigration.

8. Why did so many Jews decide to emigrate around the turn of the century?

- **The Culture of Modernity** (page 639)

Between 1870 and 1914, many writers and artists rebelled against traditional literary and artistic styles. The changes that they produced have since been called **modernism**. During much of the nineteenth century, literature was dominated by naturalism. Naturalists felt that literature should be realistic and address social problems. Two examples of naturalist writers are Henrik Ibsen and Émile Zola. At the beginning of the twentieth century, a group of writers known as symbolists caused a literary revolution. They were primarily interested in writing poetry and were influenced by the ideas of Freud. They believed that the external world was only a collection of symbols that reflected the true reality—the human mind.

The period from 1870 to 1914 was one of the most productive in the history of art. Impressionism was a movement that began in France in the 1870s. Impressionist artists rejected studios and went out into the countryside to paint nature directly. One important Impressionist was Claude Monet. In his paintings, he tried to capture the interplay of light, water, and sky. Other Impressionist painters include Pierre-Auguste Renoir and Berthe Morisot. In the 1880s, a new movement, known as Postimpressionism, arose in France.

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Chapter 20, Section 4 (continued)

Vincent van Gogh is one famous Postimpressionist. For van Gogh, art was a spiritual experience. He believed that artists should paint what they feel.

Realism in painting began to decline. The spread of photography was one important reason. Now, anyone could take a photograph that looked exactly like the subject. Artists began to realize that their strength was not in mirroring reality, but in creating reality. Between 1905 and 1914, artists searched for individual expression. This search created modern art. One of the most important figures in modern art was Pablo Picasso. He painted in many different styles. He also created a new style, called cubism, that used geometric designs to recreate reality in the viewer's mind. In 1910, abstract painting began. Wassily Kandinsky was one of the founders of abstract expressionism. He tried to avoid visual reality completely. He believed that art should speak directly to the soul and should use only line and color.

Modernism in the arts revolutionized architecture. A new movement in architecture, known as functionalism, developed. Functionalism was the idea that buildings should be functional, or useful. All unnecessary ornamentation should be stripped away. The United States was a leader in the new architecture. Two important pioneers were Louis H. Sullivan and Frank Lloyd Wright.

At the beginning of the twentieth century, developments in music paralleled developments in painting. The music of the Russian composer Igor Stravinsky was the first to reflect expressionist theories. His ballet *The Rite of Spring* revolutionized the world of music.

9. How did photography contribute to the decline of realism in painting?

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Chapter 21, Section 1

For use with textbook pages 647–652

COLONIAL RULE IN SOUTHEAST ASIA

KEY TERMS

imperialism the extension of a nation’s power over other lands (page 648)

protectorate a political unit that depends on another government for its protection (page 649)

indirect rule a system of colonial government in which local rulers were allowed to maintain their positions of authority and status (page 651)

direct rule a system of colonial government in which local rulers were removed from power and replaced with a new set of officials brought from the mother country (page 651)

DRAWING FROM EXPERIENCE

Do you think there are any good reasons for one country to take control of another country? If so, under what circumstances do you think it would be justified? If not, why not?

In this section, you will learn about the “new imperialism” of the late nineteenth century. During this time, European nations began to acquire colonies in Asia and Africa in order to obtain raw materials and markets for their manufactured goods.

ORGANIZING YOUR THOUGHTS

Use the chart below to help you take notes. Indicate which Western power (France, Great Britain, Holland, or the United States,) controlled each of the following countries in Southeast Asia at the end of the nineteenth century. (If a country remained free of colonial rule, write “none.”)

| Southeast Asian Country | Controlling Country: |
|-------------------------|----------------------|
| Burma | 1. |
| Cambodia | 2. |
| East Indies | 3. |
| Laos | 4. |
| Philippines | 5. |
| Singapore | 6. |
| Thailand | 7. |
| Vietnam | 8. |

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 21, Section 1 *(continued)*

READ TO LEARN

- **The New Imperialism** *(page 647)*

In the nineteenth century, a new phase of Western expansion into Asia and Africa began. Beginning in the 1880s, European nations began to compete for overseas territory. **Imperialism**, (the extension of a nation’s power over other lands) was not new. But the “new imperialism” of the late nineteenth century was different. Previously, European expansion in Africa and Asia had been limited to setting up a few trading posts. Now European nations wanted direct control over vast territories.

Europeans had various motives for imperialism. There was a strong economic motive. Europeans were looking for raw materials, such as rubber, oil, and tin, for their industries. They were also looking for new markets for their manufactured goods. They wanted more direct control over the areas with the raw materials and markets. There were also political motives. European nations were rivals. They tried to acquire colonies in order to gain an advantage over their rivals. Some people believed that a nation could not be great without colonies. Imperialism was also tied to social Darwinism and racism. Racism is the belief that race determines traits and capabilities. Racists believe that particular races are superior or inferior to others. Finally, some Europeans had religious and humanitarian motives. They believed that Europeans had a moral responsibility to civilize primitive people. They called this responsibility “the white man’s burden.” These people believed that Western nations should help the nations of Asia and Africa. To some, this meant bringing the Christian message to these nations. To others, it meant bringing the benefits of Western capitalism and democracy to these countries.

9. How was the “new imperialism” different from earlier expansion by European nations?

- **Colonial Takeover in Southeast Asia** *(page 649)*

By 1900, nearly all of Southeast Asia was under Western rule. In 1819, Britain founded a new British colony on a small island at the tip of the Malay Peninsula called Singapore. Singapore soon became a major stopping point for steamships going to or from China. The next country to fall to the British was the kingdom of Burma. Britain wanted control of Burma in order to protect its possessions in India. It also wanted a land route through Burma into South China.

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Chapter 21, Section 1 *(continued)*

The French watched nervously as the British moved into Burma. France had missionaries in Vietnam. To keep the British from moving into Vietnam, the French government decided to force the Vietnamese to accept French protection. The Vietnamese ruler gave up territories in the Mekong River delta. The French also occupied the city of Saigon. During the next 30 years, the French extended their control over the rest of the country. In 1884, France seized the city of Hanoi and made the Vietnamese Empire a French **protectorate** (a political unit that depends on another government for its protection). In the 1880s, France also extended its control over Cambodia, Annam, Tonkin, and Laos. By 1887, France included all of its new possessions in a new Union of French Indochina.

After the French conquest of Indochina, Thailand (then called Siam) was the only remaining free state in Southeast Asia. Two remarkable rulers, King Mongkut and his son King Chulalongkorn, were able to prevent the French and British from placing Thailand under colonial rule. Both kings promoted Western learning and had friendly relations with major European powers. In 1896, Britain and France agreed to maintain Thailand as an independent buffer state between their possessions in Southeast Asia.

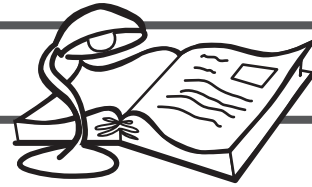
One more conquest took place in Southeast Asia at the end of the nineteenth century. In 1898, during the Spanish-American War, United States naval forces under Commodore George Dewey defeated the Spanish fleet in Manila Bay in the Philippines. President William McKinley decided to turn the Philippines into an American colony. The Philippine Islands gave the United States a convenient jumping-off point for trade with China. Many Americans, including President McKinley, also believed that Western nations had a moral obligation to “civilize” other parts of the world. The Filipinos did not agree. Emilio Aguinaldo was the leader of a movement for independence in the Philippines. His guerrilla forces fought against U.S. troops to gain their independence, but they were defeated.

10. How was Thailand able to remain free of colonial rule?

- **Colonial Regimes in Southeast Asia** *(page 650)*

Western powers ruled their new colonial empires either by indirect or direct rule. Sometimes a colonial power could accomplish its goals through cooperation with local rulers or political elites. In these cases, **indirect rule** was used. Local rulers were allowed to maintain their positions of authority and status.

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Chapter 21, Section 1 (continued)

Indirect rule made it easier to gain access to an area's natural resources. It also lowered the cost of government, because fewer officials had to be trained. Indirect rule also had less impact on local culture. One example of indirect rule was in the Dutch East Indies. Officials of the Dutch East India Company allowed local landed aristocrats in the Dutch East Indies to control local government. These local elites maintained law and order and collected taxes.

Indirect rule was not always possible, however. This was especially true when local rulers resisted colonial rule. In these cases, the local rulers were removed from power and replaced with a new set of officials brought from the mother country. This system is called **direct rule**. In Burma, for example, the monarchy opposed colonial rule. As a result, Great Britain abolished the monarchy and ruled the country directly through its colonial government in India.

In Indochina, France used both direct and indirect rule. It used direct rule in the southern provinces in the Mekong delta, but the northern parts of Vietnam were governed as a protectorate. The emperor still ruled but had little power. France had a similar policy in Cambodia and Laos. Local rulers were left in charge, with French advisors to counsel them.

To justify their conquests, Western nations had said they wanted to bring the blessings of Western civilization to their colonies. Many colonial powers said they wanted to teach the native peoples about the democratic process. However, many Westerners became afraid of giving native peoples political rights. They were afraid that the native peoples would want full participation in the government or even independence.

The colonial powers did not want their colonies to develop their own industries. Colonial policy stressed the export of raw materials. In many cases, this policy led to some form of plantation agriculture, in which peasants worked as wage laborers on plantations owned by foreigners. Plantation owners kept the wages at poverty levels in order to increase the owners' profits. Conditions on plantations were often so unhealthy that thousands died. Taxes were also a burden for peasants. But colonial rule did bring some benefits to Southeast Asia. Colonial governments built railroads and highways. In some countries, small growers of rubber, palm oil, coffee, tea, and spices were able to benefit from the development of an export market.

- 11.** How are direct and indirect rule different? Why was indirect rule not always used?

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Chapter 21, Section 1 *(continued)*

- **Resistance to Colonial Rule** *(page 651)*

Many people in Southeast Asia were very unhappy about being ruled by Western powers. At first, resistance came from the ruling classes. In Burma, for example, the monarch himself fought against British rule. Sometimes, resistance to Western rule took the form of peasant revolts. Many peasants were driven off the land to make way for plantations. This led to peasant uprisings. Early resistance movements failed, but a new kind of resistance began to emerge at the beginning of the twentieth century. This resistance was based on nationalism. The leaders were often part of a new class that had been created by colonial rule—westernized intellectuals in the cities. This new class had been educated in Western-style schools. They were the first generation of Asians to understand the institutions and values of the West. Many spoke Western languages. At first, many of the leaders of these movements did not focus on the idea of nationhood. They simply tried to defend the economic interests or religious beliefs of the natives. In Burma, for example, students at the University of Rangoon formed an organization to protest British lack of respect for local religious traditions. Not until the 1930s did these resistance movements begin to demand national independence.

- 12.** What new form of resistance to colonial rule began to emerge at the beginning of the twentieth century?

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Chapter 21, Section 2

For use with textbook pages 654–660

EMPIRE BUILDING IN AFRICA

KEY TERMS

annex to incorporate a country within a state (page 655)

indigenous native to a region (page 658)

DRAWING FROM EXPERIENCE

Has anyone ever told you that your traditions and customs were wrong? How would this make you feel?

In the last section, you read about imperialism in Southeast Asia. In this section, you will learn about imperialism in Africa. Most colonial powers did not respect the local customs and traditions of the countries they controlled.

ORGANIZING YOUR THOUGHTS

Use the chart below to help you take notes. List which European nations had claims in the following parts of Africa by 1914.

| African Region | European Nations With Claims in the Region |
|----------------|--|
| West Africa | 1. |
| North Africa | 2. |
| Central Africa | 3. |
| East Africa | 4. |
| South Africa | 5. |

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 21, Section 2 (continued)

READ TO LEARN

• West Africa (page 654)

Between 1880 and 1900, European countries took control of nearly all of Africa. West Africa had been particularly affected by the slave trade, but that had begun to decline by 1800. By the 1890s, slavery had been abolished in all major countries of the world. As slavery declined, Europe became interested in other forms of trade. Europeans sold textiles and other manufactured goods in exchange for peanuts, timber, hides, and palm oil from West Africa. Early in the nineteenth century, the British set up settlements along the Gold Coast and in Sierra Leone.

For a long time, most African nations were able to maintain their independence. However, in 1874, Great Britain **annexed** (incorporate a country within a state) the west coastal states. They called this first British colony Gold Coast. At about the same time, Britain established a protectorate over warring groups in Nigeria. By 1900, France had added the huge area of French West Africa to its colonial empire, and Germany controlled Togo, Cameroon, German Southwest Africa, and German East Africa.

6. What forms of trade replaced the slave trade in West Africa?

• North Africa (page 656)

Egypt had been part of the Ottoman Empire, but Egyptians began to seek their independence as the Ottoman Empire declined. In 1805, an officer of the Ottoman army named Muhammad Ali seized power and established a separate Egyptian state. During the next 30 years, he introduced reforms to bring Egypt into the modern world.

Europeans were interested in Egypt because they wanted to build a canal east of Cairo to connect the Mediterranean and Red Seas. The Suez Canal was completed in 1869. The British were especially interested in the canal. They believed it was their “lifeline to India.” In 1875, Britain bought Egypt’s share in the Suez Canal. When an Egyptian army revolt against foreigners broke out in 1881, Britain suppressed the revolt. Egypt became a British protectorate in 1914. The British believed they should also control the Sudan, south of Egypt, in order to protect both Egypt and the Suez Canal. But Muslim troops under Muhammad Ahmad resisted. Not until 1898 were British troops able to seize the Sudan.

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Chapter 21, Section 2 (continued)

The French also had colonies in North Africa. In 1879, the French government took control of Algeria. Two years later, France imposed a protectorate on Tunisia. In 1912, France also established a protectorate over much of Morocco. In 1911, Italy invaded and seized Turkish Tripoli, which it renamed Libya.

7. Why was Egypt important to Europeans in the nineteenth century?

• Central Africa (page 656)

Explorers, such as David Livingstone, aroused Europeans' interest in the jungles of Central Africa. Livingstone arrived in 1841. For 30 years, he explored Central Africa. After Livingstone's death in 1873, Henry Stanley carried on the work of exploration. In the 1870s, Stanley explored the Congo River and sailed down it to the Atlantic Ocean. He encouraged the British to send settlers to the Congo River basin. When Britain refused, he turned to King Leopold II of Belgium. King Leopold became the real driving force behind the colonization of Central Africa. In 1876, he hired Stanley to set up Belgian settlements in the Congo. Belgium ended up with the territories around the Congo River. France occupied the areas farther north.

8. How did Europeans become interested in Central Africa?

• East Africa (page 657)

By 1885, Britain and Germany had become the chief rivals in East Africa. At first, the German chancellor Otto von Bismarck did not think that colonies were very important. But more and more Germans wanted an empire, so Bismarck became interested in colonialism for political reasons. Germany had possessions in West Africa, but it began to seek colonies in East Africa. The British were also interested in East Africa, because control of East Africa

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Chapter 21, Section 2 (continued)

would connect the British Empire in Africa from Egypt in the north to South Africa. Portugal and Belgium also claimed parts of East Africa. To settle these conflicting claims, the Berlin Conference met in 1884 and 1885. The conference officially recognized both British and German claims in East Africa. Portugal received a clear claim on Mozambique. No Africans were present at this conference.

9. What was the purpose of the Berlin Conference?

- **South Africa** (page 658)

By 1865, the total white population in South Africa had risen to nearly two hundred thousand. The descendants of the original Dutch settlers were called Boers or Afrikaners. They had occupied Cape Town and surrounding areas in South Africa since the seventeenth century. During the Napoleonic Wars, the British seized these lands from the Dutch. Afterward, the British encouraged settlers to come to what they called Cape Colony. In the 1830s, the Boers fled northward to the region between the Orange and Vaal Rivers and to the region north of the Vaal River. In these areas, the Boers formed two independent republics—the Orange Free State and the Transvaal (later called the South African Republic). The Boers believed that God ordained white superiority. They put many of the **indigenous** (native to a region) peoples in these areas on reservations. The Boers had frequent battles with the indigenous Zulu people. In the late 1800s, the British became involved in conflicts with the Zulu, and the Zulu were defeated.

In the 1880s, Cecil Rhodes, the prime minister of Cape Colony, influenced British policy in South Africa. Rhodes had founded diamond and gold companies that made him a fortune. He gained control of a territory north of the Transvaal, which he named Rhodesia after himself. In 1896, the British government forced him to resign as prime minister of Cape Colony after it was discovered that he planned to overthrow the Boer government of the South African Republic. This was too late to avoid a war between the British and the Boers, however. This war was called the Boer War and lasted from 1899 to 1902. Boer women and children were put in detention camps. Lack of food caused some 20,000 deaths in the camps. Eventually, the British army won the war. In 1910, the British created an independent Union of South Africa. This new nation combined the old Cape Colony and the Boer republics. To appease the Boers, the British agreed that only whites and a few property-holding Africans could vote.

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Chapter 21, Section 2 *(continued)*

10. Who were the Boers?

• **Colonial Rule in Africa** *(page 659)*

By 1914, Great Britain, France, Germany, Belgium, Italy, Spain, and Portugal had divided up Africa. Only Liberia and Ethiopia remained free states. Native peoples who tried to resist were no match for the superior military power of the Europeans. The British used indirect rule in their territories in Africa. In some areas, the British simply asked a local ruler to accept British authority and to fly the British flag over official buildings. The system of indirect rule had one good feature: it did not disrupt local customs and institutions. But the system was basically a fraud because British administrators made all major decisions. Another problem was that indirect rule kept the old African elites in power. In this way, it sowed the seeds for class and tribal tensions.

Most other European nations used a form of direct rule. This was true in the French colonies. At the top was a French official, usually known as a governor-general. He ruled with the help of a bureaucracy in the capital city of the colony. The French believed in assimilating Africans into French culture rather than preserving native traditions. Africans were eligible to run for office and even to serve in the French National Assembly in Paris. A few were appointed to high positions in the colonial administration.

11. What were the good and bad features of indirect rule?

• **Rise of African Nationalism** *(page 660)*

A new class of leaders emerged in Africa by the beginning of the twentieth century. They were educated in colonial schools or in Western nations. The members of this new class admired Western civilization and sometimes disliked the ways of their own countries. Many resented foreigners and their lack

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Chapter 21, Section 2 (continued)

of respect for African peoples. Westerners said that they believed in democracy, equality, and political freedom, but they did not apply these values in the colonies. There were few democratic institutions. For many Africans, colonialism had meant the loss of their farmlands or terrible jobs on plantations or in sweatshops and factories. Middle-class Africans did not suffer as much as poor peasants and plantation workers, but they also had complaints. They usually qualified only for menial jobs in the government or business. Their salaries were lower than those of Europeans in similar jobs. Europeans set up segregated clubs, schools, and churches. Europeans also had a habit of addressing natives by their first names or calling an adult male “boy.” For all of these reasons, educated Africans resented colonial rule and were determined to assert their own nationality. During the first part of the twentieth century, resentment turned to action. Educated African peoples began to organize political parties and movements seeking the end of foreign rule.

- 12.** How did the new class of educated Africans feel about Western civilization and colonial rule?

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Chapter 21, Section 3

For use with textbook pages 666–670

BRITISH RULE IN INDIA

KEY TERMS

sepoy an Indian soldier serving in the British army (page 666)

viceroys a governor who ruled as a representative of a monarch (page 667)

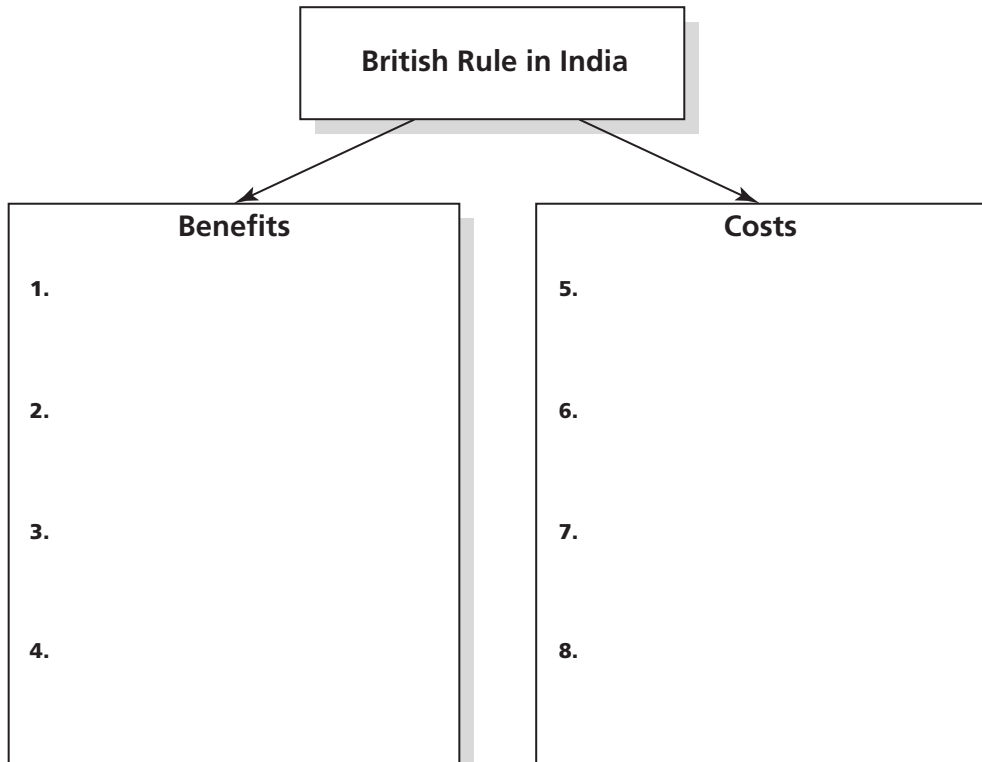
DRAWING FROM EXPERIENCE

Have you ever read any stories or poems by the British writer Rudyard Kipling? What insights do his stories and poems give us into life in India during the Age of Imperialism?

In the last two sections, you learned about imperialism in Southeast Asia and Africa. In this section, you will learn about the British Empire in India.

ORGANIZING YOUR THOUGHTS

Use the diagram below to help you take notes. British rule in India had both benefits and costs for the Indian people. List four benefits and four costs of the British rule.



Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 21, Section 3 (continued)

READ TO LEARN

- **The Sepoy Mutiny** (page 666)

Over the course of the eighteenth century, British power in India had increased while the power of the Mogul rulers had declined. The British East India Company was given power by the British government to rule India. The British East India Company had its own soldiers and forts. It also hired Indian soldiers, known as **sepoys**, to protect its interests.

In 1857, the Indians' distrust of the British led to a revolt. The revolt was known to the British as the Great Rebellion or the Sepoy Mutiny. Indians call it the First War of Independence. The immediate cause of the revolt was a rumor that the British were issuing their Indian troops new bullets that were greased with cow and pig fat. The cow was sacred to Hindus. The pig was taboo to Muslims. A group of sepoys refused to load their rifles with the new bullets. When the British arrested them, the sepoys went on a rampage. They killed 50 Europeans. The revolt quickly spread. The Indian troops fought bravely but were not well organized. Rivalries between Hindus and Muslims kept Indians from working together. Within a year, the revolt was crushed. As a result of the revolt, the British Parliament transferred the powers of the East India Company directly to the British government. In 1876, Queen Victoria was given the title of Empress of India.

9. What was the immediate cause of the Sepoy Mutiny?

- **Colonial Rule** (page 667)

The British government ruled India directly through a British official known as a **viceroy** (a governor who ruled as a representative of a monarch). British rule had both benefits and costs for the Indian people. There were four main benefits. British rule brought order and stability to India. It also led to a fairly honest and efficient government. A new school system was set up. Its goal was to train Indian children to serve in the government and army, but only elite, upper-class Indians could attend. Finally, the British brought railroads, the telegraph, and a postal service to India.

British rule also had costs for the Indian people. British manufactured goods destroyed local industries. For example, the introduction of British tex-

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Chapter 21, Section 3 *(continued)*

tiles put thousands of women out of work and severely damaged the Indian textile industry. In rural areas, the British sent the zamindars to collect taxes. The zamindars took advantage of their new authority and increased taxes. This forced many peasants to become tenants or lose their land entirely. The British also encouraged many farmers to switch from growing food to growing cotton. As a result, food supplies could not keep up with the growing population. Between 1800 and 1900, 30 million Indians died of starvation. Finally, British rule was degrading. The best jobs and the best housing were reserved for the British. Despite their education, the Indians were never considered equals of the British. The British were also disrespectful of India's cultural heritage.

10. Why did 30 million Indians die of starvation between 1800 and 1900?

• **An Indian Nationalist Movement** *(page 669)*

British racial attitudes led to the rise of an Indian nationalist movement. The first Indian nationalists were upper class and English-educated. Some were trained in British law and were members of the civil service. In 1885, a small group of Indians formed the Indian National Congress (INC). The INC did not demand immediate independence, but did call for a share in the governing process. The INC had difficulties because of religious differences. Many of its leaders were Hindu and reflected Hindu concerns. Muslims began to call for the creation of a separate Muslim League to represent the interests of the Muslims in India.

In 1915, Mohandas Gandhi brought new life to India's struggle for independence. Gandhi was born in India but studied in London. He became a lawyer and went to South Africa. After he returned to India, he became active in the independence movement. He set up a movement based on nonviolent resistance. It had two goals: to force the British to improve the lot of the poor and to gain independence for India.

11. What were the goals of Gandhi's movement?

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Chapter 21, Section 3 (continued)

- **Colonial Indian Culture** (page 670)

A cultural revival took place in India in the early nineteenth century. It began with the creation of a British college in Calcutta. A local publishing house was soon opened. It printed textbooks on various subjects, as well as grammars and dictionaries in the Indian languages. The revival soon spread to other regions of India. Indian novelists and poets began writing historical romances and epics. Most preferred to use their own regional languages rather than English. The most famous Indian author was Rabindranath Tagore. He was also a social reformer, spiritual leader, educator, philosopher, singer, and painter. Tagore's life mission was to promote national pride. Tagore was more than just an Indian nationalist, however. He worked for human dignity, world peace, and the mutual understanding between East and West.

12. How did the cultural revival in India in the nineteenth century begin?

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Chapter 21, Section 4

For use with textbook pages 671–677

NATION BUILDING IN LATIN AMERICA

KEY TERMS

creole a person of European descent who was born in Latin America and who lived there permanently (page 672)

peninsulare a Spanish or Portuguese official who resided temporarily in Latin America for political and economic gain (page 672)

mestizo a person of European and Indian descent (page 672)

Monroe Doctrine a doctrine issued by U.S. President James Monroe in which he guaranteed the independence of the new Latin American nations and warned against any European intervention in the Americas (page 673)

caudillo a Latin American leader who ruled chiefly by military force (page 674)

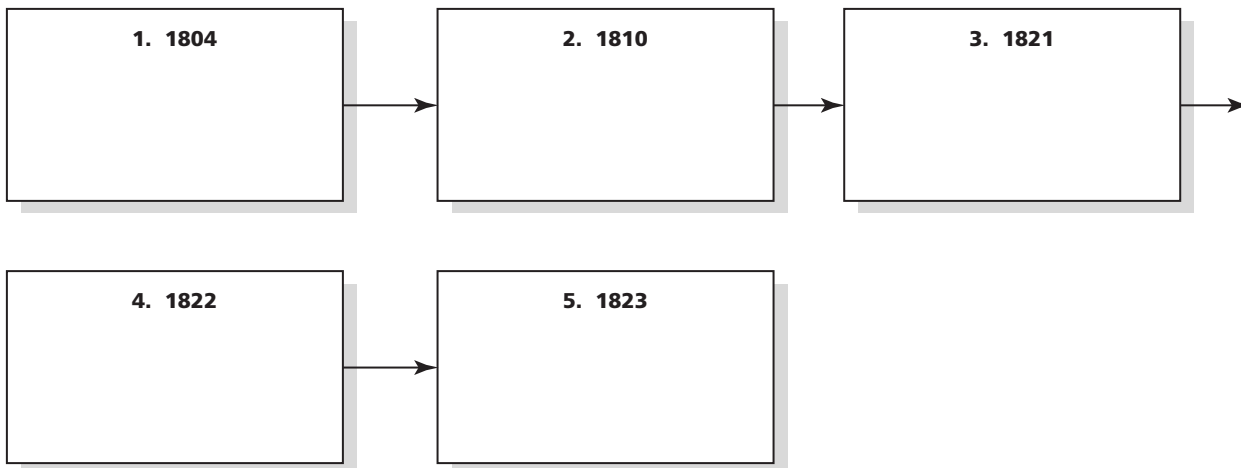
DRAWING FROM EXPERIENCE

Have you ever been to Texas? Did you know that Texas was once an independent country? How did Texas become a U.S. state?

In the last three sections, you read about European imperialism in Southeast Asia, Africa, and India. In this section, you will learn how most of the countries of Latin America gained their independence from Spain and Portugal in the nineteenth century.

ORGANIZING YOUR THOUGHTS

Use the time line below to help you take notes. Indicate which Latin American countries gained their independence in the following years.



Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 21, Section 4 (continued)

READ TO LEARN

• Nationalist Revolts (page 671)

Social classes based on privilege divided colonial Latin America. At the top were *peninsulares*, who held all of the important positions. *Peninsulares* were Spanish and Portuguese officials who resided temporarily in Latin America for political and economic gain and then returned to their mother countries. **Creoles** were descendants of Europeans born in Latin America who lived there permanently. They controlled land and business but were regarded as second class citizens by *peninsulares*. **Mestizos** (people of European and Indian descent) were the largest group but worked as servants or laborers.

Creoles found the principles of equality of all people, free trade, and free press very attractive. They deeply resented the *peninsulares*. The creole elites began to denounce the rule of the Spanish and Portuguese. When Napoleon overthrew the monarchies of Spain and Portugal, the authority of the Spanish and Portuguese in their colonies was weakened. Between 1807 and 1825, a series of revolts brought independence to most of Latin America.

Before these revolts, an unusual revolution took place in the French colony of Saint Domingue on the island of Hispaniola. Led by François-Dominique Toussaint-Louverture, more than a hundred thousand slaves revolted and took control of Hispaniola. On January 1, 1804, the western part of Hispaniola (now called Haiti) announced its freedom and became the first independent state in Latin America.

Beginning in 1810, Mexico also experienced a revolt. The first real hero of Mexican independence was Miguel Hidalgo, a parish priest. Hidalgo had studied the French Revolution and encouraged the local Indians and mestizos to free themselves from the Spanish. On September 16, 1810, a crowd of Indians and mestizos formed a mob army to attack the Spaniards. The revolt was crushed, and Hidalgo was sentenced to death, but September 16 is still remembered as Mexico's Independence Day. The creoles and *peninsulares* were both frightened by the Indians and mestizos. They cooperated in defeating the revolutionaries. Then the creoles and *peninsulares* decided to overthrow Spanish rule to preserve their own power. They selected a creole military leader, Agustín de Iturbide, as their leader. In 1821, Mexico declared its independence from Spain. Iturbide named himself emperor in 1822 but was deposed in 1823. Mexico then became a republic.

José de San Martín of Argentina and Simón Bolívar of Venezuela have been called the "Liberators of South America." They led revolutions throughout the continent. San Martín believed that the Spaniards must be removed from all of South America if any South American nation was to be free. By 1810, his forces had liberated Argentina. Bolívar began the struggle for independence in Venezuela and then went on to lead revolts in New Granada (Colombia) and Ecuador.

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Chapter 21, Section 4 (continued)

In January 1817, San Martín led his forces over the Andes to attack the Spanish in Chile. The Spanish were badly defeated at the Battle of Chacabuco on February 12, 1817. Then San Martín moved on to Peru, where he was joined by Bolívar and his forces. The last significant Spanish army was crushed at Ayacucho on December 9, 1824. By the end of 1824, Peru, Uruguay, Paraguay, Colombia, Venezuela, Argentina, Bolivia, and Chile had all become free of Spain. Earlier, in 1822, Brazil had gained its independence from Portugal. The Central American states had become independent in 1823. In 1838 and 1839, they divided into five republics: Guatemala, El Salvador, Honduras, Costa Rica, and Nicaragua.

There was still one threat to the independence of the Latin American states. Members of the Concert of Europe wanted to use troops to restore Spanish control of Latin America. The British disagreed, because they wanted to trade with Latin America. They joined with the United States against any European moves in Latin America. In 1823, United States President James Monroe issued the **Monroe Doctrine**. He guaranteed the independence of the new Latin American nations and warned against any European intervention in the Americas.

6. Who were the “Liberators of South America”?

• Difficulties of Nation Building (page 673)

The new Latin American nations had serious problems after they gained their independence. Many people had been killed, and much livestock and property had been destroyed. The new nations were not sure of their exact boundaries and went to war with each other to settle border disputes. Poor roads, a lack of railroads, thick jungles, and mountains were also problems. They made communication, transportation, and national unity difficult.

Soon after independence, strong leaders known as **caudillos** came into power in many countries. Caudillos ruled chiefly by military force and were usually supported by large landowners. Some caudillos were modernizers who built roads, canals, ports, and schools. Others were destructive. Antonio López de Santa Anna, for example, ruled Mexico from 1833 to 1855. He misused state funds, stopped reforms, and created chaos. In 1835, American settlers in the Mexican state of Texas revolted against Santa Anna’s rule. Texas gained its independence in 1836 and United States statehood in 1845. War between Mexico and the United States soon followed (1846–1848). Mexico was defeated and lost almost one-half of its territory to the United States in the Mexican War. Santa Anna’s rule was followed by a period of reform from 1855 to 1876. Benito Juárez ruled Mexico during much of this time. He brought lib-

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Chapter 21, Section 4 (continued)

eral reforms to Mexico, including separation of church and state, land distribution to the poor, and an educational system for all of Mexico.

Some caudillos, such as Juan Manuel de Rosas in Argentina, were supported by the masses and brought about radical change. Unfortunately, the caudillo's authority depended on his personal power. When he died or lost power, civil wars for control of the country often erupted.

Great Britain now dominated the Latin American economy. British merchants moved into Latin America in large numbers. Latin America continued to serve as a source of raw materials and food for the industrial nations of Europe and the United States. Exports included wheat, tobacco, wool, sugar, coffee, and hides. Manufactured goods were imported, especially textiles. The emphasis on exporting raw materials and importing manufactured goods meant that the Latin American economy continued to be dominated by foreigners.

A fundamental problem for all of the new Latin American nations was the domination of society by large landowners. Their estates were often so large that they could not be farmed efficiently. Land was the basis of wealth, social prestige, and political power. The large landowners ran governments and controlled courts. They made huge profits by growing export crops, such as coffee. The masses had no land to grow basic food crops and experienced terrible poverty.

7. In what ways were large landowners a fundamental problem for the new Latin American nations?

- **Political Change in Latin America** (page 676)

After 1870, Latin American governments wrote constitutions similar to those of the United States and European democracies. However, the large landowners limited voting rights in order to keep their power.

By 1900, the United States had begun to interfere in the affairs of many Latin American nations. As a result of the Spanish-American War (1898), Cuba became a United States protectorate, and Puerto Rico was annexed to the United States. In 1903, the United States supported a rebellion that made it possible for Panama to separate itself from Colombia. In return, the United States was granted control of a strip of land 10 miles wide that ran from coast to coast in Panama. The United States built the Panama Canal there.

Americans began to invest in Latin America. Beginning in 1898, American military forces were sent to Cuba, Mexico, Guatemala, Honduras, Nicaragua,

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Chapter 21, Section 4 *(continued)*

Panama, Colombia, Haiti, and the Dominican Republic to protect American interests. Some of these troops remained for many years. Many Latin Americans began to resent U.S. interference.

In some countries, large landowners supported dictators who looked out for their interests. Porfirio Díaz, for example, ruled Mexico between 1877 and 1911. He came to power with the support of the army, foreign capitalists, large landowners, and the Catholic Church. During his reign, the wages of workers declined. 95 percent of the rural population owned no land. About a thousand families owned almost all of Mexico. After Díaz was forced from power, Emiliano Zapata aroused the landless peasants and began to seize the estates of wealthy landowners. Between 1910 and 1920, the Mexican Revolution caused great damage to the Mexican economy. Finally, a new constitution was enacted in 1917. It set up a government led by a president. It also created land-reform policies, set limits on foreign investments, and had an agenda to help the workers.

8. Why did the United States support the rebellion in Panama?

• **Economic Change in Latin America** *(page 677)*

After 1870, a period of prosperity began in Latin America. It was based to a large extent on the export of a few basic items. These included wheat and beef from Argentina, coffee from Brazil, coffee and bananas from Central America, and sugar and silver from Peru. After 1900, Latin Americans also increased their own industrialization, especially by building textile, food-processing, and construction material factories.

One result of this prosperity was growth in the middle sectors (divisions) of Latin American society. These sectors included lawyers, merchants, shopkeepers, businesspeople, schoolteachers, professors, bureaucrats, and military officers. These middle-class Latin Americans lived in the cities, believed in education, and saw the United States as a model, especially in regard to industrialization. They sought liberal reform, not revolution. Once they had the right to vote, they usually sided with the landholding elites.

9. What were some characteristics of middle-class Latin Americans?

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Chapter 22, Section 1

For use with textbook pages 683–689

THE DECLINE OF THE QING DYNASTY

KEY TERMS

extraterritoriality living in a foreign country without being subject to its laws (page 685)

self-strengthening a policy in China in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries that encouraged the adoption of Western technology, while keeping Confucian values and institutions (page 686)

spheres of influence areas in China where imperial powers had exclusive trading rights (page 687)

indemnity a payment for damages (page 689)

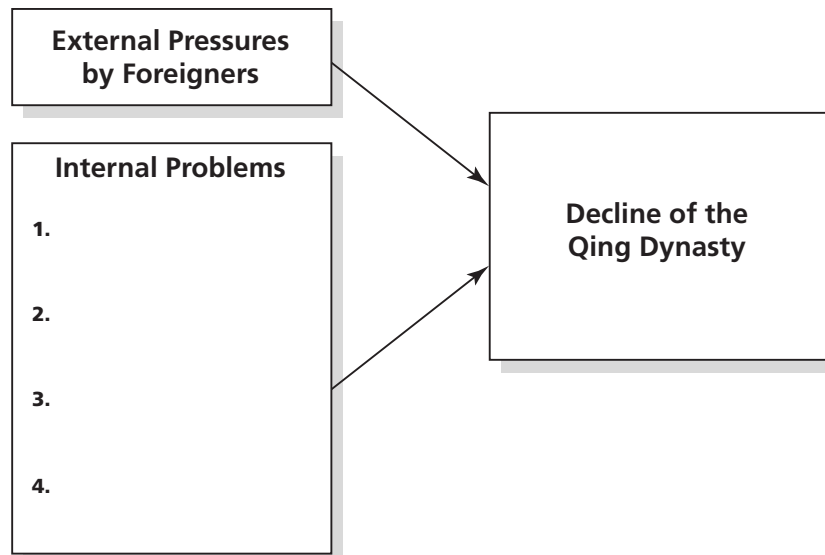
DRAWING FROM EXPERIENCE

Do you like change? Why do you think many people are resistant to change?

In this section, you will read about the decline of the Qing dynasty in China. As the Qing dynasty declined, some Chinese leaders pushed for reforms, but others were resistant to change.

ORGANIZING YOUR THOUGHTS

Use the diagram below to help you take notes. The decline of the Qing dynasty was the result of internal problems within China, as well as external pressures by Western countries. List four of the internal problems that caused the Qing dynasty to decline.



Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 22, Section 1 (continued)

READ TO LEARN

- **Causes of Decline** (page 683)

In 1800, the Qing dynasty was at the height of its power. During the next hundred years, however, it declined and collapsed. One important reason for the decline was external pressure from Westerners. But internal problems also played a role in its decline. The Qing dynasty began to have problems with corruption, peasant unrest, and incompetence. Population growth made things worse. By 1900, there were 400 million people in China. Population growth created a serious food shortage, and many people died of hunger.

5. How did population growth contribute to the decline of the Qing dynasty?

- **The Opium War** (page 684)

By 1800, Europeans had been in contact with China for more than two hundred years. But European merchants were restricted to a small trading post at Guangzhou (Canton). The British did not like this arrangement. The British also had a trade imbalance in China. Britain imported tea, silk, and porcelain from the Chinese and sent Indian cotton to China to pay for these imports. But the cotton did not cover all of the imports, and the British had to pay for more and more of the imports with silver. To improve their trade balance, the British began to trade opium with the Chinese. Opium is a highly addictive drug that was grown in northern India. The Chinese government had already seen how dangerous opium was and had made the opium trade illegal. They asked the British government to stop the opium trade, but the British refused. The Chinese government then blockaded the foreign area in Guangzhou so that they could seize the opium before it came into the country. The British responded with force, which started the first Opium War (1839–1842).

The Chinese were no match for the British. British warships destroyed Chinese forts and sailed up the Chang Jiang (Yangtze River). The Qing dynasty decided to make peace with the British. In the Treaty of Nanjing in 1842, the Chinese agreed to open five coastal ports to British trade. In these ports, Europeans lived in their own sections and were subject to their own laws, not to Chinese laws. This practice is known as **extraterritoriality**. The Chinese also agreed to limit taxes on imported British goods and to pay for the costs of the war. China also gave the island of Hong Kong to the British. Nothing was said in the treaty about the opium trade.

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Chapter 22, Section 1 *(continued)*

6. Why did the British begin to trade opium with China?

• **The Tai Ping Rebellion** *(page 685)*

The Chinese government was unable to deal with the economic problems at the time. This led to a peasant revolt, known as the Tai Ping Rebellion (1850–1864). Hong Xiuquan, a Christian convert, led it. He believed that God had given him the mission of destroying the Qing dynasty. He was joined by many peasants and captured the town of Yongan. He then proclaimed a new dynasty, the Heavenly Kingdom of Great Peace (Tai Ping Tianguo). The Tai Ping Rebellion had several goals. These goals included giving land to all peasants and treating women as equals of men. People were also required to give up their private possessions. Money, food, and clothing were to be shared equally by all. Hong outlawed alcohol and tobacco and the practice of binding women’s feet. In March 1853, the rebels seized Nanjing and killed 25,000 people. The revolt continued for 10 more years but gradually began to fall apart. Europeans came to the aid of the Qing dynasty. In 1864, Chinese forces recaptured Nanjing and destroyed the rebel forces. By the end of the rebellion, twenty million people had been killed.

One reason that the Qing dynasty was unable to deal effectively with these internal problems was its struggle with the Western powers. Beginning in 1856, Great Britain and France used force to gain more trade privileges. Because of the Treaty of Tianjin, in 1858 the Chinese agreed to legalize the opium trade and open new ports to foreign trade. They also gave the peninsula of Kowloon to Great Britain. When the Chinese resisted parts of the treaty, the British seized Beijing in 1860.

7. What were some of the goals of the Tai Ping Rebellion?

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Chapter 22, Section 1 (continued)

• Efforts at Reform (page 686)

By the late 1870s, the Qing dynasty was in decline. Government troops had relied on the armies of regional warlords to help fight the Tai Ping Rebellion. To pay their armies, warlords had collected taxes from local people. After the rebellion was over, many warlords continued to collect taxes for their own use.

The Qing dynasty finally began to listen to reformers. The reformers wanted a new policy that they called **"self-strengthening."** This meant that China should adopt Western technology while keeping Confucian values and institutions. This became the basis for China's foreign and domestic policy for the next 25 years. Factories were built to produce modern weapons and ships. Railroads were also built. But the traditional Chinese bureaucracy was retained, and civil service examinations were still used to select government officials.

8. What reforms did the Qing dynasty begin to make in the late 1870s?

• The Advance of Imperialism (page 687)

Russia took advantage of the Qing dynasty's weakness and forced China to give up territories north of the Amur River in Siberia. In Tibet, Russia and Great Britain struggled for control. This allowed Tibet to become free from Chinese influence.

European countries began to create **spheres of influence** in China. These were areas where the imperial powers had exclusive trading rights. After the Tai Ping Rebellion, warlords began to negotiate directly with foreign nations. In return for money, the warlords gave these nations exclusive trading rights or railroad-building or mining privileges. Britain, France, Germany, Russia, and Japan all established spheres of influence in China.

In 1894, China went to war with Japan over Japanese involvement in Korea. The Chinese were defeated. Japan demanded and received the island of Taiwan and the Liaodong Peninsula. But European powers forced Japan to give the Liaodong Peninsula back to China. In 1897, two German missionaries in China were murdered. Germany used this pretext to demand territories in the Shandong Peninsula. China gave these territories to Germany. As a result, other European nations began to make new claims on Chinese territory.

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Chapter 22, Section 1 *(continued)*

In the spring of 1898, the young emperor Guang Xu started a reform program based on changes in Japan. During the following weeks, known as the One Hundred Days of Reform, he issued edicts calling for major political, administrative, and educational reforms. Many conservatives opposed these reforms. The emperor's aunt, Empress Dowager Ci Xi, also opposed the reforms. With the aid of the imperial army, she was able to imprison the emperor and end his reform efforts.

9. Why did the reform efforts of Guang Xu fail?

- **Opening the Door to China** *(page 688)*

Great Britain and the United States became afraid that other nations would overrun China if the Chinese government collapsed. In 1899, U.S. secretary of state John Hay presented a proposal that ensured equal access to the Chinese market for all nations. It also preserved the unity of the Chinese Empire. When none of the other governments opposed the idea, Hay proclaimed that all major nations had agreed that China should have an Open Door policy.

The Open Door policy did not end the system of spheres of influence. But it did reduce the limits on foreign imports that had been imposed within each sphere. The policy also lessened fears in Britain, France, Germany, and Russia that other powers would take advantage of China's weakness and try to dominate the Chinese market.

10. What was the Open Door policy? What were some of its effects?

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Chapter 22, Section 1 (continued)

- **The Boxer Rebellion** (page 689)

The Open Door policy did not stop the Boxer Rebellion. *Boxer* was the popular name for members of a secret organization called the Society of the Harmonious Fists. The Boxers were upset by the foreign takeover of Chinese lands. Their slogan was “destroy the foreigner.” They especially disliked Christian missionaries and Chinese converts to Christianity. At the beginning of 1900, Boxers roamed the countryside and killed missionaries and Chinese Christians. Their victims also included foreign businessmen and even the German envoy to Beijing. In response to the killings, an allied army of twenty thousand British, French, German, Russian, American, and Japanese troops attacked Beijing in August 1900. The army restored order and demanded more concessions from the Chinese government. The Chinese government was forced to pay a heavy **indemnity** (a payment for damages) to the nations that had crushed the rebellion.

11. Who were the Boxers? Why were they upset?

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Chapter 22, Section 2

For use with textbook pages 691–696

REVOLUTION IN CHINA

KEY TERMS

provincial local, as opposed to national (page 691)

commodity a marketable product (page 694)

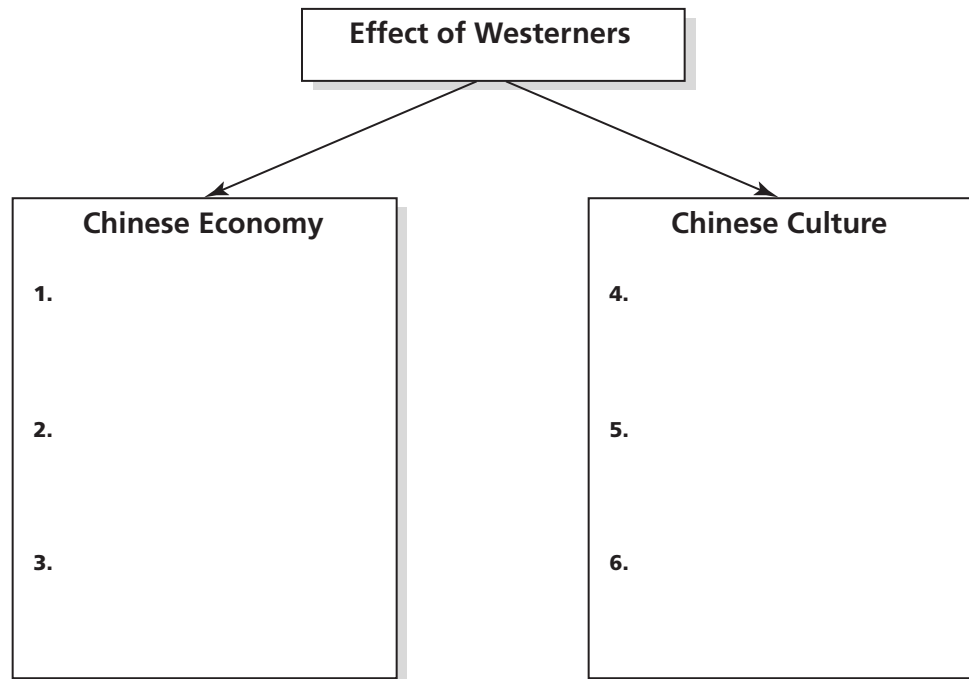
DRAWING FROM EXPERIENCE

Have you ever read any books about China? What are some customs or traditions in China? How are they the same or different from your family's customs or traditions?

In the last section, you read about the decline of the Qing dynasty. In this section, you will learn about the fall of the Qing dynasty in the early twentieth century, and the changes in Chinese society and culture during this time.

ORGANIZING YOUR THOUGHTS

Use the diagram below to help you take notes. The coming of Westerners dramatically affected China. List three ways that the Chinese economy was affected by Westerners. Also list three ways that the West influenced Chinese culture.



Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 22, Section 2 *(continued)*

READ TO LEARN

- **The Fall of the Qing** *(page 691)*

After the Boxer Rebellion, the Qing dynasty tried to make reforms. The civil service examination system was replaced by a new educational system based on the Western model. In 1909, legislative assemblies were formed at the **provincial** (local) level. Elections for a national assembly were held in 1910. Reformers soon became angry, however, when they discovered that the new assemblies could not pass laws but could only give advice to the ruler. The reforms also did nothing for the peasants, artisans, and miners. Their living conditions were getting worse because of tax increases. Unrest grew in the countryside.

The first signs of revolution appeared during the last decade of the nineteenth century. A young radical, Sun Yat-sen, formed the Revive China Society. Sun believed that the Qing dynasty could no longer govern the country. But he knew that the Chinese people were not ready for democracy. He developed a reform process that had three stages: a military takeover, a transitional phase in which Sun’s own revolutionary party would prepare the people for democratic rule, and the final stage of a constitutional democracy. In 1905, Sun united radical groups across China and formed the Revolutionary Alliance.

In 1908, Empress Dowager Ci Xi died. The throne now passed to China’s “last emperor,” Henry Pu Yi, who was an infant. In October 1911, followers of Sun Yat-sen started an uprising in Central China. The Qing dynasty collapsed, but Sun’s party did not have the military or political power to form a new government. The party was forced to turn to General Yuan Shigai, who controlled the army. He agreed to serve as president of a new Chinese republic.

7. What were the three stages of reform proposed by Sun Yat-sen?

- **An Era of Civil War** *(page 693)*

After the collapse of the Qing dynasty, the military took over. General Yuan Shigai ruled in a traditional way and even tried to set up a new imperial dynasty. Reformers hated him because he used murder and terror to destroy the new democratic institutions. He was hated by traditionalists for being disloyal to the Qing dynasty. He came into conflict with Sun’s party, now called

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Chapter 22, Section 2 (continued)

the Guomindang, or Nationalist Party. When Yuan dissolved the new parliament, the Nationalists started a rebellion. The rebellion failed, and Sun Yat-sen fled to Japan.

General Yuan died in 1916 and was succeeded by one of his officers. For the next several years, China slipped into civil war. Warlords seized power in the provinces. Their soldiers caused massive destruction throughout China.

8. Why was General Yuan Shigai so unpopular?

• **Chinese Society in Transition** (page 694)

The coming of Westerners to China affected the Chinese economy in three ways. Westerners introduced modern means of transportation and communication. They also created an export market and integrated the Chinese economy into the world economy. The growth of industry and trade was especially noticeable in the cities. A national market for **commodities** (marketable products), such as oil, copper, salt, tea, and porcelain, had developed. New crops brought in from other countries increased food production. To some, these changes were beneficial. Western influences forced the Chinese to adopt new ways of thinking and acting. But China paid a heavy price for the new ways. Its local industry was largely destroyed. Many of the profits in the new economy went to foreign countries.

After World War I, Chinese businesspeople began to develop new ventures. Shanghai, Wuhan, Tianjin, and Guangzhou became major industrial and commercial centers with a growing middle class and an industrial working class.

9. In what ways did the coming of Westerners have a negative effect on the Chinese economy?

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Chapter 22, Section 2 (continued)

• China's Changing Culture (page 695)

In 1800, daily life for most Chinese people was the same as it had been for centuries. Most were farmers, living in villages in rice fields and on hillsides. 125 years later, there was a different society in China. The changes were most obvious in the cities. The educated and wealthy in the cities had been affected by the presence of Westerners in the country. Confucian social ideals were declining. Radical reformers wanted to eliminate traditional culture. They wanted to create a new China that would be respected by the modern world.

The first changes in traditional culture came in the late nineteenth century. Intellectuals began to introduce Western books, paintings, music, and ideas to China. Western literature and art became popular in China, especially among the urban middle class. Most creative artists followed foreign trends, although traditionalists held on to Chinese culture. Literature in particular was influenced by foreign ideas. Most Chinese novels written after World War I dealt with Chinese subjects, but they reflected the Western tendency toward realism. Most of China's modern authors also showed a clear contempt for the past. Ba Jin was one of China's foremost writers at the turn of the century. In his trilogy, *Family*, *Spring*, and *Autumn*, he describes the disintegration of traditional Confucian ways as the younger members of a large family attempt to break away from their elders.

- 10.** In what ways was Chinese literature particularly influenced by foreign ideas?

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Chapter 22, Section 3

For use with textbook pages 697–704

RISE OF MODERN JAPAN

KEY TERMS

concession a political compromise (page 698)

prefecture a territory in Japan during the Meiji government (page 699)

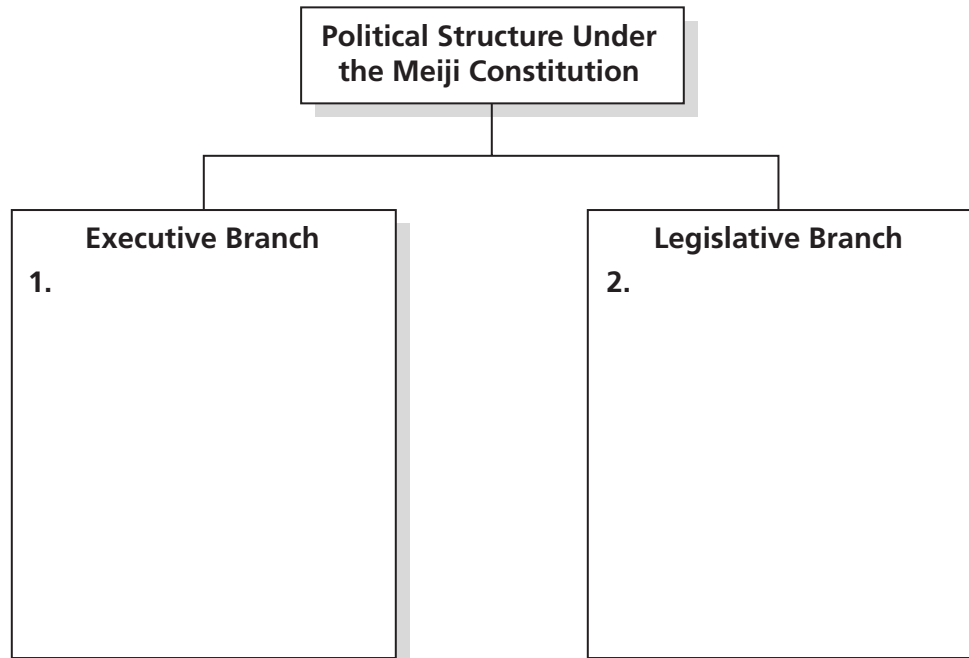
DRAWING FROM EXPERIENCE

What is the first thing that comes to mind when you hear the word “Japanese”? Do you think first of Japanese products, such as cars? Or do you think first of events in Japanese history, such as World War II?

In the last two sections, you learned about changes in China during the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries. In this section, you will learn about changes in Japan during the same period.

ORGANIZING YOUR THOUGHTS

Use the diagram below to help you take notes. Under the Meiji Constitution of 1890, the Japanese government was divided into an executive branch and a legislative branch. Describe the structure of these two branches of government and how officials in each branch were appointed or elected. Circle the branch of government that had the most authority.



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Chapter 22, Section 3 (continued)

READ TO LEARN

- **An End to Isolation** (page 697)

By 1800, the Tokugawa shogunate had ruled the Japanese islands for two hundred years. It had driven out foreign traders and missionaries and isolated the country from nearly all contact with the outside world. To the Western powers, Japanese isolation was a challenge. They began to approach Japan in the hope of opening it up to foreign economic interests. The first foreign power to succeed with Japan was the United States. In the summer of 1853, an American fleet of warships under Commodore Matthew Perry arrived in Edo Bay (now Tokyo Bay). Perry brought with him a letter from President Millard Fillmore. The U.S. president asked for better treatment of sailors shipwrecked on the Japanese islands. He also requested the opening of relations between the United States and Japan.

A few months later, Perry returned to Japan for an answer. Shogunate officials had been discussing the issue. Some argued that contacts with the West would hurt Japan. Others feared the military superiority of the United States and recommended **concessions** (political compromises). Under pressure from Perry's warships, Japan agreed to the Treaty of Kanagawa. This treaty provided for the return of shipwrecked sailors, the opening of two ports to Western traders, and the establishment of a U.S. consulate in Japan. In 1858, U.S. consul Townsend Harris signed a more detailed treaty. It opened several new ports to the United States. It also provided for an exchange of ministers. Similar treaties were soon signed by Japan and several other European nations.

3. What attitude did the Tokugawa shogunate have toward the outside world prior to the nineteenth century?

- **Resistance to the New Order** (page 698)

The decision to open relations with Western nations was very unpopular in parts of Japan. Resistance was especially strong among the samurai warriors in two territories in the south, Satsuma and Choshu. Both territories had strong military traditions and had not been exposed to Western military pres-

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Chapter 22, Section 3 (continued)

sure. In 1863, the Sat-Cho (Satsuma-Choshu) alliance made the shogun promise to end relations with the West. In January 1868, the Sat-Cho armies attacked the shogun's palace and proclaimed that the authority of the emperor had been restored. After a few weeks, the shogun's forces collapsed. The shogunate system came to an end.

4. In what parts of Japan was the decision to open relations with the West particularly unpopular? Why?

• The Meiji Restoration (page 698)

The Sat-Cho leaders realized that Japan must change to survive. They began a policy of reform that turned Japan into a modern industrial nation. The symbol of the new era was the young emperor Mutsuhito. He called his reign the Meiji ("Enlightened Rule"). This period became known as the Meiji Restoration. The Sat-Cho leaders controlled the Meiji ruler, just as earlier emperors had been controlled by the shogunate. The capital was moved from Kyoto to Edo (now Tokyo). To reduce the power of the daimyo, the new leaders stripped them of the titles to their lands in 1871. As compensation, the daimyo were given government bonds and were named governors of the territories that had been under their control. The territories were now called **prefectures**.

During the next 20 years, the Meiji government studied Western political systems. The Meiji Constitution of 1890 was modeled after the constitution of Imperial Germany. The executive branch had the most authority. In theory, the emperor had all executive authority. In practice, a prime minister and his cabinet of ministers had the real executive authority. The Meiji leaders picked these ministers. The legislative branch consisted of a parliament with two houses. Members of the upper house included royal appointments and elected nobles, while members of the lower house were to be elected. The two houses were to have equal powers. The final result was a political system that was democratic in form, but authoritarian in practice. Power remained in the hands of the Sat-Cho leaders. The system allowed the traditional ruling class to keep its influence and economic power.

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Chapter 22, Section 3 (continued)

The Meiji leaders set up a new system of land ownership. A land reform program turned the traditional lands of the daimyo into private property for the peasants. The Meiji leaders also levied a new land tax. The new tax was an excellent source of revenue for the government, but it was a burden on the farmers. Under the old system, farmers had paid a tax on their harvest. In bad harvest years, they owed little or nothing. Under the new system, farmers had to pay the land tax every year, even if the harvest was bad. As a result, in bad years, many peasants were unable to pay their taxes. This forced them to sell their lands to wealthy neighbors and become tenant farmers who paid rent to the new owners. By the end of the nineteenth century, about 40 percent of all farmers were tenants.

The Meiji government encouraged the development of new industries. It gave subsidies to industries and provided training and foreign advisors. It also improved transportation and communications and started a new educational system that stressed applied science. By 1900, Japan's industrial sector was beginning to grow. Besides tea and silk, other key industries were weapons, shipbuilding, and sake (Japanese rice wine).

The Meiji reformers also focused on the military. The reformers were well aware that Japan would need a modern army to compete with the Western powers. A new imperial army was formed in 1871. It was based on compulsory military service. All Japanese men served for three years. The new army was well equipped with modern weapons.

Education also changed. The education ministry adopted the American model of elementary schools, secondary schools, and universities. It brought foreign specialists to Japan, and sent bright students to study abroad. In the schools, a great deal of emphasis was still placed on the virtues of family and community. Loyalty to the emperor was especially valued.

The Meiji Restoration had a dramatic effect on the traditional social system in Japan. Special privileges for the aristocracy were abolished. Women were allowed to seek an education. As the economy shifted from an agricultural to an industrial base, many Japanese people began to get new jobs and establish new relationships. Western fashions, dancing, and sports became popular in Japan. Japanese young people began to imitate the clothing styles, eating habits, hairstyles, and social practices of European and American young people.

The Meiji Restoration had a less attractive side. Many commoners were exploited in the coal mines and textile mills. Workers labored up to 20 hours a day, often under terrible conditions. In many areas, villagers sought new political and human rights. A popular rights movement of the 1870s laid the groundwork for one of Japan's first political parties. It wanted a government that would do what the people wanted. The Civil Code of 1898, however, played down individual rights.

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Chapter 22, Section 3 (continued)

5. What were some of the changes that the Meiji Restoration made in the areas of economics and education?

• Joining the Imperialist Nations (page 702)

The Japanese also copied Western imperialism. Japan is a small country that is densely populated and lacks resources. The Japanese felt that they needed to expand into other territories. They also believed that Western nations were wealthy and powerful because they had colonies. The Japanese began their expansion close to home. In 1874, Japan claimed control of the Ryukyu Islands. Two years later, Japan's navy forced the Koreans to open their ports to Japanese trade. During the 1880s, Chinese-Japanese rivalry over Korea grew. In 1894, Japan and China went to war. Japanese ships destroyed the Chinese fleet and seized the Manchurian city of Port Arthur. In the treaty that ended the war, China recognized the independence of Korea. They also ceded (transferred) Taiwan and the Liaodong Peninsula to Japan. The Japanese later returned the Liaodong Peninsula to China.

Russia was also interested in Korea. Rivalry over Korea led to strained relations between Japan and Russia. In 1904, Japan attacked the Russian naval base at Port Arthur, which Russia had taken from China in 1898. When Japanese forces moved into Manchuria and the Liaodong Peninsula, Russian troops were no match for them. Russia sent its Baltic fleet to Japan, but the new Japanese navy defeated the Russian fleet. Russia agreed to a peace settlement in 1905. They gave the Liaodong Peninsula back to Japan. The Japanese victory stunned the world. Japan had become one of the great powers.

The Japanese government established a sphere of influence in Korea. In 1905, the United States recognized Japan's role in Korea and asked for Japan's support for American authority in the Philippines. However, suspicion between Japan and the United States was growing. In 1907, President Theodore Roosevelt made an agreement with Japan that essentially stopped Japanese immigration to the United States.

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Chapter 22, Section 3 (continued)

6. Why did the Japanese think that expansion was necessary?

• Culture in an Era of Transition (page 703)

Western technology and ideas were introduced to Japan in the nineteenth century and greatly altered Japanese culture. Literature was especially affected. Japanese authors began translating and imitating European literature. Japanese novels were particularly influenced by Western realism. The Japanese also copied Western artistic techniques and styles. Huge buildings of steel and concrete, with Greek columns, appeared in many Japanese cities. A national reaction to these changes began by the end of the nineteenth century. Many Japanese artists began to return to older techniques. In 1889, the Tokyo School of Fine Arts was established to promote traditional Japanese art.

The cultural exchange went both ways. Japanese art influenced Western painters. Japanese arts and crafts, porcelains, textiles, fans, folding screens, and woodblock prints became fashionable in Europe and North America. Japanese gardens became especially popular in the United States.

7. How was Japanese culture affected by Western technology and ideas?

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 23, Section 1

For use with textbook pages 717–720

THE ROAD TO WORLD WAR I

KEY TERMS

conscription a military draft (page 718)

mobilization the process of assembling troops and supplies and making them ready for war (page 720)

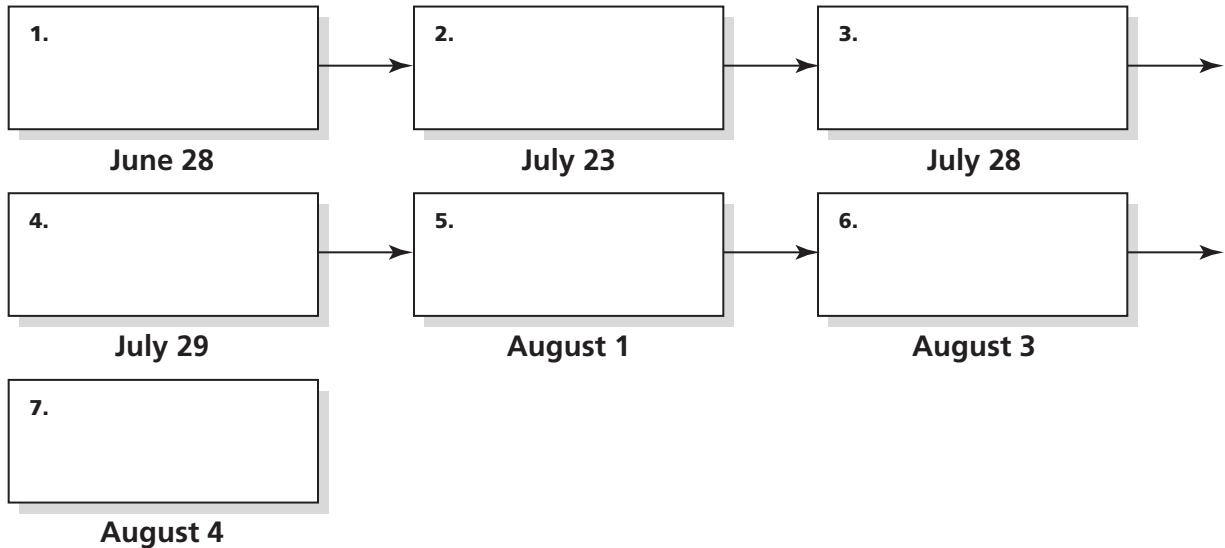
DRAWING FROM EXPERIENCE

Have you ever been given an ultimatum? How did you react to the ultimatum?

In this section, you will learn about the events that led to the start of World War I. Ultimatums played an important role in starting World War I.

ORGANIZING YOUR THOUGHTS

Use the time line below to help you take notes. Identify seven key events during the summer of 1914 that led to World War I.



Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 23, Section 1 (continued)

READ TO LEARN

- **Nationalism and the System of Alliances** (page 717)

The growth of nationalism in the nineteenth century had many serious results. Competition for colonies and trade increased. Europe's great powers were soon divided into two alliances, the Triple Alliance and the Triple Entente. Crises in the Balkans between 1908 and 1913 made many European nations angry with each other. They were willing to go to war to preserve the power of their national states. Not all ethnic groups had become nations. But the growth of nationalism made the Irish, the Poles, and the Slavic peoples dream of creating their own national states.

8. What were some of the results of the growth of nationalism in the nineteenth century?

- **Internal Dissent** (page 718)

National desires were not the only reason for internal conflicts in the early 1900s. Socialist labor movements had become more powerful. These movements were more and more willing to use strikes to reach their goals, even if this led to violence. Some conservative leaders were afraid that their nations were on the verge of revolution. Some historians believe that the fear of revolution and the desire to suppress internal conflicts encouraged the leaders of some nations to go to war in 1914.

9. How might Socialist labor movements have contributed indirectly to the start of World War I?

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Chapter 23, Section 1 (continued)

- **Militarism** (page 718)

After 1900, the size of armies throughout Europe grew at an alarming rate. **Conscription**, a military draft, was used by most Western nations before 1914. It caused the size of European armies to double between 1890 and 1914. Militarism (preparation for war) was growing. Military leaders became more powerful. They began to draw up plans that could be used if their countries went to war. They insisted that any changes to these plans would cause chaos in the military. In the 1914 crises, this forced European political leaders to make decisions for military rather than political reasons.

10. How did the plans of military leaders affect the decisions of political leaders in 1914?

- **The Outbreak of War: Summer 1914** (page 719)

Nationalism, internal conflicts, and militarism all played a role in the starting of World War I. But it was a crisis in the Balkans in the summer of 1914 that led directly to war. States in southeastern Europe had struggled for years to free themselves from Ottoman rule. Austria-Hungary and Russia both wanted to control these new nations. By 1914, Serbia, supported by Russia, was determined to create a large Slavic state in the Balkans. Austria-Hungary was determined that this would not happen.

On June 28, 1914, Archduke Francis Ferdinand, the heir to the throne of Austria-Hungary, visited the Bosnian city of Sarajevo. Members of the Black Hand made plans to kill him. The Black Hand was a Serbian terrorist organization that wanted Bosnia to be free of Austria-Hungary. An attempt to kill the archduke with a bomb was unsuccessful. Later in the day, however, Gavrilo Princep, a 19-year-old Bosnian Serb, shot and killed both the archduke and his wife.

The Austro-Hungarian government did not know whether the Serbian government was involved in the assassination of the archduke, but it did not care. It saw this as an opportunity to crush Serbia. Austrian leaders wanted to attack Serbia, but they feared that Russia would intervene to help Serbia. The Austrians asked their German allies for help. Emperor William II of Germany agreed to give Austria-Hungary his full support. Austrian leaders sent an ultimatum to Serbia on July 23. Many of the demands were so extreme that Serbia had no choice but to reject some of them. On July 28, Austria-Hungary declared war on Serbia.

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Chapter 23, Section 1 (continued)

Russia was determined to support Serbia. Czar Nicholas II ordered partial mobilization of the Russian army. **Mobilization** is the process of assembling troops and supplies and making them ready for war. In 1914, mobilization was seen as an act of war. Russian military leaders told the czar that they could not partially mobilize. Their mobilization plans were based on a war against both Germany and Austria-Hungary. They claimed that mobilization against only Austria-Hungary would create chaos. Based on this claim, the czar ordered full mobilization of the Russian army on July 29. The German government warned Russia that it must stop its mobilization. When Russia refused, Germany declared war on Russia on August 1.

Germany also had a military plan. One of its generals, Alfred von Schlieffen, had drawn up a plan that called for war against both Russia and France. Under the Schlieffen Plan, Germany could not go to war against Russia only. As a result, Germany declared war on France on August 3. It also issued an ultimatum to Belgium, in which it demanded the right of German troops to pass through Belgium, even though Belgium was a neutral nation.

On August 4, Great Britain declared war on Germany, officially for violating Belgian neutrality. In fact, Britain was allied with France and Russia and was concerned about maintaining its own world power. Now all of the great European powers were at war.

- 11.** What warnings and ultimatums did European countries issue in the summer of 1914? What were the results of these ultimatums?

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 23, Section 2

For use with textbook pages 721–727

THE WAR

KEY TERMS

- propaganda** ideas spread to influence public opinion for or against a cause (page 721)
- trench warfare** warfare fought in trenches (ditches protected by barbed war) (page 722)
- war of attrition** a war based on wearing the other side down by constant attacks and heavy losses (page 724)
- total war** a war involving a complete mobilization of resources and people in the warring countries (page 726)
- planned economies** economic systems directed by government agencies (page 726)

DRAWING FROM EXPERIENCE

Have you ever read the book *All Quiet on the Western Front*? How does the book describe the fighting on the Western Front during World War I?

In the last section, you learned about the events that led to the start of World War I. In this section, you will learn about the war itself and its impact on civilians at home.

ORGANIZING YOUR THOUGHTS

Use the chart below to help you take notes. World War I was a new kind of war because of new strategies and technology. Indicate how each of the following strategies or technologies was used during the war.

| War Strategy or Technology | Use During the War |
|----------------------------|--------------------|
| Propaganda | 1. |
| Trench warfare | 2. |
| War of attrition | 3. |
| Airplanes | 4. |
| Submarines | 5. |
| Planned economies | 6. |

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 23, Section 2 (continued)

READ TO LEARN

• 1914 to 1915: Illusions and Stalemate (page 721)

Before 1914, many leaders believed that war was so full of risks that it would not be worth fighting. Others believed that diplomats could control any situation and avoid war. In August 1914, these ideas were shown to be wrong.

Prior to the war, government **propaganda** (ideas spread to influence public opinion for or against a cause) had been used to stir up hatred towards other nations. When the war broke out, European governments had no trouble getting their citizens' support for the war effort. Most people were truly convinced that their nation's cause was just. Most people also believed that the war would end in a few weeks.

The German hopes for a quick end to the war rested on a military gamble. The Schlieffen Plan called for German troops to make a wide arc through Belgium into northern France. The German army would then sweep around Paris and surround most of the French army. However, the German advance was halted a short distance from Paris at the First Battle of the Marne (September 6–10). To stop the Germans, the French military leaders loaded 2,000 Parisian taxicabs with fresh troops and sent them to the front.

On this Western Front, the war turned into a stalemate, with both sides taking shelter in their trenches. Trenches were ditches protected by barbed wire. These trenches soon stretched from the English Channel to the border of Switzerland. This **trench warfare** kept both sides in virtually the same positions for four years.

The war on the Eastern Front was fought much differently. There was a great deal of movement by the various armies on this front. As the war began, Russia moved into eastern Germany but was defeated at the Battle of Tannenberg on August 30 and at the Battle of Masurian Lakes on September 15. These defeats ended the Russian threat to Germany. Germany's ally, Austria-Hungary, fared less well at first. The Austrians were defeated by the Russians in Galicia and were thrown out of Serbia. Then Italy, their other ally, betrayed them by attacking Austria in May 1915. Italy joined France, Great Britain, and Russia, who were now called the Allied Powers or Allies.

Germany came to the aid of their Austrian friends. A German-Austrian army defeated the Russians in Galicia and pushed them back into their own territory. The Russians had been almost knocked out of the war. Bulgaria joined Germany and Austria-Hungary in September 1915. They attacked and eliminated Serbia from the war. Their success in the east allowed them to focus their attention back on the Western Front.

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Chapter 23, Section 2 (continued)

7. How did the war on the Western Front turn into a stalemate?

• **1916 to 1917: The Great Slaughter** (page 723)

By 1916, the trenches on the Western Front had become elaborate systems of defense. Barbed wire, machine-gun nests, and heavy artillery protected the trenches on both sides. The troops lived in holes in the ground. A strip of land, known as no-man’s-land, separated the opposing forces. Trench warfare baffled the military leaders of both sides. Never before in the history of war had armies fought each other in this way. The leaders believed that if they could break through enemy lines, they could return to the type of fighting that they understood. These attempts to break through the lines would begin with a heavy artillery barrage that was intended to flatten the other side’s barbed wire and leave them in a state of shock. Troops would then be ordered to leave their trenches and attack the other side with fixed bayonets. These attacks seldom worked, however, because the troops were fired at by the enemy’s machine guns. In 1916 and 1917, millions of young men were killed in their attempts to achieve these breakthroughs. World War I had turned into a **war of attrition**, a war based on wearing the other side down by constant attacks and heavy losses.

For the first time in history, warfare was waged in the sky. Airplanes appeared over battlefields for the first time in 1915. At first, planes were only used to spot the enemy’s position, but they soon began to attack ground targets. Battles began to be waged between the opposing pilots. At first, they used pistols. Later, machine guns were added to the noses of the planes.

The Germans also used their giant airships, the zeppelins, to bomb London and eastern England. The zeppelins were filled with hydrogen gas, and Germany’s enemies soon found that these airships could be turned into raging infernos when hit by antiaircraft guns.

8. Why did attempts to break through enemy lines rarely work under trench warfare?

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 23, Section 2 (continued)

- **Widening of the War** (page 724)

Because of the stalemate on the Western Front, both sides sought new allies. The Ottoman Empire had already joined the war on Germany’s side in August 1914. Russia, Great Britain, and France declared war on the Ottoman Empire in November. The Allies tried to open a Balkan front by landing forces at Gallipoli, southwest of Constantinople, in April 1915. But Bulgaria entered the war on the side of the Central Powers (Germany, Austria-Hungary, and the Ottoman Empire). After a disastrous campaign at Gallipoli, the Allies were forced to withdraw.

By 1917, the war had truly become a world war. Italy, now on the side of the Allies, opened up a front against Austria-Hungary. In the Middle East, a British officer known as Lawrence of Arabia encouraged Arab princes to revolt against their Ottoman rulers. In 1918, British forces from Egypt destroyed the Ottoman Empire in the Middle East. The British used forces from India, Australia, and New Zealand in their Middle East campaigns. During the war, the Allies were able to seize German colonies around the world. Japan, a British ally since 1902, seized several German-held islands in the Pacific. Australia seized German New Guinea.

9. In what ways did the Allies try to widen the war from 1915 to 1918?

- **Entry of the United States** (page 725)

At first, the United States tried to remain neutral. However, as the war dragged on, this became increasingly difficult. The United States finally entered the war as a result of the naval war between Great Britain and Germany. As part of its war strategy, Britain used its navy to block war materials and other goods from reaching Germany by sea. Germany retaliated by setting up its own blockade of Britain. German strategy included the use of submarines. The submarines were allowed to attack not only military ships but also civilian ships, such as passenger liners.

On May 7, 1915, German forces sank the British ship *Lusitania*. Around 1,100 civilians were killed, including over 100 Americans. As a result of American protests, the German government stopped unrestricted submarine warfare. The German and British navies fought only one direct battle, the Battle of Jutland. This battle took place on May 31, 1916, and neither side won a con-

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Chapter 23, Section 2 (continued)

clusive victory. By January 1917, the Germans were desperate to win the war. German naval officers convinced Emperor William II that the use of unrestricted submarine warfare would starve the British into submission. They convinced the emperor that the British would starve before the United States could act.

The German naval officers were wrong. The British did not surrender. The return to unrestricted submarine warfare caused the United States to enter the war in 1917. By 1918, large numbers of American troops had arrived in Europe. The entry of the United States in the war boosted the Allies psychologically and gave them a new source of money and supplies.

10. What was the immediate cause of U.S. entry into World War I?

- **The Home Front: The Impact of Total War** (page 726)

World War I became a **total war**, a war involving a complete mobilization of resources and people. The war affected all of the citizens in the warring countries. As a result of the war effort, there was an increase in government powers and in the use of propaganda. Once it became clear that the war would last far longer than expected, it also became clear that many more men and supplies would be needed. Governments expanded their powers to meet these needs. Countries drafted tens of millions of young men to serve in their militaries. Wartime governments also expanded their power over their economies. Capitalism, with its free market system, was temporarily set aside. In order to mobilize all the resources of their nations for the war effort, European nations set up **planned economies**—systems directed by government agencies. Governments set up price, wage, and rent controls. They also rationed food supplies and materials, regulated imports and exports, and took over transportation systems and industries.

As the war dragged on and the casualties mounted, patriotic enthusiasm decreased. War governments fought back against the growing opposition to the war. Authoritarian governments, like those of Germany, Russia, and Austria-Hungary, used force to control their people. Soon, even democratic states expanded their police powers in order to stop opposition to the war. In Great Britain, a law was passed that allowed the government to arrest protesters as traitors. Newspapers were censored or even suspended. Governments continued to use propaganda to create enthusiasm for the war.

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Chapter 23, Section 2 *(continued)*

Because so many of the world's men were involved in fighting the war, new opportunities were opened up for women. Women were asked to take over jobs that had not been available to them before. But many of the new jobs for women proved to be only temporary when men returned to the job market. There were some lasting results, however. In Great Britain, Germany, Austria, and the United States, women were given the right to vote soon after the war ended.

11. How did World War I affect the lives of women in Western countries?

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Chapter 23, Section 3

For use with textbook pages 732–737

THE RUSSIAN REVOLUTION

KEY TERMS

soviets councils in Russia composed of representatives from the workers and soldiers (page 734)

war communism a Communist policy that was used to ensure regular supplies for the Red Army through government control of banks and industries, the seizing of grain from peasants, and the centralization of state administration under Communist control (page 737)

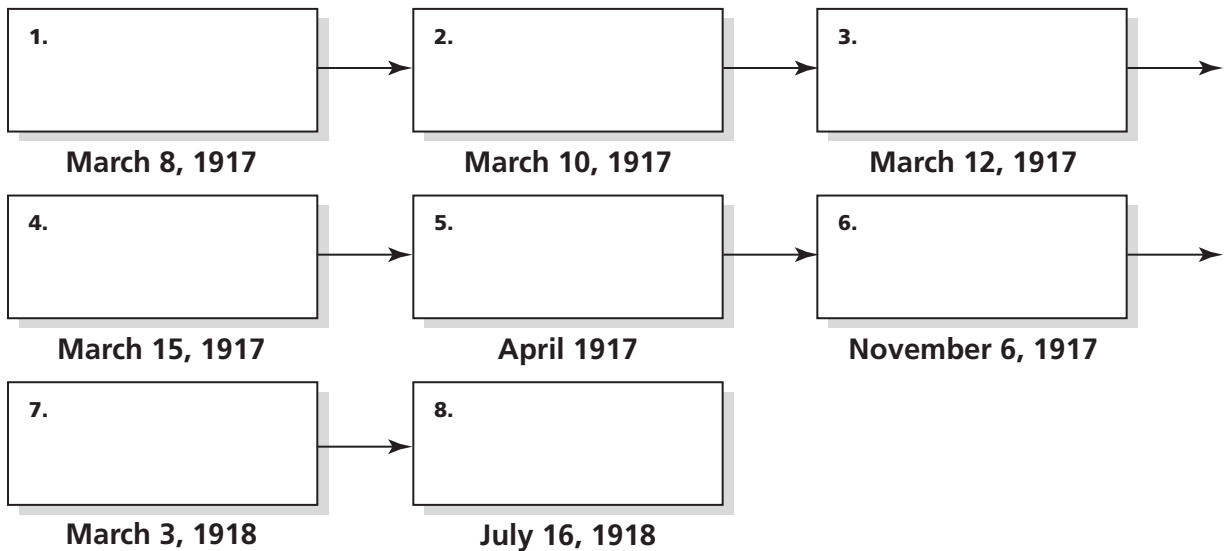
DRAWING FROM EXPERIENCE

What is communism? Have you ever thought what it would be like to live in a Communist country? How would your life be different?

In the last two sections, you read about World War I. In this section, you will learn about the Russian Revolution, which took place while the war was still going on. By 1921, the Communists were in total command of Russia.

ORGANIZING YOUR THOUGHTS

Use the time line below to help you take notes. Identify eight important events during the Russian Revolution.



Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 23, Section 3 (continued)

READ TO LEARN

- **Background to Revolution** (page 732)

Russia was not prepared for World War I. There were no competent military leaders in Russia. Czar Nicholas II was in charge of the armed forces, but he had no training or ability for this. Russian industry was not able to produce the weapons needed for the army. Because of these problems, the Russian army suffered heavy losses. Between 1914 and 1916, two million soldiers were killed.

While the czar was at the battlefield, his wife Alexandra made all of the important decisions. She consulted Rasputin, a Siberian peasant who claimed to be a holy man. She was influenced by him because he seemed to be able to stop the bleeding of her son Alexis, who had hemophilia. Because of his influence, Rasputin became an important power in Russia.

With such poor leadership, the Russian people suffered through a series of military and economic disasters. The people became more and more upset with the rule of the czar. Even the conservative aristocrats, who supported the czar, felt that something must be done. They assassinated Rasputin in December 1916. But even this drastic move could not save the reign of the czar.

In March 1917, working women led a series of strikes in the capital city of Petrograd (formerly St. Petersburg). The government had begun rationing bread. The same women who were working 12-hour days in the factories were now forced to wait in long lines to get bread to feed their children. On March 8, 1917, about 10,000 women marched through the city of Petrograd. Other workers soon joined them. They called for a general strike, which shut down all the factories in the city on March 10. Czar Nicholas ordered troops to break up the crowds by shooting them if necessary. But large numbers of soldiers soon joined the demonstrators and refused to fire on the crowds.

The Duma, or legislative body, which the czar had tried to dissolve, met anyway. On March 12, it set up a provisional government. This government asked the czar to step down. Because Nicholas II had no support from the army or even from the wealthy aristocrats, he did step down, on March 15. The provisional government, led by Alexander Kerensky, decided to carry on the war to preserve Russia's honor. This was a major blunder. Workers and peasants no longer supported the war. The provisional government was also faced with a challenge to its authority—the **soviets**. The soviets were councils in Russia composed of representatives from the workers and soldiers. They were largely made up of socialists. One group, the Bolsheviks, began to play a crucial role.

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Chapter 23, Section 3 (continued)

9. How did World War I contribute to the start of the Russian Revolution?

• **The Rise of Lenin** (page 735)

The Bolsheviks began as a small faction of a Marxist party called the Russian Social Democrats. Vladimir Ilyich Ulianov, better known as V.I. Lenin, led them. Lenin believed that violent revolution was the only way to destroy the capitalist system. He believed that a small group of well-disciplined revolutionaries could accomplish this. From 1900 to 1917, Lenin spent most of his time abroad. When the provisional government was formed, he saw this as an opportunity for the Bolsheviks to seize power. In April 1917, German military leaders shipped Lenin back to Russia. They hoped that he would create disorder in Russia.

Lenin's arrival in Russia started a new stage of the Russian Revolution. He believed that the Bolsheviks should try to gain control of the soviets and use them to overthrow the provisional government. The Bolsheviks told the people what they wanted to hear. They promised an end to the war, the redistribution of land to the peasants, the transfer of factories from capitalists to the workers, and the transfer of government power to the soviets.

10. What promises did the Bolsheviks make to the Russian people?

• **The Bolsheviks Seize Power** (page 736)

By October 1917, the Bolsheviks held a slight majority in the Petrograd and Moscow soviets. The number of Bolsheviks had grown from 50,000 to 240,000. Leon Trotsky, a dedicated revolutionary, led the Petrograd soviet. This put the Bolsheviks in a position to claim power in the name of the soviets. During the night of November 6, the Bolsheviks seized the Winter Palace, where the provisional government met. The government quickly collapsed. This overthrow

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Chapter 23, Section 3 (continued)

occurred at the same time as a meeting in Petrograd of the all-Russian Congress of Soviets. This group represented soviets from all over the country. Outwardly, Lenin turned power over to the Congress of Soviets. But the real power passed to the Council of People’s Commissars, headed by Lenin.

The Bolsheviks changed their name to the Communists. Now that they were in power, they faced the difficult task of removing Russia from the war. This would mean the loss of much Russian territory, but there was no real choice. On March 3, 1918, Lenin signed the Treaty of Brest-Litovsk and gave up eastern Poland, Ukraine, Finland, and the Baltic provinces. Even with this treaty, real peace did not come, because the country soon sank into civil war.

11. Why did Lenin sign the Treaty of Brest-Litovsk?

• Civil War in Russia (page 736)

Many people were opposed to the new Communist government. These people included groups loyal to the czar, liberals, anti-Lenin socialists, and the Allies. The Allies sent troops to various parts of Russia in the hope of bringing Russia back into the war. The troops rarely fought on Russian soil, but they gave aid to anti-Communist forces. From 1918 to 1921, the Communist (Red) Army was forced to fight on many fronts against the anti-Communist (White) forces. In the early part of the civil war, the White Army had several successes. But by 1920, the major White forces had been defeated. Within a year, the Communists regained control of Ukraine, Georgia, Russian Armenia, and Azerbaijan.

The royal family was a victim of the civil war. On July 16, 1918, members of the local soviet in Ekaterinburg murdered Nicholas II and his family, where they were being held captive.

12. What was the White Army? What groups made it up?

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 23, Section 3 (continued)

• **Triumph of the Communists** (page 736)

The Communists had won the civil war against seemingly insurmountable odds. There were several reasons for their success. First, the Red Army was well disciplined. This was largely due to the efforts of Leon Trotsky, the commissar of war. He reinstated the draft and insisted on complete obedience. Second, the Whites were not unified. They had no common goal, and the different groups did not trust each other. The Communists, on the other hand, had a clear vision of a new socialist order. Third, the Communists implemented a policy of **war communism**. This policy was used to ensure regular supplies for the Red Army. This meant government control of banks and industries, the seizing of grain from peasants, and the centralization of state administration under Communist control. The Communists also formed a new secret police, known as the Cheka. The Cheka began a Red Terror aimed at destroying those who opposed the new regime. Finally, the presence of foreign armies on Russian soil was used to stir up Russian patriotism. The Communists were able to call on patriotic Russians to fight foreign attempts to control the country.

By 1921, the Communists had total control of Russia. Russia was now a centralized state dominated by a single party. The state was also hostile to the Allies, because the Allies had helped the Communists' enemies in the civil war.

13. Why did the Communists win the civil war in Russia?

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 23, Section 4

For use with textbook pages 739–744

END OF THE WAR

KEY TERMS

- armistice** a truce or an agreement to end the fighting in a war (page 740)
- reparation** a payment by a nation defeated in a war to other nations to cover the costs of the war (page 742)
- mandate** a commission from the League of Nations to a nation that allowed it to officially govern another nation or region without actually owning the territory (page 744)

DRAWING FROM EXPERIENCE

Have you ever heard the slogans, “the war to end all wars” and “to make the world safe for democracy”? Did you know that these slogans were used in reference to World War I?

In the last section, you read about the events that led to the Russian Revolution. In this section, you will read about the end of World War I and the efforts to restore peace after the war.

ORGANIZING YOUR THOUGHTS

Use the chart below to help you take notes. In January 1919, representatives of the victorious nations met in Paris to make a final settlement of World War I. The peace settlement with Germany was called the Treaty of Versailles. List the major provisions of the treaty as they relate to the four areas in this chart.

| Major Provisions of the Treaty of Versailles | |
|--|----|
| Responsibility / costs of the war | 1. |
| Military | 2. |
| Territory | 3. |
| Buffer zone | 4. |

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 23, Section 4 (continued)

READ TO LEARN

- **The Last Year of the War** (page 739)

1917 had been a very difficult year for the Allied forces. Their offensives on the Western Front had been defeated, and the Russian Revolution led to Russia's withdrawal from the War. However, the entry of the United States into the war gave the Allies a much-needed psychological boost. In 1918, fresh American troops would be crucial.

With Russia out of the war, Germany was free to concentrate entirely on the Western Front. Erich von Ludendorff, who guided German military operations, decided to make a grand offensive to break the stalemate. The German attack began in March 1918. The Germans were stopped at the Second Battle of the Marne on July 18. French, Moroccan, and American forces, supported by hundreds of tanks, threw the Germans back over the Marne. The German offensive had failed.

With more than a million American troops pouring into France, the Allies began to advance toward Germany. On September 29, 1918, General Ludendorff informed the German leaders that the war was lost. He demanded that the government ask for peace. The Allies were unwilling to make peace with the present German government, so reforms were begun to create a more liberal government. However, the exhausted German people were unwilling to wait for this process to take place. On November 3, sailors in the town of Kiel mutinied. Soldiers and workers began to form councils throughout Germany. By November 9, William II was forced to leave the country. The Social Democrats under Friedrich Ebert announced the creation of a democratic republic. On November 11, the new government signed an **armistice** (a truce or an agreement to end the fighting in a war).

The war was over, but revolutionary forces had been set in motion in Germany. A group of radical socialists formed the German Communist Party in December 1918. The Communists tried to seize power in both Berlin and Munich. The new Social Democratic government used army troops to crush the rebels and murdered two of the Communist party leaders. The attempt at revolution left the German middle class with a deep fear of communism.

Austria-Hungary also experienced revolution. Ethnic groups tried harder and harder to gain their independence. By the end of the war, the Austro-Hungarian Empire no longer existed. The independent republics of Austria, Hungary, and Czechoslovakia, along with the monarchical state called Yugoslavia, replaced it.

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Chapter 23, Section 4 (continued)

5. What was the effect of U.S. entry into World War I?

• The Peace Settlements (page 741)

In January 1919, representatives of 27 victorious Allied nations met in Paris to make a final settlement of the war. Idealistic reasons for fighting World War I had replaced the original reasons for starting the war. Even before the end of the war, the U.S. president, Woodrow Wilson, had presented his "Fourteen Points" to the U.S. Congress. These points were his basis for a peace settlement. His proposals included reaching the peace agreements openly rather than through secret diplomacy, reducing armaments (military forces or weapons), and ensuring self-determination (the right of each people to have its own nation). He also pushed for a general association of nations that would guarantee independence for large and small nations alike.

When the delegations met at the Paris Peace Conference, it became obvious that secret treaties and agreements had been made before the war. These agreements had raised the hopes of European nations for territorial gains. These hopes could not be totally ignored, even if they were in conflict with the principle of self-determination. David Lloyd George, prime minister of Great Britain, was determined to make Germany pay for the war. Georges Clemenceau, the premier of France, was mainly concerned about national security. Clemenceau wanted Germany to be stripped of all weapons. He also wanted German **reparations** (payments to cover the costs of the war) and a separate Rhineland as a buffer zone between France and Germany.

Wilson, Lloyd George, and Clemenceau made the most important decisions at the Paris Peace Conference. Germany was not even invited to attend, and Russia could not be present because of civil war. On January 25, 1919, the conference accepted Wilson's idea of a League of Nations. In return, Wilson agreed to make compromises on territorial arrangements. He did this because he believed that the League could later fix any unfair arrangements. Clemenceau also compromised. He gave up France's wish for a separate Rhineland.

The final peace settlement consisted of five separate treaties with the defeated nations (Germany, Austria, Hungary, Bulgaria, and Turkey). The most important treaty was the Treaty of Versailles with Germany. It was

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Chapter 23, Section 4 (continued)

signed on June 28, 1919. The treaty said that Germany and Austria were responsible for starting the war. It ordered Germany to pay reparations for the damage done to the Allied nations. Germany also had to reduce its army and navy and eliminate its air force. Alsace and Lorraine were returned to France. Parts of eastern Germany were given to a new Polish state. German land on both sides of the Rhine was made a demilitarized zone and stripped of all weapons and fortifications. It was hoped that this would prevent Germany from making advances toward France.

As a result of the war and the peace treaties, the map of Europe was redrawn. Both the German and Russian empires lost much territory. The Austro-Hungarian Empire disappeared. New nations emerged: Finland, Latvia, Estonia, Lithuania, Poland, Czechoslovakia, Austria, and Hungary. Romania acquired additional lands from Russia, Hungary, and Bulgaria. Serbia became part of a new nation, called Yugoslavia. The Paris Peace Conference was supposedly guided by the principle of self-determination, but the mixtures of peoples in Eastern Europe made it impossible to draw boundaries totally along ethnic lines. As a result, almost every eastern European country still had ethnic minorities. The problem of ethnic minorities would lead to later conflicts.

The Ottoman Empire was also broken up by the peace settlement. To gain Arab support during the war, the Allies had promised to recognize the independence of Arab states in the Ottoman Empire. After the war, however, France took control of Lebanon and Syria, and Britain took control of Iraq and Palestine. These arrangements were called **mandates**. Under the mandate system, a nation officially governed another nation as a mandate on behalf of the League of Nations but did not own the territory.

World War I had other results as well. The death of so many people undermined the idea of progress. This war had been a total war that required a complete mobilization of people and resources. As a result, the power of governments increased. The turmoil created by the war led to even more insecurity. Revolutions broke up old empires. New states were created, which led to new problems.

6. What new nations emerged as a result of the war and the peace treaties?

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 24, Section 1

For use with textbook pages 751–756

THE FUTILE SEARCH FOR STABILITY

KEY TERMS

depression a period of low economic activity and rising unemployment (page 754)

collective bargaining the right of unions to negotiate with employers over wages and hours (page 755)

deficit spending going into debt to finance government projects (page 756)

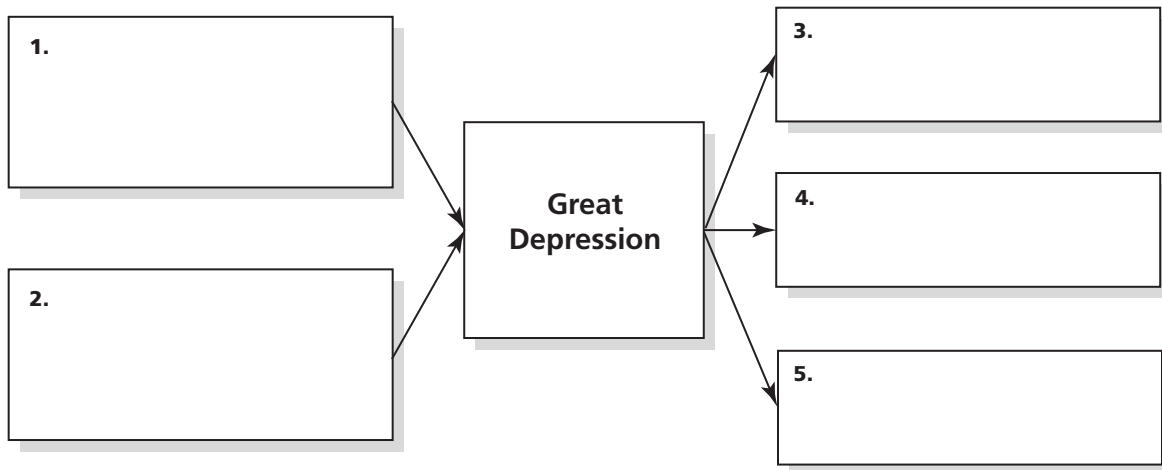
DRAWING FROM EXPERIENCE

Have you ever read the novel *The Grapes of Wrath*? Have you ever seen the film? What period in history is portrayed in this novel?

In this section, you will learn about events in Europe and the United States following World War I. After a brief period of peace and prosperity, the Western nations were shaken by the Great Depression.

ORGANIZING YOUR THOUGHTS

Use the diagram below to help you take notes. Identify two causes and three political effects of the Great Depression.



Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 24, Section 1 (continued)

READ TO LEARN

- **Uneasy Peace, Uncertain Security** (page 751)

The peace settlement at the end of World War I made many nations unhappy. Some of the provisions in the settlement led to border disputes in eastern Europe. The League of Nations was not very effective in maintaining peace. This was partly because the League could not use military force. It was also due to the fact that the United States was not in the League. The U.S. Senate refused to ratify (approve) the Treaty of Versailles. This meant that the United States could not be a member of the League of Nations.

The Germans, in particular, were unhappy with the peace settlement. The French government demanded strict enforcement of the Treaty of Versailles. In April 1921, the Allied Reparations Commission determined that Germany had to pay 33 billion dollars for reparations (the payments the Germans were supposed to make for the damage they had done in the war). Germany tried to make these payments, but after one year, they announced that they could no longer afford to pay. France sent troops to occupy the Ruhr Valley, the chief industrial and mining center of Germany. The French intended to collect reparations by operating the Ruhr mines and factories. German workers resisted by going on strike. To pay the workers, the German government printed more and more paper money. This added to the inflation (rise in prices) that had already begun in Germany. The German mark (Germany's currency) soon became worthless. Workers took their weekly pay home in wheelbarrows.

The Allies could see that this situation could not continue. In August 1924, a new plan for reparations, the Dawes Plan, was produced. It reduced the total amount that Germany had to pay. It also reduced the yearly payment amount to something that Germany could afford to pay. The plan also granted a \$200 million loan to Germany. This loan opened the door to American investments in Europe. There was a brief period of prosperity from 1924 to 1929.

In 1925, France and Germany signed the Treaty of Locarno. This treaty guaranteed Germany's new western borders with France and Belgium. This treaty was viewed by many as the beginning of a new era of European peace. Germany joined the League of Nations in 1926. In 1928, sixty-three nations signed the Kellogg-Briand pact. These nations pledged "to renounce war as an instrument of national policy." Unfortunately, there was no way to enforce the Kellogg-Briand pact. Most nations were unwilling to risk their national security by reducing their military forces.

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Chapter 24, Section 1 (continued)

6. Why was the League of Nations not very effective in maintaining peace?

• The Great Depression (page 754)

The brief period of prosperity that began in 1924 ended in an economic collapse that became known as the Great Depression. A **depression** is a period of low economic activity and rising unemployment.

At least two factors played an important role in the start of the Great Depression. The first factor was a series of downturns in the economies of individual nations during the second half of the 1920s. The second factor was an international financial crisis involving the U.S. stock market. During the 1920s, the U.S. stock market was booming. American investors, who had been making loans to Germany, began to pull money out of Germany to invest it in the stock market. Then, in October 1929, the U.S. stock market crashed. U.S. investors withdrew even more money from Germany and other European markets. This weakened the banks of Germany and other European countries. By 1931, trade was slowing down, industrial production was declining, and unemployment was rising. During 1932, the worst year of the depression, 25 percent of British workers were unemployed, and 40 percent of the German workforce was without work. Governments did not know how to deal with the crisis. Traditional solutions, such as cutting costs by lowering wages, made matters worse.

The Great Depression had serious political effects. First, governments became more and more involved in the economies of their countries. Second, Communism became more popular. Marx had predicted that capitalism would eventually destroy itself through overproduction, and this seemed to be coming true. Finally, masses of people began to follow dictators who offered solutions.

7. How did the crash of the U.S. stock market affect Germany and other European countries?

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Chapter 24, Section 1 (continued)

• Democratic States After the War (page 755)

In 1919, most European countries had democratic governments. In many nations, women could now vote. In Germany, the imperial government had come to an end. A German democratic state known as the Weimar Republic was created, but it had problems. First, it had no outstanding political leaders. In 1925, Paul von Hindenburg was elected president. He was a military hero and did not fully endorse the republic that he was elected to lead. The Weimar Republic also had serious economic problems. Inflation caused fixed incomes and life savings to become worthless. This pushed the middle class toward political parties that opposed the republic. After a brief period of prosperity, the Great Depression struck and led to mass unemployment. Fear seized the country and led to the rise of extremist parties.

After the war, France became the strongest power on the European continent. Because its economy was more balanced than the economies of other nations, the French did not experience the full effects of the Great Depression until 1932. The economic problems had political effects. The government changed six times in less than two years. Finally, in 1936, a coalition of leftist parties (Communists, Socialists, and Radicals) formed the Popular Front government. This government gave workers the right to **collective bargaining**, (the right of unions to negotiate with employers over wages and hours), a 40-hour workweek, a two-week paid vacation, and a minimum wage. But the Popular Front's policies were unable to solve the problems of the depression.

During the war, Great Britain had lost many of the markets for its products to the United States and Japan. This led to a rise in unemployment. From 1925 to 1929, however, Britain had a period of prosperity. After the Great Depression struck, the Labour Party was unable to solve the country's problems and fell from power in 1931. A new government, led by the Conservatives, took credit for bringing Britain out of the worst stages of the depression.

Most of the political leaders in Britain ignored the new ideas of a British economist, John Maynard Keynes. Keynes believed that unemployment came from a decline in demand, not from overproduction. He believed that the government should increase demand by putting people back to work building highways and public buildings. He believed that governments should finance these projects even if this meant **deficit spending** (going into debt).

After Germany, no nation was more affected by the Great Depression than the United States. By 1933, over 12 million people were unemployed. Under these circumstances, Franklin Delano Roosevelt was elected to the presidency in 1932. He introduced an economic policy called the New Deal. The New Deal included an increase in government-funded public works, including the Works Progress Administration (WPA). The WPA was a government organization that employed between 2 and 3 million people. WPA workers built

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Chapter 24, Section 1 *(continued)*

bridges, roads, post offices, and airports. The Roosevelt administration also introduced new legislation that began the U.S. welfare system. In 1935, the Social Security Act created old-age pensions and unemployment insurance. However, the New Deal alone could not solve the unemployment problems of the Great Depression. In 1938, more than 10 million Americans were still unemployed.

8. What was the New Deal?

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Chapter 24, Section 2

For use with textbook pages 758–764

THE RISE OF DICTATORIAL REGIMES

KEY TERMS

totalitarian state a government that aims to control the political, economic, social, intellectual, and cultural lives of its citizens (page 759)

fascism a political philosophy that glorifies the state above the individual by emphasizing the need for a strong central government led by a dictatorial ruler (page 759)

New Economic Policy an economic policy in Russia under Lenin that was a modified version of the old capitalist system (page 761)

Politburo a seven-member committee that was the leading policy-making body of the Communist Party in the Soviet Union (page 761)

collectivization a system in which private farms are eliminated in favor of government ownership of the land (page 763)

DRAWING FROM EXPERIENCE

What do you think of when you hear the word “fascist”? Why do people follow fascist leaders?

In the last section, you read about economic problems in Europe and the United States following World War I. In this section, you will learn how dictators came to power in several countries during this period. The economic problems in these countries were a major factor in the rise of these dictatorships.

ORGANIZING YOUR THOUGHTS

Use the chart below to help you take notes. List the dictator who took control in each of these countries following World War I, and describe how each dictator came to power.

| Country | Dictator | How He Came to Power |
|--------------|----------|----------------------|
| Italy | 1. | 2. |
| Soviet Union | 3. | 4. |
| Spain | 5. | 6. |

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 24, Section 2 (continued)

READ TO LEARN

- **The Rise of Dictators** (page 758)

The apparent triumph of democracy in Europe in 1919 was extremely short-lived. Of the major European powers, only France and Great Britain were still democratic by 1939. Italy, the Soviet Union, Germany, and many other European countries adopted dictatorships. Some of these dictatorships were totalitarian states. A **totalitarian state** is a government that aims to control the political, economic, social, intellectual, and cultural lives of its citizens. These totalitarian states wanted to control the minds and the hearts of their citizens. This goal was achieved through the use of mass propaganda techniques and modern communications. A single leader and a single party led the totalitarian states. The result was government that was no longer interested in individual freedoms but in imposing the collective will of the masses on everyone. Of course, the will of the masses was determined and organized by the dictator.

7. What is a totalitarian state?

- **Fascism in Italy** (page 759)

In the early 1920s, Benito Mussolini established the first European Fascist movement in Italy. **Fascism** is a political philosophy that glorifies the state above the individual by emphasizing the need for a strong central government led by a dictator. The government controls people, and any opposition is suppressed.

Italy, like other European countries, experienced severe economic problems following World War I. Inflation grew, and there were strikes. Socialists spoke of revolution. The middle class was afraid of a Communist takeover. In 1919, Mussolini created a new political group, the *Fascio di Combattimento* (League of Combat). The term Fascist comes from this name. In 1920 and 1921, he formed bands of armed Fascists called *squadristi* (Blackshirts). They attacked socialist offices and newspapers. They also used violence to break up strikes. By 1922, Mussolini's movement was growing rapidly. The middle-class fear of socialism, communism, and disorder made the Fascists attractive to many people. Mussolini also knew that the Italian people were angry that Italy did not receive more land in the peace settlement after the war. He won thousands of supporters by demanding more land.

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Chapter 24, Section 2 (continued)

In 1922, the Fascists threatened to march on Rome if they were not given power. The king of Italy, Victor Emmanuel III, gave in and made Mussolini prime minister. Mussolini used his position to create a Fascist dictatorship. The prime minister was made head of the government, with the power to make laws by decree. The police were given unlimited power to arrest and jail people. In 1926, the Fascists outlawed all other political parties in Italy. Mussolini ruled Italy as *Il Duce*, "The Leader."

Mussolini used various means to control the Italian people. He created a secret police, known as the OVRA. He also used the mass media to spread propaganda. The Fascists used organizations to promote fascism and to control the people. For example, youth groups were formed that focused on military activities and values. The Fascists hoped to create a nation of new Italians who were fit, disciplined, and war-loving.

However, the Fascists did not completely destroy the country's old power structure. The military was able to keep most of its independence. Victor Emmanuel was retained as king. The Catholic Church was allowed to keep its territory in Rome, known as Vatican City. Mussolini also gave the Church a large grant of money and recognized Catholicism as the "sole religion of the state." In return, the Catholic Church recognized the Italian state and encouraged Italians to support the Fascist regime.

8. What is fascism?

- **A New Era in the Soviet Union** (page 761)

During the civil war in Russia, Lenin followed a policy of war communism. The government controlled most industries and took grain from peasants in order to feed the army. When the war was over, peasants began to sabotage the program by hoarding food. The situation became even worse when a great famine hit Russia between 1920 and 1922. Five million people died. Industrial collapse followed the famine.

In March 1921, Lenin gave up the policy of war communism. He began a program known as the **New Economic Policy** (NEP). It was a modified version of the old capitalist system. Peasants were allowed to sell their produce openly. Small businesses could be privately owned and operated. The NEP saved the country from economic disaster. In 1922, Lenin and the Communists formally created a new state called the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics (also known as the USSR or the Soviet Union.)

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Chapter 24, Section 2 (continued)

When Lenin died in 1924, there was a struggle for power within the Politburo. The **Politburo** was a seven-member committee that had become the leading policy-making body of the Communist Party. One group in the Politburo wanted to end the NEP and begin a program of rapid industrialization. Leon Trotsky led this group. This group also wanted to spread communism to other nations around the world. Another group wanted to continue the NEP and to focus on building a socialist state in Russia. This group believed that rapid industrialization would hurt the peasants.

At the same time, there was a personal rivalry in the Politburo between Trotsky and another Politburo member, Joseph Stalin. Stalin was the party general secretary and appointed regional and local party officials. He used this influential position to gain control of the Communist Party. Because he had appointed thousands of officials within the party, he had a great deal of support. By 1929, Stalin was able to establish a powerful dictatorship. Trotsky was expelled from the party and eventually murdered.

The Stalinist Era was a period of economic, social and political changes that were even more revolutionary than the revolutions of 1917. Stalin ended the NEP in 1928 and began his first Five-Year Plan. The Five-Year Plans set economic goals for five-year periods. Their purpose was to transform Russia from an agricultural country into an industrial country. The First Five-Year Plan emphasized the production of capital equipment (heavy machines that produce other goods) and weapons. This plan resulted in dramatic increases in the production of steel and oil. But the Russian people paid a terrible price for industrialization. The number of workers in the cities increased by millions, but housing actually declined. As a result, millions of people lived in pitiful conditions. Wages also declined by 43 percent between 1928 and 1940. The government also began to collectivize farms. **Collectivization** was a system in which private farms were eliminated. Instead, the government owned all of the land while the peasants worked it. By 1934, 26 million family farms had been collectivized into 250,000 units. Like industrialization, collectivization had a terrible cost. Peasants responded by hoarding food and killing livestock. This produced a widespread famine. 10 million peasants died in famines in 1932 and 1933.

Stalin's programs had other costs. Stalin's desire to make all decisions by himself led to purges (removals) of the Old Bolsheviks (people who had been involved in the early days of the revolution). Stalin also purged army officials, diplomats, union officials, party members, intellectuals, and many ordinary citizens. Eight million Russians were arrested. Millions were sent to labor camps in Siberia. Others were executed.

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Chapter 24, Section 2 (continued)

9. What economic changes were made during the Stalinist Era?

• Authoritarian States in the West (page 763)

A number of governments in the Western world were not totalitarian but were authoritarian. They had some features in common with totalitarian states, such as using police powers. But these governments did not try to create a new kind of mass society. Their main concern was preserving the old social order.

Some of these governments were in Eastern Europe. Austria, Poland, Czechoslovakia, Yugoslavia, Romania, Bulgaria, and Hungary all adopted parliamentary systems after the war. But authoritarian governments soon replaced most of these systems. Only Czechoslovakia maintained its democracy. Parliamentary systems failed for several reasons. First, these countries did not have a tradition of democracy. They were mostly rural, and many of the peasants were illiterate. Ethnic conflicts also caused problems. Powerful landowners, the churches, and even some members of the middle class were afraid of land reform, communism, and ethnic conflict. These groups supported authoritarian governments that maintained the old system.

In Spain, democracy also failed to survive. General Francisco Franco led a revolt against the democratic government in 1936. A bloody civil war began. Germany and Italy aided Franco's forces with weapons, money, and men. The Spanish republican government was aided by thousands of foreign volunteers and by trucks, planes, tanks, and advisers from the Soviet Union. The Spanish Civil War ended when Franco's forces took Madrid in 1939. Franco established a dictatorship that favored large landowners, businesspeople, and the Catholic clergy. Because it favored traditional groups and did not try to control every aspect of people's lives, his dictatorship was authoritarian, not totalitarian.

10. Why did parliamentary systems fail in many Eastern European countries?

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 24, Section 3

For use with textbook pages 766–771

HITLER AND NAZI GERMANY

KEY TERMS

Reichstag the German parliament (page 767)

concentration camp large prison camps in which members of minority groups and political dissidents are confined (page 768)

DRAWING FROM EXPERIENCE

Have you ever read *The Diary of Anne Frank*? What does Anne Frank describe in her diary?

In the last section, you read about the rise of dictatorial regimes in several countries in Europe. In this section, you will read about the rise of Hitler and the Nazi party in Germany.

ORGANIZING YOUR THOUGHTS

Use the chart below to help you take notes. Summarize the policies and activities of Hitler and the Nazi Party as they relate to the subjects or groups in this chart.

| Nazi Policies and Activities | |
|------------------------------|----|
| Terror | 1. |
| Economy | 2. |
| Spectacles/organizations | 3. |
| Women | 4. |
| Jews | 5. |

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 24, Section 3 (continued)

READ TO LEARN

- **Hitler and His Views** (page 766)

Adolf Hitler was born in Austria in 1889. He moved to Vienna to become an artist but was rejected by the Vienna Academy of Fine Arts. While in Vienna, however, he developed his basic ideas. Racism was at the center of Hitler's ideas. Hitler was also an extreme nationalist. He believed in the need for struggle and understood how political parties could use propaganda and terror. In 1919, he joined the German Worker's Party, a right-wing extreme nationalist party in Munich. By the summer of 1921, Hitler had taken total control of the party, which was renamed the National Socialist German Workers' Party (NSDAP) or Nazi for short.

In 1923, he organized an armed uprising against the government in Munich. This uprising, called the Beer Hall Putsch, was crushed, and Hitler was put in prison. During his time in prison, Hitler wrote *Mein Kampf* (*My Struggle*), a book about his movement and its basic ideas. In *Mein Kampf*, extreme German nationalism, strong anti-Semitism, and anticommunism are combined with a theory of struggle. Hitler's theory emphasized the right of superior nations to gain lebensraum (living space) through expansion. It also emphasized the right of superior individuals to gain authoritarian leadership over the masses.

6. What were some of the ideas expressed by Hitler in *Mein Kampf*?

- **Rise of Nazism** (page 767)

Hitler decided that the Nazis would have to gain power by legal means, not by a violent overthrow of the government. This meant that the Nazi Party would have to become a mass political party that could compete for votes. After his release from prison, Hitler expanded the Nazi Party to all parts of Germany. By 1932, it had 800,000 members and was the largest party in the **Reichstag** (the German parliament).

Germany's economic problems were a crucial factor in the Nazi rise to power. Unemployment had risen to 6 million by the winter of 1932. The impact of the Great Depression made extremist parties more attractive. Hitler also promised to create a new Germany. His focus on national pride, national honor, and traditional militarism appealed to his listeners.

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Chapter 24, Section 3 (continued)

7. How did the Great Depression contribute to the rise of Nazism in Germany?

• **Victory of Nazism** (page 768)

The elites of Germany looked to Hitler for leadership. He had the mass support to create a right-wing, authoritarian government that would save Germany and people in privileged positions from a Communist takeover. In 1933, President Hindenburg agreed to allow Hitler to become chancellor and create a new government. On March 23, 1933, the Reichstag passed the Enabling Act. This law gave the government the power to ignore the constitution for four years while it issued laws to deal with the country's problems. It gave Hitler's actions a legal basis. He no longer needed the Reichstag or President Hindenburg. He became a dictator appointed by the Reichstag itself.

The Nazis worked quickly to bring all institutions under Nazi control. The civil service was purged of Jews and democratic elements. Large prison camps (called **concentration camps**) were set up for people who opposed the new government. Trade unions were dissolved. All political parties except for the Nazis were abolished. When Hindenburg died in 1934, the office of president was also abolished. Hitler became the sole ruler of Germany. Public officials and soldiers were required to take an oath of loyalty to Hitler as their *Führer* ("Leader").

8. What was the Enabling Act?

• **The Nazi State, 1933–1939** (page 769)

Hitler wanted to develop an Aryan racial state that would dominate Europe and possibly the world for generations to come. Nazis thought that the Germans were the true descendants and leaders of the Aryans. (They misused the term Aryan to mean the ancient Greeks and Romans and twentieth-century Germans and Scandinavians.) They believed that they could create another empire like the ancient Roman Empire. They also believed that there had been two German empires or *Reichs* (the Holy Roman Empire and the German Empire of 1871 to 1918). It was Hitler's goal to create a Third Reich, the empire of Nazi Germany.

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Chapter 24, Section 3 (continued)

The Nazis used terror and repression to create their totalitarian state. The *Schutzstaffeln* (“Guard Squadrons”), also known simply as the SS, played an important role. It was originally created as Hitler’s bodyguard. Under the direction of Heinrich Himmler, the SS came to control both the secret police forces and the regular police in Germany. Besides the police forces, it used concentration camps, execution squads, and death camps (concentration camps where prisoners were killed).

To end the depression, Hitler created public works projects and gave money to construction firms to put people back to work. But it was a huge rearmament program that finally solved the unemployment problem. By 1937, less than 500,000 people were unemployed. The Nazis’ part in bringing an end to the depression was an important reason that many Germans accepted Hitler and the Nazis. Demonstrations and spectacles were also used to make the German people accept Hitler’s policies. These events created mass enthusiasm and excitement. Churches, schools, and universities were also brought under the control of the Nazis. Youth organizations were created that taught Nazi ideals.

Women were considered important in the Aryan state because they bore children. The Nazis believed that men were meant to be warriors and political leaders, while women were meant to be wives and mothers. These ideas determined employment opportunities for women. Jobs in heavy industry, university teaching, medicine, and law were considered unsuitable for women. The Nazis encouraged women to pursue other occupations, such as social work and nursing, or not to work at all.

The Nazi party reflected Hitler’s anti-Semitic beliefs. In September 1935, the Nazis announced new racial laws at the annual party rally in Nuremberg. These “Nuremberg Laws” excluded Jews from German citizenship and forbade marriages between Jews and German citizens. Jews were also required to wear yellow Stars of David and to carry identification cards saying they were Jewish. A more violent phase of anti-Semitism began on the night of November 9, 1938—the *Kristallnacht* (“night of shattered glass”). Nazis burned synagogues and destroyed seven thousand Jewish businesses. Thirty thousand Jewish men were rounded up and sent to concentration camps. At least a hundred Jews were killed. After *Kristallnacht*, Jews were barred from all public transportation and public buildings, such as schools and hospitals. They were not allowed to own, manage, or work in any retail store. Jews were also encouraged to emigrate from Germany.

9. What did the Nazis mean when they used the term *Aryan*?

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 24, Section 4

For use with textbook pages 772–775

CULTURAL AND INTELLECTUAL TRENDS

KEY TERMS

- photomontage** a picture made of a combination of photographs (page 774)
- surrealism** an artistic movement that sought a reality beyond the material world and found it in the world of the unconscious (page 774)
- uncertainty principle** a theory of the German physicist Werner Heisenberg that suggests that all physical laws are based on uncertainty (page 775)

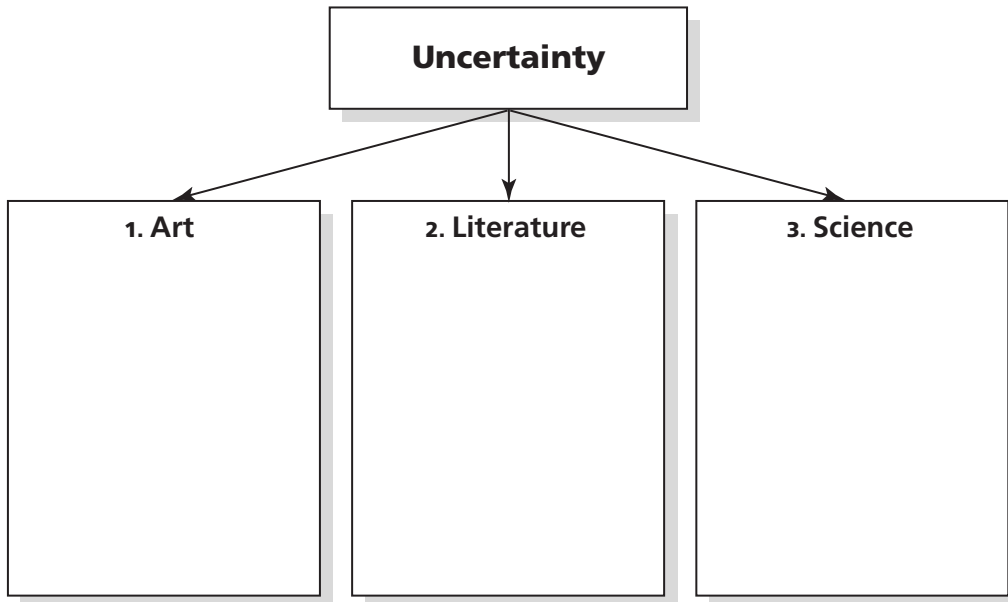
DRAWING FROM EXPERIENCE

What do you like to do with your free time? Do you go to movies and sporting events? Or do you spend most of your free time at home?

In the last three sections, you learned about economic problems and political developments in Western countries after the end of World War I. In this section, you will learn about cultural and intellectual developments during this time. New work patterns after World War I provided people with more free time to pursue leisure activities.

ORGANIZING YOUR THOUGHTS

Use the diagram below to help you take notes. The years following World War I were characterized by political, economic, and social uncertainty. Describe how this uncertainty was reflected in art, literature, and science.



Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 24, Section 4 (continued)

READ TO LEARN

• Mass Culture: Radio and Movies (page 772)

A series of inventions in the late nineteenth century led to a revolution in mass communications. After Marconi's discovery of wireless radio waves, broadcasting facilities were built in the United States, Europe, and Japan in 1921 and 1922. Mass production of radios also began. Although motion pictures had first appeared in the 1890s, full-length feature films did not appear until shortly after World War I. By 1939, about 40 percent of adults in the more industrialized countries were attending a movie once a week.

Radio and the movies were used for political purposes. Radio enabled leaders, like Hitler, to get their messages to the masses. The Nazi regime encouraged manufacturers to produce inexpensive radios that could be bought on an installment plan. Movies also had propaganda potential. Joseph Goebbels, the propaganda minister of Nazi Germany, created a special film division in his Propaganda Ministry. It supported the making of both documentaries (nonfiction films) and popular feature films that carried the Nazi message.

4. How were radio and the movies used for political purposes in Nazi Germany?

• More Goods, More Leisure (page 773)

By 1920, the eight-hour workday had been established for many workers in Europe. This gave people more free time for leisure activities. Leisure activities included professional sporting events and travel. Trains, buses, and cars made trips to the beach or holiday resorts popular and affordable. Mass leisure also offered new ways for totalitarian states to control the people. The Nazis adopted a program called *Kraft durch Freude* ("Strength through Joy"). The program offered its own leisure activities, including concerts, operas, films, guided tours, and sporting events. The program's inexpensive vacations were especially popular.

5. How did the Nazis use leisure activities to control people?

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 24, Section 4 (continued)

• Artistic and Literary Trends (page 774)

World War I had left many Europeans with a sense of despair. To many people, the war meant that something was terribly wrong with Western values and that human beings were violent animals. The Great Depression and the growth of fascist movements added to the despair and uncertainty. This uncertainty was reflected in the artistic and intellectual achievements following World War I. Abstract art became even more popular. There was a fascination with the absurd and the unconscious. The idea that the world did not make sense gave rise to two movements, Dadaism and surrealism. Dadaists were artists who were obsessed with the idea that life has no purpose. They tried to express the insanity of life in their art. Dada artist Hannah Höch, for example, used **photomontage** (a picture made of a combination of photographs) to comment on women’s roles in the new mass culture. Another movement, **surrealism**, sought a reality beyond the material world and found it in the world of the unconscious. Surrealists portrayed fantasies, dreams, and even nightmares to show this greater reality. Salvador Dalí was one of the foremost surrealists. He painted everyday objects but separated them from their normal contexts. By placing recognizable objects in unrecognizable relationships, Dalí created a strange world in which the irrational became visible.

In the 1920s, Weimar Germany was one of the chief European centers for modern arts and sciences. Hitler and the Nazis, however, rejected modern art as “degenerate.” They believed that they could create a new and genuine German art. It would glorify the strong, the healthy, and the heroic. The new German art was actually derived from nineteenth-century folk art and emphasized realistic scenes of everyday life.

The interest in the unconscious was also found in new literary techniques. “Stream of consciousness” was a technique used by writers to show the thoughts of each character. The most famous example of this technique is the novel *Ulysses* by James Joyce. The German writer Hermann Hesse dealt with the unconscious in a different way. His novels reflect the influence of both Freud’s psychology and Asian religions. In *Siddhartha* and *Steppenwolf*, Hesse used Buddhist ideas to show the psychological confusion of modern existence.

6. What did Hitler and the Nazis think about modern art?

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 24, Section 4 (continued)

- **The Heroic Age of Physics** (page 775)

The revolution in physics begun by Albert Einstein continued after World War I. One physicist, Ernest Rutherford, called the 1920s the “heroic age of physics.” Newton’s physics had made people believe that all phenomena could be defined and predicted. In 1927, this belief was shaken when the German physicist Werner Heisenberg explained an observation that he called the **uncertainty principle**. This theory suggests that all physical laws are based on uncertainty. The foundation for the uncertainty principle is the fact that the behavior of subatomic particles is unpredictable. The theory’s emphasis on randomness and uncertainty challenged Newtonian physics and represented a new worldview.

7. What scientific fact was the foundation for the uncertainty principle?

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 25, Section 1

For use with textbook pages 781–785

NATIONALISM IN THE MIDDLE EAST

KEY TERMS

genocide the deliberate mass murder of a particular racial, political, or cultural group
(page 782)

ethnic cleansing another term for genocide, used during the Bosnian War of 1993 to 1996
(page 782)

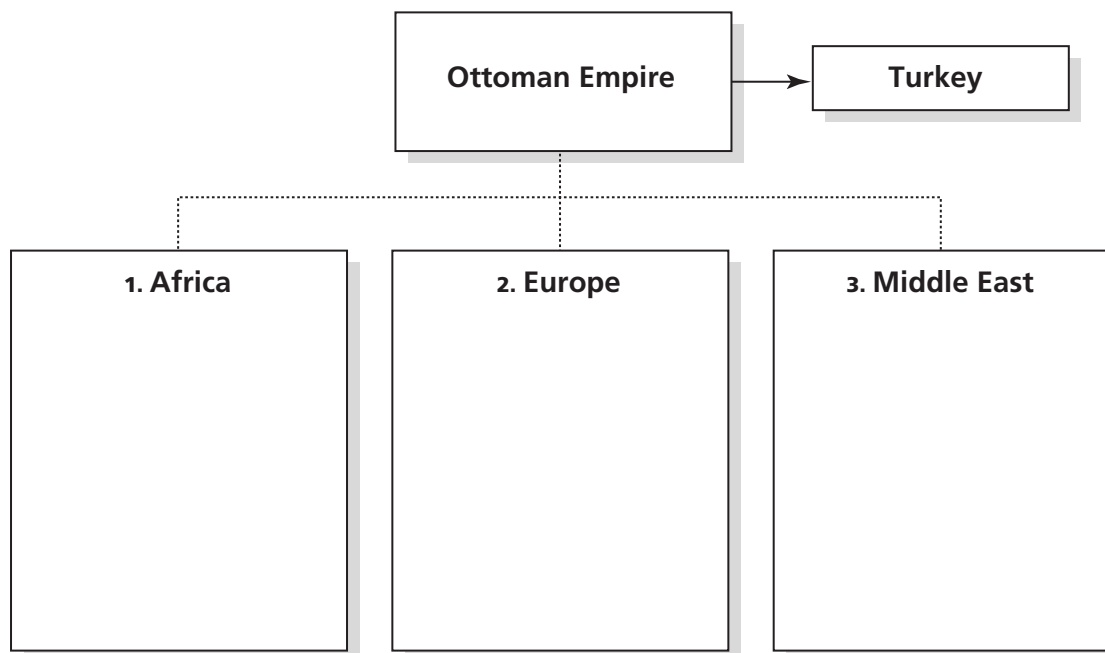
DRAWING FROM EXPERIENCE

What do you think of when you hear the words “genocide” and “ethnic cleansing”? Has genocide been practiced anywhere during your lifetime? In what parts of the world?

In this section, you will learn how the decline and fall of the Ottoman Empire led to the creation of the Turkish Republic. You will also learn how Persia became the modern state of Iran and how changes in the Middle East after World War I led to conflicts in that region that continue today.

ORGANIZING YOUR THOUGHTS

Use the diagram below to help you take notes. Trace the loss of territories that gradually reduced the Ottoman Empire to the area of present-day Turkey.



Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 25, Section 1 (continued)

READ TO LEARN

- **Decline and Fall of the Ottoman Empire** (page 781)

The Ottoman Empire had been growing weaker since the end of the eighteenth century. Its size had decreased dramatically. In North Africa, Ottoman rule had ended in the nineteenth century when France seized Algeria and Tunisia and Great Britain took control of Egypt. Greece also declared its independence in the nineteenth century.

In 1876, reformers took control of the empire’s government. They adopted a constitution with the goal of forming a legislative assembly. But the sultan they put on the throne, Abdulhamid II, suspended the new constitution. The constitution became a symbol of change to a group of reformers named the Young Turks. This group forced the restoration of the constitution in 1908. They deposed the sultan in 1909.

The Ottoman Empire came to an end during World War I. The Ottoman government allied with Germany. As a result, the British tried to undermine the Ottoman Empire by supporting Arab nationalists in the Arabian Peninsula. In 1916, the local governor of Makkah declared Arabia’s independence. British troops seized Palestine.

During the war, the Ottoman Turks practiced **genocide**—the deliberate mass murder of a particular racial, political, or cultural group. (A similar practice would be called **ethnic cleansing** in the Bosnian War of 1993 to 1996.) The Christian Armenians were a minority in the Ottoman Empire. They had been demanding their independence for years. In 1915, the government reacted to an Armenian uprising by killing Armenian men and deporting (sending out of the country) women and children. By 1918, 1.4 million Armenians had been killed.

At the end of World War I, the Ottoman Empire collapsed. Great Britain and France divided up territories in the Middle East. Greece invaded Turkey and seized western parts of the Anatolian Peninsula. As a result of this invasion, Colonel Mustafa Kemal called for the creation of an elected government. His forces drove the Greeks from the Anatolian Peninsula. The Ottoman sultans fled the country, which was now declared to be the Turkish Republic. Colonel Kemal became president.

4. Why did the British support Arab nationalists during World War I?

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 25, Section 1 *(continued)*

- **The Modernization of Turkey** *(page 783)*

President Kemal was now known as Atatürk (“father Turk”). A democratic system was put in place. But Kemal did not allow opposition and suppressed his critics. He tried to transform Turkey into a modern state. Popular education was introduced. All Turkish citizens were forced to adopt family (last names), like Europeans. Factories were built, and a five-year plan was developed for the economy.

Atatürk also tried to break the power of the Islamic religion. He wanted to make Turkey a secular state (a state that rejects religious influence on its politics). The caliphate was abolished in 1924. Men were forbidden to wear the fez, the cap worn by Turkish Muslims. Women were forbidden to wear the veil, an Islamic custom. New laws gave women marriage and inheritance rights. In 1934, women received the right to vote. All citizens were given the right to convert to other religions.

5. In what ways did Atatürk try to break the power of Islam in Turkey?

- **The Beginnings of Modern Iran** *(page 784)*

In Persia, the Qajar dynasty (1794–1925) had not been very successful in resolving the country’s problems. The discovery of oil in the country in 1908 attracted foreign interest. The presence of more and more foreigners led to the rise of a Persian nationalist movement. In 1921, Reza Khan led a military uprising that took control of Tehran, the capital. In 1925, Reza Khan made himself the shah (king) and was called Reza Shah Pahlavi. He introduced a number of reforms to modernize the government, the military, and the economic system. He did not try to destroy Islamic beliefs, but he did encourage a Western-style educational system. He also forbade women to wear the veil in public.

Persia became the modern state of Iran in 1935. To free himself from Great Britain and the Soviet Union, Reza Shah Pahlavi drew closer to Nazi Germany. The Soviet Union and Great Britain sent troops to Iran during World War II. Reza Shah Pahlavi resigned in protest and was replaced by his son, Mohammad Reza Pahlavi.

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 25, Section 1 (continued)

6. What were some of the changes that Reza Shah Pahlavi made in Persia?

• **Arab Nationalism** (page 784)

World War I gave Arabs the chance to escape from Ottoman rule. The Arabs were not an actual nation, but a collection of peoples united by language and religion. Great Britain had supported Arab nationalists in 1916. The nationalists hoped that this support would continue after the war. Instead, France and Britain created mandates in the area. These mandates were territories that had previously been part of the Ottoman Empire but were now supervised by the League of Nations. Great Britain was given the right to govern Iraq, Palestine, and Jordan. France governed Syria and Lebanon. In most of these nations, the Europeans determined the borders and divided the peoples. In most cases, the people in each country did not identify strongly with their country. But they continued to have a sense of Arab nationalism.

In the early 1920s, a reform leader, Ibn Saud, united Arabs in the northern part of the Arabian Peninsula. Ibn Saud had a great deal of support. He created the kingdom of Saudi Arabia in 1932. (The word Saudi comes from his name.) At first, Saudi Arabia was very poor. Muslim pilgrimages to Makkah and Madinah were its main source of income. During the 1930s, however, U.S. prospectors began to explore for oil. Standard Oil found oil at Dhahran on the Persian Gulf in 1938. Saudi Arabia was flooded with Western oil industries that brought the promise of wealth.

7. Who determined the borders of most of the nations in the Middle East following World War I?

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 25, Section 1 *(continued)*

- **The Problem of Palestine** *(page 785)*

The situation in Palestine made problems in the Middle East more complicated. Both Jews and Muslim Arabs felt they had a claim to the region as their homeland. Jews had lived there in ancient times, but in the first century A.D. they were forced into exile. As a result, Muslim Arabs made up the majority of the population, although many Jews continued to live there. In the 1890s, a Zionist movement argued that Palestine should be established as a Jewish state. Then during World War I, the British issued the Balfour Declaration. It supported the idea that Palestine should be a national home for the Jews, but it also said that the rights of the non-Jewish population should be protected.

The Balfour Declaration drew many Jews to Palestine. In the 1930s, many Jews also fled to Palestine because of Nazi persecution and violence against them. Muslim Arabs began to protest the growing number of Jews, and there were several outbreaks of violence. In 1939, the British responded by allowing only 75,000 Jewish immigrants into Palestine over the next five years. After that, no more Jews could enter the country. This policy intensified the tension and increased bloodshed in the region.

8. What was the Balfour Declaration? What were some of its results?

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 25, Section 2

For use with textbook pages 786–791

NATIONALISM IN AFRICA AND ASIA

KEY TERMS

Pan-Africanism a movement that stressed the need for the unity of all Africans (page 788)

Mahatma (“Great Soul”) the name given to Mohandas Gandhi by the Indian people (page 788)

civil disobedience refusal to obey laws considered to be unjust (page 788)

zaibatsu a large financial and industrial corporation in Japan (page 789)

DRAWING FROM EXPERIENCE

Have you ever thought that a rule was unfair? How could you protest this rule in a nonviolent way?

In the last section, you read about the end of the Ottoman Empire and the rise of nationalism in the Middle East. In this section, you will read about nationalism in Africa and Asia. In India, the followers of Mahatma Gandhi used the methods of civil disobedience to protest British laws.

ORGANIZING YOUR THOUGHTS

Use the chart below to help you take notes. Leaders of reform and independence movements in parts of Africa and Asia used various methods to protest colonial rule. Identify the countries of the following leaders and summarize the methods that they used.

| Leader | Country | Methods of Protest |
|-----------------|---------|--------------------|
| Harry Thuku | 1. | 2. |
| Omar Mukhtar | 3. | 4. |
| Nnamdi Azikiwe | 5. | 6. |
| Mohandas Gandhi | 7. | 8. |
| Ho Chi Minh | 9. | 10. |

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 25, Section 2 (continued)

READ TO LEARN

- **Movements Toward Independence in Africa** (page 786)

Black Africans fought in World War I in British and French armies. Many Africans hoped that they would be rewarded with independence after the war. But the peace settlement after World War I was a big disappointment. Germany lost its African colonies, but they were given to Great Britain and France as mandates. Britain and France now controlled much of Africa.

After World War I, Africans became more active in politics. The Africans who had fought in the war had learned new ideas about freedom and nationalism. Many Africans decided to seek reforms. In Kenya, Harry Thuku organized the Young Kikuyu Association. In 1921, it protested the high taxes imposed by the British. Thuku was arrested. When an angry crowd demanded his release, government forces fired on the crowd and killed at least 20 people. In Libya, forces led by Omar Mukhtar used guerrilla warfare against the Italians and defeated them several times. The Italians reacted by creating concentration camps and using modern weapons against the revolt. Mukhtar's death ended the revolt. Although the colonial powers often used force against independence movements, they also began to make some reforms. But the reforms were too few and too late. By the 1930s, more and more African leaders were calling for independence, not reform.

Many of the new African leaders had been educated in Europe and the United States. They were influenced by the ideas of W.E.B. Du Bois and Marcus Garvey. Du Bois was an African American educated at Harvard University. He was the leader of a movement that tried to make all Africans aware of their cultural heritage. Garvey was a Jamaican who lived in Harlem. He stressed the need for the unity of all Africans, a movement known as **Pan-Africanism**. His *Declaration of the Rights of the Negro Peoples of the World* had a strong impact on African leaders. Jomo Kenyatta of Kenya wrote a book, *Facing Mount Kenya*, in which he argued that British rule was destroying the traditional culture of African peoples. Léopold Senghor, a poet, organized an independence movement in Senegal. Nnamdi Azikiwe of Nigeria began a newspaper, *The West African Pilot*. He believed in nonviolence as a method to gain independence. Despite the efforts of these leaders, the independence movements in Africa were not successful until after World War II.

11. How did an African American and a Jamaican in the United States influence many of the new African leaders in the 1920s and 1930s?

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 25, Section 2 (continued)

• The Movement for Indian Independence (page 788)

Mohandas Gandhi had become active in the movement for Indian self-rule before World War I. The Indian people began to call him India's "Great Soul," or **Mahatma**. He began to organize mass protests to achieve his goals. He believed in nonviolence and protested British laws by using the methods of **civil disobedience** (refusal to obey laws considered to be unjust). In 1919, the protests led to violence. In response, British troops killed hundreds of protesters. Gandhi was arrested for his role in the protests and spent several years in prison.

In 1935, Great Britain passed the Government of India Act. It gave Indians a greater role in the governing process. The Legislative Council became a two-house parliament. Two-thirds of its members were to be elected. Five million Indians were given the right to vote, although this was still only a small percentage of the total population.

The Indian National Congress (INC) had been founded in 1885 to try to reform Britain's government of India. Reforms were no longer enough for many of the members of the INC. Motilal Nehru, the new leader of the INC, pushed for full independence.

Gandhi was released from prison and returned to his policy of civil disobedience. Nonviolence was still at the center of his policy. Gandhi led a protest against the British salt tax. Britain had increased the tax and prohibited the Indian people from manufacturing or harvesting their own salt. In 1930, Gandhi and his supporters walked to the sea. This became known as the Salt March. When they reached the coast, Gandhi picked up a pinch of salt. Thousands of Indians did the same thing. Gandhi and many other members of the INC were arrested.

In the 1930s, there was a new leader in the Indian independence movement. Jawaharlal Nehru, the son of Motilal Nehru, was a new kind of Indian politician. He was upper class and intellectual. He had studied law in Great Britain. The independence movement now split into two paths. Gandhi's movement was religious and traditional. Nehru's movement was secular and modern. Hostility between Muslims and Hindus complicated the situation in India even further. Muslims were dissatisfied with the INC because Hindus dominated it. By the 1930s, the Muslim League was starting to believe in the creation of a separate Muslim state of Pakistan in the northwest part of the country.

- 12.** In what ways were Gandhi's and Nehru's independence movements different?

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 25, Section 2 (continued)

- **The Rise of a Militarist Japan** (page 789)

The economic and social reforms of the Meiji Era had made Japan prosperous. A modern industrial and commercial sector had developed. In the Japanese economy, various manufacturing processes were concentrated within large financial and industrial corporations called *zaibatsu*. The *zaibatsu* often received government help and developed into vast companies that controlled major segments of the Japanese economy. The concentration of wealth led to economic inequalities. City workers were poorly paid and had poor housing. A rapid increase in population led to food shortages. Inflation in food prices led to food riots. When the Great Depression struck, workers and farmers suffered the most. Many Japanese people began to call for a return to traditional values. They also demanded that Japan use its strength to dominate Asia.

In the early twentieth century, Japan began to have difficulty finding sources of raw materials and foreign markets for its manufactured goods. Japan had dealt with the problem by seizing territories, such as Formosa, Korea, and southern Manchuria. The United States was concerned about Japanese expansion. In 1922, the U.S. held a conference of nations that had interests in the Pacific. The conference produced a treaty that maintained the Open Door policy in China and recognized the territorial boundaries of China. Japan accepted the treaty in return for recognition of its control of southern Manchuria. However, as the Japanese expanded into new industries, the Japanese government came under increasing pressure to find new sources of raw materials.

During the first part of the twentieth century, Japan moved toward a more democratic government. The parliament and political parties grew stronger. However, at the end of the 1920s, new problems caused militant forces to become more powerful. Some of the militants were civilians who were convinced that the government had been corrupted by Western ideas. Others were members of the military who were angered by cuts in military spending and the government's pacifist policies. In the 1930s, civilians and members of the army and navy formed extremist patriotic organizations. One group of army officers invaded Manchuria in 1931, without government permission. Within a short time, all of Manchuria was conquered.

The Japanese government opposed the conquest of Manchuria, but the Japanese people supported it. The military and other supporters of Japanese expansion soon dominated the government. Japan was put on wartime status. A military draft was started in 1938. The economy came under government control. Labor unions were disbanded. Education and culture were purged of most Western ideas. Militant leaders stressed traditional Japanese values.

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 25, Section 2 (continued)

13. How did industrialization in Japan lead to the rise of militarism?

• **Nationalism and Revolution in Asia** (page 791)

Before World War I, Marxism had no appeal for most Asians. Most Asian societies were agricultural and did not seem ready for revolution. After the revolution in Russia, the situation began to change. The Russian Revolution showed that a Marxist revolution could work even in a country that was not fully industrialized. In 1919, the Communist International, or Comintern, was formed. It was a worldwide organization of Communist parties that worked for world revolution. At its headquarters in Moscow, agents were trained and then returned to their own countries to form Marxist parties and promote revolution. By the end of the 1920s, nearly every colonial society in Asia had a Communist party.

In some countries, the Communists were able to work with nationalists to fight Western imperialism. This was true in French Indochina, where Vietnamese Communists were organized by Ho Chi Minh, who had been trained in Moscow. A strong Communist-nationalist alliance was also formed in China. In most colonial societies, however, Communist parties had little success in the 1930s.

14. What was the Comintern?

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 25, Section 3

For use with textbook pages 793–797

REVOLUTIONARY CHAOS IN CHINA

KEY TERMS

guerrilla tactics military maneuvers based on the element of surprise (page 795)

redistribution of wealth the shifting of wealth from a rich minority to a poor majority (page 797)

DRAWING FROM EXPERIENCE

What do you know about China? What kind of government does it have? What is life like for the people living there? What is the main way of making a living in China?

In the last two sections, you read about nationalism in Africa, Asia, and the Middle East. In this section, you will read about the conflict between Nationalists and Communists for control of China.

ORGANIZING YOUR THOUGHTS

Use the chart below to help you take notes. Chiang Kai-shek established a Nationalist government over China in 1928. Summarize the programs and projects of Chiang Kai-shek as they relate to the areas in this chart.

| Programs and Projects of Chiang Kai-shek | |
|--|----|
| Values | 1. |
| Transportation | 2. |
| Economy | 3. |
| Education | 4. |
| Government | 5. |

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 25, Section 3 (continued)

READ TO LEARN

• Nationalists and Communists (page 793)

In 1921, a group of young radicals founded the Chinese Communist Party (CCP) in Shanghai. Comintern agents advised the new party to join with the more experienced Nationalist Party. Sun Yat-sen, the leader of the Nationalist Party, welcomed the cooperation. In 1923, the two parties formed an alliance to oppose the warlords and drive the imperialist powers out of China. For three years, the two parties worked together. They trained a revolutionary army to march north and seize control of China. This Northern Expedition began in the summer of 1926. By the following spring, revolutionary forces had taken control of all of China south of the Chang Jiang (Yangtze River).

Tensions between the two parties eventually caused problems. Sun Yat-sen died in 1925 and was succeeded by Chiang Kai-shek as head of the Nationalist Party. Chiang pretended to support the alliance with the Communists. But in April 1927, he attacked the Communists in Shanghai. Thousands were killed in what is called the Shanghai Massacre. The Communist-Nationalist alliance came to an end. In 1928, Chiang Kai-shek founded a new Chinese republic at Nanjing. During the next three years, he worked to reunify China.

6. What two parties formed an alliance in 1923 to drive the imperialist powers out of China?

• The Communists in Hiding (page 794)

After the Shanghai Massacre, most of the Communist leaders went into hiding in Shanghai. Some party members fled to Jiangxi Province. The young Communist organizer Mao Zedong led them. Mao was convinced that peasants in the countryside instead of the urban working class would lead a Chinese revolution.

Chiang Kai-shek tried to force the Communists out of hiding in Shanghai. In 1931, most Communist party leaders were forced to flee to Mao's base in Jiangxi Province. Chiang then turned his forces against Mao's base. Chiang's forces far outnumbered Mao's, but Mao made effective use of **guerrilla tactics** (using unexpected maneuvers like sabotage and subterfuge to fight the enemy.)

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 25, Section 3 (continued)

7. How did Mao Zedong believe that a Chinese revolution would take place?

• **The Long March** (page 795)

In 1934, Chiang’s troops surrounded the Communist base in Jiangxi. But Mao’s army, the People’s Liberation Army (PLA), broke through the Nationalist lines and began its famous Long March. Mao’s army traveled almost 6,000 miles on foot through mountains, marshes, and deserts. One year later, they reached safety in North China. Only nine thousand of the original ninety thousand survived the journey. In the course of the Long March, Mao Zedong had become the sole leader of the Chinese Communist Party.

8. What was the Long March?

• **The New China of Chiang Kai-shek** (page 796)

In the meantime, Chiang Kai-shek had been trying to build a new nation. He was committed to the plans of Sun Yat-sen, which called for a republican government. First, there would be a transitional period. Chiang announced a period of political tutelage (training) to prepare the Chinese people for constitutional government. The Nationalists also tried to carry out a land-reform program and to modernize industry.

Creating a new China was not easy, however. Most of the people who lived in the countryside were drained by warfare. The peasants were still very poor, and most of them were illiterate. Chiang Kai-shek was aware of the problem of introducing foreign ideas into a conservative population. He tried to combine modern Western innovations with traditional Confucian values of hard work, obedience, and integrity. He set up a “New Life Movement.” Its goal was to promote traditional Confucian ethics. It also rejected the individualism and material greed that was associated with Western capitalism.

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 25, Section 3 (continued)

Chiang Kai-shek had other problems. His government only had total control over a few provinces in the Chang Jiang Valley. The Japanese threatened to gain control of northern China. The Great Depression was also having a negative effect on China's economy. But Chiang did have some success. He undertook a huge road-building program and added to the country's railroad system. He also set up a national bank and improved the educational system. But he was less successful in other areas. His land-reform program had little effect. Because wealthy landowners and the urban middle class supported him, he did not push for programs that would lead to a **redistribution of wealth** (the shifting of wealth from a rich minority to a poor majority). His government was also repressive. Chiang was afraid of Communist influence and suppressed all opposition and censored free expression. As a result, he alienated many intellectuals and political moderates.

9. What was the New Life Movement? What were some of its goals?

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 25, Section 4

For use with textbook pages 799–803

NATIONALISM IN LATIN AMERICA

KEY TERM

oligarchy a government where a select group of people exercises control (page 801)

DRAWING FROM EXPERIENCE

What goods do you use that are imported from Mexico or another Latin American country? Do you eat food grown in these countries? Do you wear clothes made in one of these countries?

In the last three sections, you read about nationalism in Africa, Asia, and the Middle East. In this section, you will read about nationalism and the rise of dictatorships in Latin America during the early twentieth century. The Latin American economy at this time was based largely on the export of food and raw materials to the United States and other countries.

ORGANIZING YOUR THOUGHTS

Use the diagram below to help you take notes. Instability caused by the Great Depression led to the creation of many military dictatorships in Latin America in the 1930s. Describe the governments in Argentina, Brazil, and Mexico during the 1930s.

| Country | Government in the 1930s |
|-----------|-------------------------|
| Argentina | 1. |
| Brazil | 2. |
| Mexico | 3. |

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 25, Section 4 (continued)

READ TO LEARN

- **The Latin American Economy** (page 799)

At the beginning of the twentieth century, the Latin American economy was based on the export of food and raw materials. The economies of some countries depended on the export of only one or two products. Argentina exported beef and wheat; Chile, nitrates and copper; Brazil and Caribbean nations, sugar; and Central America, bananas. Although a few people made big profits, most people gained little from these exports.

Beginning in the 1920s, the United States began to replace Great Britain as the biggest investor in Latin America. U.S. investors put their funds directly into production companies and ran the companies themselves. As a result, large segments of Latin America's export industries came into U.S. hands.

Latin Americans were angry that U.S. investors controlled so many Latin American industries. Many Latin Americans viewed the United States as an imperialist power. They pointed out that profits from U.S. businesses were sometimes used to keep ruthless dictators in power. The United States had intervened militarily in Latin America for years. This was especially true in Central America and the Caribbean. In 1935, however, President Franklin Roosevelt announced the Good Neighbor policy. This policy rejected the use of U.S. military force in Latin America. Roosevelt withdrew the last U.S. marines from Haiti in 1936.

The Great Depression was a disaster for Latin America's economy. There was a decreased demand for Latin American products and raw materials, especially coffee, sugar, metals, and wheat. The countries that depended on the export of only one product were especially damaged. There was one positive effect, however. With a decline in exports, Latin American countries no longer had the money to buy imported goods. Many Latin American governments encouraged the development of new industries to produce goods that had previously been imported. Governments often invested in the new industries. This led to government-run industries in Chile, Brazil, Argentina, and Mexico.

4. What were the effects of the Great Depression on Latin America's economy?

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Chapter 25, Section 4 (continued)

• The Move to Authoritarianism (page 801)

Most Latin American countries had republican forms of government. In reality, however, a small group of church officials, military leaders, and large landowners dominated each country. They were kept in power by military forces. Military leaders often took control of the government. This trend toward authoritarianism increased during the 1930s, mainly because of the impact of the Great Depression. The trend was especially evident in Argentina, Brazil, and Mexico.

Argentina was controlled by an **oligarchy** (a government where a select group of people exercises control). This oligarchy of large landowners had grown wealthy from the export of beef and wheat. It did not realize the growing importance of industry and cities. It also ignored the growing middle class. The middle class reacted by forming the Radical Party in 1890. In 1916, Hipólito Irigoyen, leader of the Radical Party, was elected president of Argentina. The Radical Party was afraid of the industrial workers, who used strikes to improve their conditions. As a result, it drew closer to the large landowners and became more corrupt. The military was also concerned about the power of the industrial workers. In 1930, the Argentine army overthrew President Irigoyen and put the large landowners back in power. During World War II, military officers formed a new organization, known as the Group of United Officers (GOU). They were unhappy with the government and overthrew it in June 1943. Three years later, Juan Perón, a GOU member, was elected president of Argentina.

In Brazil, the army had overthrown the monarchy in 1889 and established a republic. The republic was controlled mainly by the large landowners, who had become wealthy by growing coffee. The Great Depression devastated the coffee industry, and the landowners were no longer able to remain in power. In 1930, a military coup made Getúlio Vargas, a wealthy rancher, president of Brazil. He ruled from 1930 to 1945. He tried to win the support of workers by establishing an eight-hour workday and a minimum wage. In 1937, Vargas made himself dictator. Beginning in 1938, he established his New State. It was an authoritarian state with some Fascist-like features. Political parties were outlawed and civil rights restricted. A secret police used torture against Vargas's enemies. Vargas also encouraged new industries. The government established the Brazilian steel industry and set up a company to explore for oil.

Mexico was not an authoritarian state, but it was not truly democratic. The official political party of the Mexican Revolution, known as the Institutional Revolutionary Party (PRI), controlled the major groups in Mexican society. Party bosses of the PRI chose the party's presidential candidate, who was then elected by the people. Change began when Lázaro Cárdenas became president in 1934. He distributed 44 million acres of land to Mexican peasants. He also took a strong stand with the United States, especially over oil. After a dispute

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Chapter 25, Section 4 (continued)

over workers' wages, the Cárdenas government seized control of the oil fields and the property of the oil companies. The U.S. oil companies were furious and asked President Roosevelt to intervene. He refused, because of the Good Neighbor policy. Eventually, the Mexican government paid the oil companies for their property. It then set up PEMEX, a national oil company.

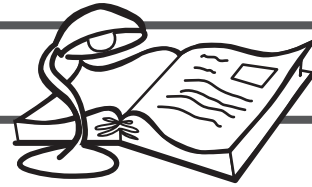
5. What were some of the changes that Cárdenas made after he became president of Mexico?

• Culture in Latin America (page 803)

During the early twentieth century, European artistic and literary movements began to have an impact on Latin America. In major cities, the wealthy were interested in the work of modern artists. Latin American artists went abroad and brought back modern techniques. Many artists and writers used their work to promote a new national spirit. The Mexican artist Diego Rivera is one example. He used murals. His works were aimed at the masses of people, many of whom could not read. He tried to create a national art that would show Mexico's past and its festivals and folk customs. His work also had a political and social message. Rivera did not want people to forget the Mexican Revolution, which had overthrown large landowners and foreign interests.

6. What were some of the goals that Diego Rivera tried to achieve with his art?

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Chapter 26, Section 1

For use with textbook pages 809–813

PATHS TO WAR

KEY TERMS

demilitarized an area that is free of weapons or fortifications (*page 810*)

appeasement a policy of giving in to the demands of a dissatisfied power in an attempt to keep the peace (*page 810*)

sanction a restriction intended to enforce international law (*page 813*)

DRAWING FROM EXPERIENCE

How do you resolve conflicts with other people? Do you ever give in to their demands in order to avoid conflict?

In this section, you will learn about the actions of Germany and Japan that paved the way for the start of World War II. In an attempt to avoid war, some European countries initially gave in to Hitler’s demands to occupy other territories.

ORGANIZING YOUR THOUGHTS

Use the time line below to help you take notes. From 1936 to 1939, Hitler became more and more aggressive and invaded more and more territories. Trace Hitler’s acts of aggression during these years.



Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 26, Section 1 (continued)

READ TO LEARN

- **The German Path to War** (page 809)

World War II had its roots in the beliefs of Adolf Hitler. He believed that Germans belonged to a so-called Aryan race that was superior to all other races and nationalities. He also believed that Germany was capable of building a great civilization and needed more land in order to become a great power.

After World War I, the Treaty of Versailles had limited Germany's military power. At first, Hitler said that Germany wanted to revise the unfair provisions of the treaty by peaceful means. However, on March 9, 1935, Hitler announced the creation of a new air force. One week later, he began a military draft. Hitler was convinced that the Western states had no intention of using force to maintain the Treaty of Versailles. On March 7, 1936, he sent German troops into the Rhineland. The Rhineland was part of Germany, but it was a **demilitarized** area. According to the Treaty of Versailles, Germany was not permitted to have weapons or fortifications there. France had the right to use force against any violation of the demilitarized area but would not act without British support. Great Britain did not support the use of force against Germany. Great Britain began to practice a policy of **appeasement**. This policy was based on the belief that if European states satisfied the reasonable demands of dissatisfied powers, the dissatisfied powers would be content, and peace would be maintained.

Meanwhile, Hitler gained new allies. Fascist Italy invaded Ethiopia in October 1935. France and Britain were opposed to this invasion. This made Mussolini angry, and he welcomed Hitler's support. In 1936, Mussolini and Hitler made an agreement that recognized their common political and economic interests. This new alliance was known as the Rome-Berlin Axis. Germany and Japan signed the Anti-Comintern Pact, in which they promised to maintain a common front against communism.

By 1937, Hitler decided to pursue one of his goals: union with Austria, his native land. He threatened Austria with invasion. This forced the Austrian chancellor to put Austrian Nazis in charge of the government. The new government invited German troops to enter Austria. On March 13, 1938, Hitler annexed Austria to Germany.

Hitler's next goal was the destruction of Czechoslovakia. On September 15, 1938, he demanded that Germany be given the Sudetenland, an area in northwestern Czechoslovakia. Most of the people who lived in this area were Germans. Hitler said that he was willing to risk "world war" to achieve his objective. At a conference in Munich, Britain, France, Germany, and Italy reached an agreement that gave Hitler nearly all of his demands. German troops were allowed to occupy the Sudetenland. The Czechs stood by helplessly. Neville Chamberlain, the British prime minister, boasted that the agreement meant "peace for our time." Hitler had promised Chamberlain that

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Chapter 26, Section 1 *(continued)*

he would make no more demands. Like many others, Chamberlain believed Hitler’s promises. In fact, Hitler was more convinced than ever that the Western democracies were weak and would not fight. In March 1939, Hitler invaded and took control of Bohemia and Moravia in western Czechoslovakia.

At last, the Western nations reacted to the Nazi threat. Hitler’s aggression had made clear that his promises were worthless. When Hitler began to demand the Polish port of Danzig, Great Britain offered to protect Poland in the event of war. At the same time, both France and Britain realized that they needed the Soviet Union in order to stop Nazi aggression. They began negotiations with Joseph Stalin, the Soviet dictator. Hitler was afraid that the West and the Soviet Union might make an alliance. To keep this from happening, Hitler made his own agreement with Joseph Stalin. On August 23, 1939, Germany and the Soviet Union signed the Nazi-Soviet Nonaggression Pact. In it, the two nations promised not to attack each other. To get Stalin to sign the pact, Hitler offered Stalin control of eastern Poland and the Baltic states. On September 1, 1939, German forces invaded Poland. Two days later, Britain and France declared war on Germany.

6. Why did Great Britain give in to so many of Hitler’s demands?

• **The Japanese Path to War** *(page 812)*

By the mid-1930s, militants had gained control of Japanese politics. In September 1931, Japanese soldiers had seized Manchuria, because Manchuria had natural resources that Japan needed. As an excuse for seizing Manchuria, Japan pointed to a Chinese attack on a Japanese railway near the city of Mukden. In fact, Japanese soldiers disguised as Chinese had carried out the “Mukden incident.” Worldwide protests led the League of Nations to send investigators to Manchuria. When the investigators issued a report condemning the seizure, Japan withdrew from the League. Over the next several years, Japan strengthened its hold on Manchuria. Japan now began to expand into North China.

Because of the threat from Communists within China, Chiang Kai-shek tried to avoid conflict with Japan. He tried to appease Japan by allowing it to govern areas in North China. When Japan began to move southward, Chiang was forced to end his military efforts against the Communists. In 1936, he

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Chapter 26, Section 1 (continued)

formed a new united front against the Japanese. In July 1937, Chinese and Japanese forces clashed south of Beijing. Japan had not planned to declare war on China but was now involved in a major conflict. The Japanese seized the Chinese capital of Nanjing. Chiang Kai-shek refused to surrender and moved his government upriver.

Japan's military leaders had hoped to create a New Order in East Asia comprised of Japan, Manchuria, and China. Part of Japan's plan was to seize Soviet Siberia, with its rich resources. In the late 1930s, Japan began to cooperate with Nazi Germany. Japan thought the two countries would launch an attack on the Soviet Union and divide Soviet resources between them. When Germany signed the nonaggression pact with the Soviets, Japanese leaders were forced to turn to Southeast Asia to find the raw materials they needed to fuel their military machine. A move into Southeast Asia, however, would risk war with the European colonial powers and the United States. In the summer of 1940, Japan demanded the right to exploit economic resources in French Indochina. The United States objected. It warned Japan that it would apply economic **sanctions** (restrictions intended to enforce international law) unless Japan withdrew from the area. Japan badly needed the oil and scrap iron it was getting from the United States. Japan was now caught in a dilemma. To gain access to the raw materials it wanted in Southeast Asia, Japan had to risk losing raw materials from the United States. After much debate, Japan decided to launch a surprise attack on U.S. and European colonies in Southeast Asia.

7. When Germany signed the nonaggression pact with the Soviets, what dilemma did this create for Japan?

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Chapter 26, Section 2

For use with textbook pages 814–822

THE COURSE OF WORLD WAR II

KEY TERMS

blitzkrieg (“lightning war”) the German method of warfare, based on panzer divisions supported by airplanes (page 814)

partisan a resistance fighter (page 822)

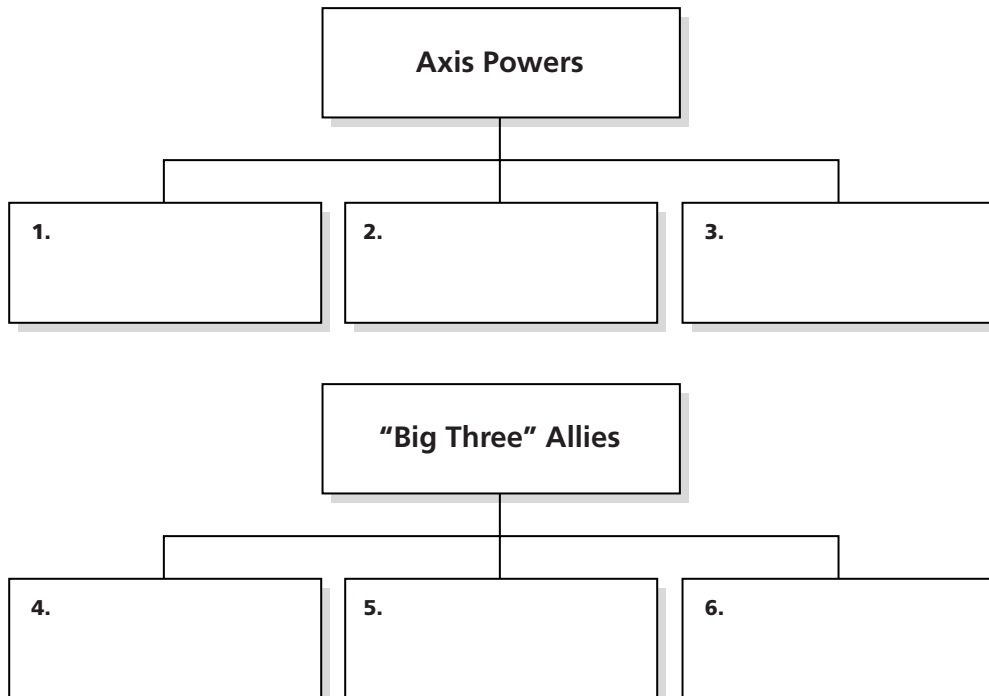
DRAWING FROM EXPERIENCE

Have you ever heard of D-Day, V-E Day, and V-J Day? What happened on these days?

In the last section, you read about the actions of Germany and Japan that led to the beginning of World War II. In this section, you will read about the war itself.

ORGANIZING YOUR THOUGHTS

Use the diagram below to help you take notes. During World War II, the major countries of the world were divided into two coalitions, the Grand Alliance (or Allies) and the Axis powers. Identify the three Axis powers and the three major Allies.



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Chapter 26, Section 2 (continued)

READ TO LEARN

• Europe at War (page 814)

Hitler stunned Europe with the speed of his attack on Poland. His **blitzkrieg**, or “lightening war,” used panzer divisions, supported by airplanes. Each panzer division was a strike force of about three hundred tanks with accompanying forces and supplies. Within four weeks, Poland had surrendered. On September 28, 1939, Germany and the Soviet Union divided Poland.

Hitler attacked again on April 9, 1940, with a blitzkrieg against Denmark and Norway. On May 10, Germany launched an attack on the Netherlands, Belgium, and France. The Germans split the Allied armies, trapping French troops and the entire British army on the beaches of Dunkirk. The British managed to evacuate 338,000 Allied troops through the heroic efforts of the Royal Navy and civilians in private boats.

The French signed an armistice on June 22. German armies now occupied about three-fifths of France. An authoritarian regime under German control was set up over the rest of the country. It was known as Vichy France. It was led by an aged French hero from World War I, Marshal Henri Petain. Germany was now in control of western and central Europe, but Britain had still not been defeated. After Dunkirk, the British appealed to the United States for help.

The United States followed a strict policy of isolationism. Laws passed in the 1930s prevented the United States from taking sides or becoming involved in any European wars. President Franklin D. Roosevelt was convinced that the neutrality acts actually encouraged Axis aggression and wanted the acts repealed. The laws were gradually relaxed as the United States supplied food, ships, planes, and weapons to Britain.

Hitler realized that an invasion of Britain could only succeed if Germany gained control of the air. At the beginning of August 1940, the Luftwaffe—the German air force—launched a major offensive. German planes bombed British air and naval bases, harbors, communication centers, and war industries. The British fought back. But by the end of August, the British air force had suffered critical losses. In retaliation for a British attack on Berlin, the Luftwaffe began bombing British cities instead of military targets. Instead of demoralizing the British people, this allowed the British air force to rebuild quickly. The British were able to inflict major losses on Luftwaffe bombers. At the end of September, Hitler postponed the invasion of Britain.

Hitler became convinced that Britain was remaining in the war only because it expected Soviet support. He thought that if the Soviet Union could be smashed, Britain’s last hope would be eliminated. Hitler’s invasion of the Soviet Union was scheduled for the spring of 1941, but the attack was delayed because of problems in the Balkans. Mussolini’s invasion of Greece had failed in 1940. To secure his southern flank, Hitler seized Greece and Yugoslavia in April 1941.

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Chapter 26, Section 2 (continued)

On June 22, 1941, Hitler invaded the Soviet Union. German troops advanced rapidly, capturing two million Russian soldiers. However, an early winter and fierce Soviet resistance stopped the Germans. The Germans had no winter uniforms, because they had originally planned to invade in the spring. For the first time in the war, the German armies had been stopped.

7. What prevented Roosevelt from responding to British appeals for help in 1940?

• Japan at War (page 817)

On December 7, 1941, Japanese aircraft attacked the U.S. naval base at Pearl Harbor in the Hawaiian Islands. The same day, the Japanese also began assaults on the Philippines and advanced toward the British colony of Malaya. Soon after, the Japanese invaded the Dutch East Indies and occupied a number of islands in the Pacific Ocean. By the spring of 1942, almost all of Southeast Asia and much of the western Pacific were in Japanese hands. Japan now declared the creation of a community of nations. The name given to this new “community” was the Greater East-Asia Co-prosperity Sphere. The entire region would now be under Japanese direction. Japan also announced its intention to liberate the colonial areas of Southeast Asia from Western rule. For the time being, however, Japan needed the resources of the region for its war machine, and it treated the countries under its rule as conquered lands.

Japanese leaders had hoped that their attack on American bases would destroy the U.S. fleet in the Pacific. They also thought that the Roosevelt administration would accept Japanese domination of the Pacific. But the Japanese miscalculated. The attack on Pearl Harbor unified American opinion about becoming involved in the war. The United States now joined with European nations and Nationalist China in an effort to defeat Japan. Hitler believed that American involvement in the Pacific would make the United States ineffective in Europe, so he declared war on the United States four days after Pearl Harbor. Another European conflict had turned into a global war.

8. When the Japanese attacked American bases, what did they hope to accomplish? Were their ideas correct?

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Chapter 26, Section 2 (continued)

• The Allies Advance (page 818)

The entry of the United States into the war created a new coalition, the Grand Alliance. The three major Allies—Great Britain, the United States, and the Soviet Union—agreed to stress military operations and ignore political differences. At the beginning of 1943, the Allies agreed to fight until the Axis Powers—Germany, Italy, and Japan—surrendered unconditionally.

Defeat was far from Hitler's mind at the beginning of 1942. In North Africa, German forces under General Erwin Rommel broke through the British defenses in Egypt and advanced toward Alexandria. A new German offensive in the Soviet Union led to the capture of the entire Crimea in the spring of 1942. But by the fall of 1942, the war had turned against the Germans. In North Africa, British forces had stopped Rommel's troops at El Alamein in the summer of 1942. In November 1942, British and American forces invaded French North Africa and forced the German and Italian troops there to surrender in May 1943. On the Eastern front, against the advice of his generals, Hitler decided that Stalingrad should be taken. Between November 1942 and February 2, 1943, the Soviets launched a counterattack. German troops were stopped and then encircled. Supply lines were cut off, in frigid winter conditions. The Germans were forced to surrender at Stalingrad. The entire German Sixth Army, considered the best of the German troops, was lost.

In 1942, the tide of battle in the East also changed dramatically. In the Battle of the Coral Sea on May 7 and 8, 1942, American naval forces stopped the Japanese advance and saved Australia from the threat of invasion. The turning point of the war in Asia came on June 4, at the Battle of Midway Island. U.S. planes destroyed four Japanese aircraft carriers. The United States defeated the Japanese navy and established naval superiority in the Pacific. By the fall of 1942, Allied forces in Asia were gathering for two chief operations. One, commanded by U.S. general Douglas MacArthur, would move into the Philippines through New Guinea and the South Pacific Islands. The other would move across the Pacific with a combination of U.S. Army, Marine, and Navy attacks on Japanese-held islands. The policy was to capture some Japanese-held islands and bypass others, "island hopping" up to Japan.

9. What was the turning point of the war in Asia?

• Last Years of the War (page 821)

By the beginning of 1943, the war had turned against Germany, Italy, and Japan. The Allies carried the war to Italy. After taking Sicily, Allied troops began an invasion of mainland Italy in September. After the fall of Sicily, German forces were forced to move in and occupy much of Italy. The Germans set up new defensive lines in the hills south of Rome. The Allied

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Chapter 26, Section 2 (continued)

advance up the Italian Peninsula was difficult, with very heavy casualties. Rome did not fall to the Allies until June 4, 1944. By that time, the Italian war had assumed a secondary role, as the Allied forces opened their “second front” in western Europe.

On June 6, 1944, Allied forces under U.S. general Dwight D. Eisenhower landed on the Normandy beaches of France. Within three months, the Allies had landed two million men and a half-million vehicles. Allied forces then pushed inland and broke through German defensive lines. The Allied troops moved south and east. In Paris, resistance fighters rose up against the occupying Germans. The Allies liberated Paris by the end of August. In March 1945, they crossed the Rhine River and advanced into Germany. At the end of April 1945, Allied armies in northern Germany moved toward the Elbe River, where they linked up with the Soviets.

The Soviets had come a long way since the Battle of Stalingrad in 1943. In July, the Soviets defeated German forces at the Battle of Kursk, the greatest tank battle of World War II. Soviet forces now began advancing westward. They had reoccupied Ukraine by the end of 1943 and moved into the Baltic states by the beginning of 1944. In the north, Soviet troops occupied Warsaw in January 1945 and entered Berlin in April. In the south, Soviet troops swept through Hungary, Romania, and Bulgaria.

By January 1945, Adolf Hitler had moved into a bunker under the city of Berlin to direct the final stages of the war. Hitler continued to blame the Jews for the war. He committed suicide on April 30, two days after Mussolini had been shot by Italian **partisans** (resistance fighters). On May 7, 1945, German commanders surrendered. The war in Europe was finally over.

The war in Asia continued. Beginning in 1943, U.S. forces had gone on the offensive and advanced, slowly at times, across the Pacific. There was a new U.S. president, Harry S Truman, who had become president on the death of Roosevelt in April. Truman had a difficult decision to make. Should he use newly developed atomic weapons to bring the war to an end or find another way to defeat the Japanese forces? Truman decided to use the bombs. The first bomb was dropped on the Japanese city of Hiroshima on August 6, 1945. Three days later, a second bomb was dropped on Nagasaki. Both cities were leveled. Thousands of people died immediately after the bombs were dropped. Thousands more died in later months from radiation. Japan surrendered on August 14.

World War II was finally over. Seventeen million had died in battle. Perhaps twenty million civilians had died as well. Some estimates place total losses at fifty million.

10. How did President Truman bring the war to an end?

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 26, Section 3

For use with textbook pages 824–829

THE NEW ORDER AND THE HOLOCAUST

KEY TERMS

genocide the physical extermination of a racial, political, or cultural group (page 825)

collaborator a person who assists the enemy (page 827)

DRAWING FROM EXPERIENCE

Have you ever heard about the Holocaust? Have you ever been to the Holocaust Museum in Washington, D.C.? What was the Holocaust? Why did it take place?

In the last two sections, you learned about events leading to World War II and the battles of the war. In this section, you will learn about the atrocities committed by the Nazis and the Japanese against the peoples they conquered.

ORGANIZING YOUR THOUGHTS

Use the chart below to help you take notes. Describe the following policies or programs of Hitler and the Nazis.

| Nazi Policy | Description |
|-----------------------|-------------|
| resettlement | 1. |
| forced labor | 2. |
| Final Solution | 3. |
| <i>Einsatzgruppen</i> | 4. |
| death camps | 5. |

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 26, Section 3 (continued)

READ TO LEARN

- **The New Order in Europe** (page 824)

In 1942, the Nazi regime stretched across Europe from the English Channel in the west to the outskirts of Moscow in the east. Nazi-occupied Europe was mainly organized in one of two ways. Some areas were annexed by Nazi Germany and made into German provinces. In other areas, German military or civilian officials would run the area with help from local people who were willing to collaborate with the Nazis. In the conquered lands to the east, the Nazis were especially ruthless. These lands were seen as “living space” for German expansion. Heinrich Himmler, the leader of the SS, was put in charge of German resettlement plans in the east. His job was to move the Slavic peoples out and replace them with Germans. One million Poles were forced to move to southern Poland. By 1942, two million ethnic Germans had been settled in Poland.

Labor shortages in Germany led to a policy of rounding up foreign workers for Germany. By the summer of 1944, seven million Europeans were working in Germany. Another seven million people were forced to work for the Nazis in their own countries on farms, in industries, and in military camps. In the end, the use of forced labor caused problems for Germany. Sending so many workers to Germany disrupted industrial production in the occupied countries that could have helped Germany. The brutal way that Germany recruited foreign workers led more and more people to resist the Nazi occupation forces.

6. How did the use of forced labor cause problems for Germany?

- **The Holocaust** (page 825)

No aspect of the Nazi New Order was more terrifying than the deliberate attempt to exterminate the Jews. Racial struggle was a key element in Hitler’s ideas. To him, racial struggle was a clearly defined conflict of opposites. On one side were the Aryans, creators of human cultural development. On the other side were the Jews, parasites, in Hitler’s view, who were trying to destroy the Aryans. Himmler and the SS shared Hitler’s racial ideas. The SS was given responsibility for what the Nazis called their Final Solution to the Jewish problem. The Final Solution was **genocide** (physical extermination) of

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 26, Section 3 (continued)

the Jewish people. Reinhard Heydrich, head of the SS's Security Service, was given the task of administering the Final Solution. Heydrich created special strike forces, called *Einsatzgruppen*, to carry out Nazi plans. After the defeat of Poland, he ordered these forces to round up all Polish Jews and put them in ghettos in a number of Polish cities. Conditions were horrible in these ghettos. Despite the suffering, the people in the ghettos tried to carry on, and some ghettos organized resistance against the Nazis. In June 1941, the strike forces were given the new job of acting as mobile killing units. These SS death squads followed the regular army's advance into the Soviet Union. Their job was to round up Jews in their villages, execute them, and bury them in mass graves. The graves were often giant pits dug by the victims themselves before they were shot.

Although these strike forces killed over one million Jews, this was not enough for the Nazi leaders. They decided to kill the European Jewish population in death camps. Beginning in 1942, Jews from occupied countries were shipped to one of six extermination centers that had been built in Poland. Auschwitz was the largest of these centers. By the spring of 1942, the death camps were in full operation.

The Germans killed between five and six million Jews, over three million of them in the death camps. Virtually 90 percent of the Jewish populations of Poland, the Baltic countries, and Germany were killed. Overall, the Holocaust was responsible for the death of nearly two-thirds of European Jews. The Nazis were also responsible for the death by shooting, starvation, or overwork of at least another nine to ten million non-Jewish people. The Nazis considered the Gypsies of Europe, like the Jews, to be a race containing alien blood. The Gypsies were rounded up for mass killing. About 40 percent of Europe's one million Gypsies were killed in the death camps. The leading citizens of the Slavic peoples—the clergy, intellectuals, civil leaders, judges, and lawyers—were arrested and killed. Another four million Poles, Ukrainians, and Belorussians lost their lives as slave laborers for Nazi Germany. Finally, at least three million to four million Soviet prisoners of war were killed in captivity.

This mass slaughter of European civilians, particularly European Jews, is known as the Holocaust. Jews in and out of the camps tried to resist the Nazis. Some were helped by friends and even strangers, hidden in villages or smuggled into safe areas. Foreign diplomats tried to save Jews by issuing exit visas. The nation of Denmark saved almost its entire Jewish population.

Some people did not believe the stories about the death camps. This was partly because the Allies in World War I had exaggerated German atrocities to create enthusiasm for the war. Other people pretended not to notice what was happening. Even worse, **collaborators** (people who assisted the enemy) helped the Nazis hunt down Jews. The Allies were aware of the concentration camps and death camps but chose to concentrate on ending the war. Not until after the war did they learn the full extent of the horror and inhumanity of the Holocaust.

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Chapter 26, Section 3 (continued)

Young people of all ages were also victims of World War II. Because they were unable to work, Jewish children were the first ones selected for gas chambers when they arrived in the death camps. Altogether, 1.2 million Jewish children died in the Holocaust. Many children were evacuated from cities during the war in order to avoid the bombing. Many of the children who were evacuated to the countryside never saw their parents again. In 1945, there were perhaps 13 million orphaned children in Europe. In some places, young people were expected to carry the burden of fighting the war. In the last year of the war, Hitler Youth members, often only 14 or 15 years old, could be found in the front lines.

7. Why did the Holocaust continue until the end of the war?

• The New Order in Asia (page 828)

Japanese war policy in the occupied territories in Asia was basically defensive. Japan hoped to use the occupied territories to meet its growing need for raw materials. These territories would also be a market for Japanese manufactured goods. To organize these territories, Japanese leaders included them in the Greater East-Asia Co-prosperity Sphere. The Japanese had conquered Southeast Asia under the slogan “Asia for the Asiatics.” Japanese officials in occupied territories quickly made contact with anticolonialists. They promised the people that local governments would be established. Such governments were eventually set up in Burma, the Dutch East Indies, Vietnam, and the Philippines.

In fact, real power rested with Japanese military authorities in each territory. In turn, the local Japanese military command was under the authority of the Army General Staff in Tokyo. The economic resources of the colonies were used for the benefit of the Japanese war machine. The native peoples in occupied lands were recruited to serve in local military units or were forced to work on public works projects. In some cases, these policies brought severe hardships to peoples living in the occupied areas. In Vietnam, for example, local Japanese authorities forcibly took rice and shipped it abroad. This led directly to a food shortage that caused over a million Vietnamese to starve to death in 1944 and 1945.

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 26, Section 3 (continued)

At first, many Southeast Asian nationalists took Japanese promises at face value and agreed to cooperate with their new masters. Eventually, the nature of Japanese occupation policies became clear, and sentiment turned against Japan. Japanese officials provoked negative reactions by their arrogance and contempt for local customs. In the Dutch East Indies, for example, Indonesians were required to bow in the direction of Tokyo and to recognize the divinity of the Japanese emperor. In Burma, Buddhist pagodas were used as military latrines.

In construction projects to help their war effort, the Japanese made extensive use of labor forces composed of both prisoners of war and local peoples. In building the Burma-Thailand railway in 1943, for example, the Japanese used 61,000 Australian, British, and Dutch prisoners of war and almost 300,000 workers from Burma, Malaya, Thailand, and the Dutch East Indies. An inadequate diet and appalling work conditions in an unhealthy climate led to the death of 12,000 Allied prisoners of war and 90,000 workers by the time the railway was completed.

Indonesian patriots tried to have it both ways. They pretended to support Japan while actually sabotaging the Japanese administration. In French Indochina, Ho Chi Minh's Communist Party made contact with U.S. military units in South China. The Communists agreed to provide information on Japanese troop movements and to rescue downed American fliers in the area. By the end of the war, little support remained in the region for the Japanese "liberators."

8. How did the Japanese gain the support of people in occupied territories? Why did they eventually lose this support?

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Chapter 26, Section 4

For use with textbook pages 830–836

THE HOME FRONT AND THE AFTERMATH OF THE WAR

KEY TERMS

mobilization the act of assembling and preparing for war (page 830)

kamikaze (“divine wind”) Japanese pilots who performed suicide missions against U.S. fighting ships (page 832)

Cold War the period of political tensions between the United States and the Soviet Union from the end of World War II until the end of the 1980s (page 834)

DRAWING FROM EXPERIENCE

Have you heard of the “iron curtain”? What does this describe? Who first used this term?

In the last three sections, you learned about events before and during World War II. In this section, you will learn about events immediately following the war. You will also learn how the war affected civilians in Europe, the United States, and Japan.

ORGANIZING YOUR THOUGHTS

Use the chart below to help you take notes. Describe how the populations of Germany, Japan, the Soviet Union, and the United States were mobilized for war.

| Country | Mobilization |
|---------------|--------------|
| Soviet Union | 1. |
| United States | 2. |
| Germany | 3. |
| Japan | 4. |

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 26, Section 4 (continued)

READ TO LEARN

• The Mobilization of Peoples: Four Examples (page 830)

World War II had an enormous impact on civilian life in the Soviet Union, the United States, Germany, and Japan. Even more than World War I, World War II was a total war. Fighting was much more widespread and covered most of the world. Economic **mobilization** (the act of assembling and preparing for war) was more extensive. The mobilization of women was also greater. The number of civilians killed—almost twenty million—was far higher. Many of these victims were children.

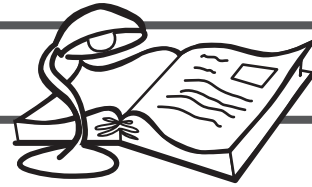
The initial defeats of the Soviet Union led to drastic emergency measures that affected the lives of the civilian population. Leningrad, for example, experienced nine hundred days of siege. Its people became so desperate for food that they ate dogs, cats, and mice. Probably 1.5 million people died in the city. As the German army advanced into Soviet territory, Soviet workers dismantled and shipped the factories in the western part of the Soviet Union to the interior. This “battle of machines” produced 78,000 tanks and 98,000 artillery pieces. Soviet women played a major role in the war effort. Women and girls worked in industries, mines, and railroads. The Soviet Union was the only country in World War II to use women in battle.

The home front in the United States was different. The United States was not fighting the war in its own territory. Eventually, the United States became the arsenal of the Allied Powers. It produced much of the military equipment the Allies needed. At the height of war production in November 1943, the country was building six ships a day and ninety-six thousand planes per year.

The mobilization of the American economy resulted in some social turmoil, however. The construction of new factories created boomtowns. Thousands of people, many of them women, came there to work but then faced a shortage of houses and schools. Widespread movements of people took place. Sixteen million men and women were enrolled in the military and moved frequently. Another sixteen million, mostly wives and girlfriends of servicemen or workers looking for jobs, also moved around the country.

Over a million African Americans moved from the rural South to the cities of the North and West, looking for jobs. The presence of African Americans in areas where they had not lived before led to racial tensions and sometimes even racial riots. One million African Americans enrolled in the military, but they were segregated in their own battle units. Angered by the way they were treated, some became militant and prepared to fight for their civil rights. Japanese Americans faced even more serious problems. On the West Coast, 110,000 Japanese Americans were moved to camps surrounded by barbed wire. They were required to take loyalty oaths, even though 65 percent of them had been born in the United States. Public officials claimed this policy was necessary for security reasons.

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Chapter 26, Section 4 (continued)

In Germany, Hitler was well aware of the importance of the home front. He believed that the collapse of the home front in World War I had caused Germany's defeat. In his determination to keep this from happening again, he adopted economic policies that may have cost Germany the war. To maintain morale during the first two years of the war, Hitler refused to cut consumer goods production or to increase the production of armaments. After German defeats on the Russian front and the American entry into the war, Hitler finally ordered a massive increase in armaments production and in the size of the army. Albert Speer, the minister for armaments and munitions, tripled the production of armaments between 1942 and 1943, despite Allied air raids. A total mobilization of the economy was put into effect in July 1944. Schools, theaters, and cafes were closed. By that time, though, total war mobilization was too late to save Germany from defeat.

Nazi attitudes toward women changed over the course of the war. Before the war, the Nazis had worked to keep women out of the job market. As the war progressed and more and more men were called up for military service, these attitudes changed. Nazi magazines now proclaimed, "We see the woman as the eternal mother of our people, but also as the working and fighting comrade of the man." In spite of this change, the number of women working in industry, agriculture, commerce, and domestic service increased only slightly. Many women, especially those of the middle class, did not want jobs, particularly in factories.

Wartime Japan was a highly mobilized society. To guarantee its control over all national resources, the government created a planning board to control prices, wages, labor, and resources. Citizens were encouraged to sacrifice their resources, and sometimes their lives, for the national cause. Young Japanese were encouraged to volunteer to serve as pilots in suicide missions against the American ships. These pilots were known as **kamikaze**, or "divine wind."

Japan was extremely reluctant to mobilize women on behalf of Japan's war effort. General Hideki Tojo, prime minister from 1941 to 1944, opposed female employment. Female employment increased during the war, but only in such areas as the textile industry and farming, where women had traditionally worked. Instead of using women to meet labor shortages, the Japanese government brought in Korean and Chinese laborers.

5. How were women used in the war effort in Germany, Japan, the Soviet Union, and the United States?

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Chapter 26, Section 4 (continued)

• Frontline Civilians: The Bombing of Cities (page 833)

Bombing was used in World War II against military targets, enemy troops, and civilian populations. The bombing of civilians in World War II made the home front a dangerous place. The first sustained use of civilian bombing began in early September 1940 in Great Britain. For months, the German air force bombed London nightly. Thousands of civilians were killed or injured, and enormous damage was done. Nevertheless, Londoners' morale remained high. The blitz, as the British called the German air raids, soon became a national experience. The blitz was carried to many other British cities and towns. The ability of Londoners to maintain their morale set the standard for the rest of the British population. The theory that the bombing of civilian targets would force peace was proved wrong. The British failed to learn from their own experience, however. Churchill and his advisers believed that destroying German communities would break civilian morale and bring victory. Major bombing raids on German cities began in 1942.

Bombing raids added an element of terror to circumstances that were already difficult because of shortages of food, clothing, and fuel. Germans especially feared the incendiary bombs, which created firestorms that swept through cities. The bombing of Dresden from February 13 to 15, 1945, created a firestorm that may have killed as many as a hundred thousand people. Germany suffered enormously from the Allied bombing raids. Millions of buildings were destroyed, and possibly half a million civilians died. But the bombings did not destroy Germany's industrial capacity. Production of war materials actually increased between 1942 and 1944, despite the bombing. However, the widespread destruction of transportation systems and fuel supplies made it very difficult for the new materials to reach the German military.

In Japan, the bombing of civilians reached a new level with the use of the first atomic bomb. Japan was open to air raids toward the end of the war because its air force had almost been destroyed. Attacks on Japanese cities by the new U.S. B-29 Superfortresses had begun on November 24, 1944. By the summer of 1945, many of Japan's industries had been destroyed, along with one-fourth of its dwellings. The Japanese government decreed the mobilization of all people between the ages of 13 and 60 into a People's Volunteer Corps. Fearing high U.S. casualties in a land invasion of Japan, President Truman and his advisers decided to drop the atomic bomb on Hiroshima and Nagasaki in August of 1945.

6. What was the theory behind the bombing of civilians? Did this theory prove to be right or wrong?

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Chapter 26, Section 4 (continued)

• Peace and a New War (page 834)

The end of World War II was followed by a period of political tensions, known as the **Cold War**. The Cold War was primarily an ideological conflict between the United States and the Soviet Union, but it dominated world affairs until the end of the 1980s.

Stalin, Roosevelt, and Churchill were the leaders of what was called the Big Three (the Soviet Union, the United States, and Great Britain) of the Grand Alliance. They met at Tehran in November 1943 to decide the future course of the war. Their major decision concerned the final assault on Germany. Stalin and Roosevelt argued for an American-British invasion through France. This was scheduled for the spring of 1944. This plan had important consequences. It meant that Soviet and British-American forces would meet in Germany along a north-south dividing line. Soviet forces would liberate Eastern Europe. The Allies also agreed to a partition of postwar Germany.

The Big Three powers met again at Yalta in southern Russia in February 1945. By then, the defeat of Germany was obvious. The Western powers were now faced with the reality that eleven million Soviet soldiers were taking possession of Eastern and much of Central Europe. Stalin was very suspicious of the Western powers. He wanted a buffer to protect the Soviet Union from future Western aggression. This would mean establishing pro-Soviet governments along the border of the Soviet Union. Roosevelt, however, favored the idea of self-determination for Europe. He wanted to help liberated Europe create “democratic institutions of their own choice.” Liberated countries would hold free elections to determine their political systems.

At Yalta, Roosevelt sought Soviet military help against Japan. Roosevelt agreed to Stalin’s price for military aid against Japan. Stalin wanted Sakhalin and the Kuril Islands, which were ruled by Japan. He also wanted two warm-water ports and railroad rights in Manchuria. The creation of the United Nations was another American concern at Yalta. Roosevelt wanted the Big Three powers to pledge to be part of an international organization before difficult issues divided them into hostile camps. Both Churchill and Stalin accepted Roosevelt’s plans for the establishment of a United Nations organization and set the first meeting for San Francisco in April 1945.

The decisions about Germany and Eastern Europe were less decisive. The Big Three reaffirmed that Germany must surrender unconditionally. It would be divided into four zones, which would be occupied and governed by the military forces of the United States, Great Britain, France, and the Soviet Union. A compromise was also worked out in regard to Poland. Stalin agreed to free elections in the future to determine a new government in that country. The issue of free elections in Eastern Europe caused a serious split between the Soviets and the Americans. Eastern European governments were to be freely elected, but it was clear that Stalin might not honor this provision. This attempt to reconcile two irreconcilable goals was doomed to failure. This soon

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Chapter 26, Section 4 (continued)

became evident at the next conference of the Big Three powers at Potsdam, Germany.

The Potsdam conference of July 1945 began under a cloud of mistrust. Roosevelt had died on April 12 and had been succeeded by Harry Truman. At Potsdam, Truman demanded free elections throughout Eastern Europe. Stalin objected. He wanted absolute military security. To him, this security could be gained only by the presence of Communist states in Eastern Europe. Free elections might result in governments hostile to the Soviets.

The war had ended, but a new struggle was already beginning. Many in the West thought Soviet policy was part of a worldwide Communist conspiracy. The Soviets viewed Western, and especially American, policy as nothing less than global capitalist expansionism. In March 1946, in a speech to an American audience, the former British prime minister Winston Churchill declared that “an iron curtain” had “descended across the continent,” dividing Europe into two hostile camps. Stalin called Churchill’s speech a “call to war with the Soviet Union.” Only months after World War II had ended, the world seemed to be bitterly divided once again.

7. Why did Stalin object to free elections in Eastern Europe?

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Chapter 27, Section 1

For use with textbook pages 849–854

DEVELOPMENT OF THE COLD WAR

KEY TERMS

satellite state a state that is economically and politically dependent on a larger, more powerful state (page 850)

policy of containment the policy of the United States regarding the Soviet Union, with the goal of keeping communism within its existing boundaries and preventing further Soviet aggression (page 850)

arms race the build-up of huge arsenals of nuclear weapons and missiles by the United States and the Soviet Union (page 851)

domino theory the belief held by U.S. policymakers that if the Communists succeeded in South Vietnam, other countries in Asia would fall (like dominoes) to communism (page 853)

DRAWING FROM EXPERIENCE

Which countries of the world would you consider to be superpowers today? Why do you think so?

In this section, you will learn about the period of conflict called the Cold War that developed between the United States and the Soviet Union after the end of World War II.

ORGANIZING YOUR THOUGHTS

Use the chart below to help you take notes. During the Cold War period, new military alliances were created. Identify the members of the alliances in the chart below.

| Alliance | Members |
|-------------|---------|
| NATO | 1. |
| Warsaw Pact | 2. |
| SEATO | 3. |
| CENTO | 4. |

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 27, Section 1 (continued)

READ TO LEARN

• Confrontation of the Superpowers (page 849)

After World War II, the United States and the Soviet Union soon became rivals. U.S. leaders still feared communism, and Stalin still feared the capitalist West. Between 1945 and 1949, the two superpowers (countries whose military power is combined with political influence) began to oppose each other. The Soviet government was not willing to give up its control of Eastern Europe. American leaders were not willing to give up the power and prestige the United States had gained throughout the world.

The United States and Great Britain believed that the nations of Eastern Europe should freely determine their own governments. Stalin opposed their plans. The Soviet army had freed Eastern Europe from the Nazis, and it stayed in these countries after the war.

Greece was another area of disagreement between the superpowers. In 1946, the Communist People's Liberation Army fought anticommunist forces for control of Greece. Great Britain supported the anticommunist forces. However, economic problems in Britain forced the British to withdraw their aid from Greece. U.S. President Harry Truman responded to the British withdrawal by issuing the Truman Doctrine. The Truman Doctrine stated that the United States would provide money to countries (such as Greece) that were threatened by Communist expansion. By 1947, the split in Europe between the United States and the Soviet Union had become a fact of life. The United States adopted a **policy of containment** to keep communism within its existing boundaries and prevent further Soviet aggression.

The European Recovery Program followed the Truman Doctrine in June 1947. It is better known as the Marshall Plan. The goal of the program was to rebuild the prosperity and stability of Europe. It included \$13 billion in aid for Europe's economic recovery. The Marshall Plan was based on the belief that Communist aggression was successful in countries that had economic problems. The Marshall Plan was not meant to shut out the Soviet Union or its Eastern European **satellite states** (states that are economically and politically dependent on a larger, more powerful state). But they refused to participate. The Soviets saw the Marshall Plan as an attempt to buy the support of countries. In 1949, the Soviet Union responded to the Marshall Plan by founding the Council for Mutual Economic Assistance (COMECON) to help the Eastern European states. COMECON largely failed, however, because the Soviet Union was unable to provide much financial aid.

Germany was also an area of disagreement between the Soviets and the West. At the end of the war, the Allied Powers had divided Germany into four zones. Each zone was occupied by one of the Allies (the United States, the Soviet Union, Great Britain, and France). Berlin was also divided into four zones. By 1948, Great Britain, France, and the United States were making plans to unify the three Western sections of Germany into a West German

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Chapter 27, Section 1 (continued)

state. The Soviets were against this plan. They tried to prevent it by blockading the three Western zones of Berlin. Food and supplies could not get through to the 2.5 million people in these zones. To keep these people alive, the Western powers started the Berlin Air Lift. Supplies were flown in by American and British airplanes. More than 200,000 flights carried 2.3 million tons of supplies. The Soviets finally gave in and lifted the blockade in May 1949.

In September 1949, the Federal Republic of Germany (or West Germany) was created. Its capital was Bonn. A month later, a separate East German state, the German Democratic Republic, was set up by the Soviets. East Berlin was its capital.

5. What was the Marshall Plan? What was its purpose?

- **The Spread of the Cold War** (page 851)

In 1949, Chinese Communists took control of the government of China. This added to U.S. fears about the spread of communism. The Soviet Union also exploded its first atomic bomb in 1949. The United States and the Soviet Union were soon involved in an **arms race**, in which both countries built up their armies and weapons. In 1952, the Soviet Union and the United States both developed hydrogen bombs. These bombs were even more deadly than atomic bombs. By the mid-1950s, both nations had intercontinental ballistic missiles that could send bombs anywhere in the world. Both sides believed that they needed arsenals of nuclear weapons to prevent war. They believed that neither side would launch a nuclear attack, because the other side would be able to strike back with its nuclear weapons. In 1957, the Soviets sent *Sputnik I*, the first man-made space satellite, to orbit the earth. Americans began to fear that the Soviet Union had a huge lead in building missiles.

The need for security during the Cold War led to the formation of new military alliances. The North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO) was formed in April 1949. Belgium, Luxembourg, France, the Netherlands, Great Britain, Italy, Denmark, Norway, Portugal, and Iceland signed a treaty with the United States and Canada. All of these nations agreed to help each other if any of them was attacked. A few years later, West Germany, Turkey, and Greece joined NATO. In 1955, the Soviet Union formed an alliance with Albania, Bulgaria, Czechoslovakia, East Germany, Hungary, Poland, and Romania. This alliance was known as the Warsaw Pact. To stop Soviet aggression in the East, the United States, Great Britain, France, Pakistan, Thailand, the Philippines, Australia, and New Zealand formed the Southeast Asia Treaty Organization

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Chapter 27, Section 1 *(continued)*

(SEATO). To prevent the Soviet Union from expanding to the south, Turkey, Iraq, Iran, Pakistan, Great Britain, and the United States formed the Central Treaty Organization (CENTO). By the mid-1950s, the United States was allied militarily with 42 states around the world.

Berlin was still divided into two parts, a reminder of the division of West and East. West Berlin was far more prosperous than East Berlin and East Germany. Many East Germans escaped their country by fleeing through West Berlin. Nikita Khrushchev, who became the leader of the Soviet Union in 1955, decided to stop the East Germans from escaping in this way. In August 1961, the East German government began to build a wall separating West Berlin from East Berlin. The Berlin Wall became a symbol of the division between the two superpowers.

6. Why did the United States and the Soviet Union become involved in an arms race?

- **The Cuban Missile Crisis** *(page 853)*

The Cold War intensified during the administration of U.S. President John F. Kennedy. In 1959, Fidel Castro overthrew the Cuban dictator Fulgencio Batista and set up a Communist government in Cuba. President Kennedy approved a secret plan for Cuban exiles to invade Cuba in the hope of causing a revolt against Castro. The invasion, called the Bay of Pigs, was a disaster. Many of the exiles were killed or captured.

After the Bay of Pigs, the Soviet Union sent arms and military advisers to Cuba. In 1962, Khrushchev began to place nuclear missiles in Cuba. The missiles were meant to counteract U.S. nuclear weapons that had been placed in Turkey within range of the Soviet Union. The United States was not willing to allow nuclear weapons so close to the U.S. mainland. In October 1962, Kennedy found out that Soviet ships carrying missiles were heading to Cuba. He tried to stop them by blockading Cuba. This gave the two sides time to find a peaceful solution. Khrushchev agreed to stop the ships and remove Soviet missiles from Cuba if Kennedy pledged not to invade Cuba. Kennedy quickly agreed.

The Cuban missile crisis had brought the world close to nuclear war. The realization that the world might have been destroyed had a profound influence on both sides. A hotline communications system between Moscow and Washington, D.C. was installed in 1963. The two superpowers could now communicate quickly in times of crisis.

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Chapter 27, Section 1 *(continued)*

7. What series of events led to the Cuban missile crisis?

• **Vietnam and the Domino Theory** *(page 853)*

By 1963, the United States had been drawn into a new conflict—the Vietnam War. In 1964, under President Lyndon B. Johnson, more and more U.S. troops were sent to Vietnam. Their purpose was to keep the Communist government of North Vietnam from gaining control of South Vietnam. The United States saw the conflict in terms of a **domino theory**. According to this theory, if the Communists were able to gain control of South Vietnam, other countries in Asia would also fall (like dominoes) to communism.

The United States failed to defeat the determined North Vietnamese. The large number of American troops sent to Vietnam soon produced an antiwar movement in the United States, especially among college students. Richard Nixon was elected president by pledging to stop the war. But ending the war was not easy. Finally, in 1973, President Nixon reached an agreement with the North Vietnamese that allowed the United States to withdraw its troops. Within two years, Communist armies from the North had reunited Vietnam.

The domino theory turned out to be wrong. New nations in Southeast Asia were able to avoid Communist governments. A split between Communist China and the Soviet Union put an end to the idea that there was single form of communism directed by Moscow. Under President Nixon, American relations with China were reestablished. The Vietnam War showed that there were limits to American power. By the end of the war, a new era in American-Soviet relations had begun.

8. What was the domino theory? Was it right or wrong? Why?

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Chapter 27, Section 2

For use with textbook pages 855–858

THE SOVIET UNION AND EASTERN EUROPE

KEY TERMS

heavy industry the manufacture of machines and equipment for factories and mines (page 856)

de-Stalinization the process of eliminating the more ruthless policies of Stalin (page 856)

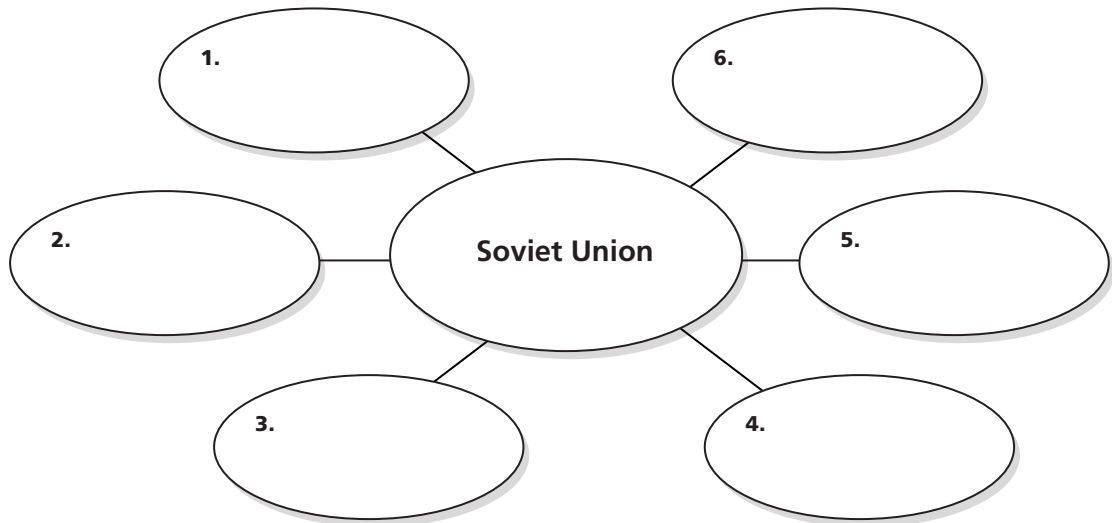
DRAWING FROM EXPERIENCE

What kind of house or apartment do you live in? How many rooms does it have? Do you have your own room?

In the last section, you read about the Cold War between the United States and the Soviet Union. In this section, you will read about the Soviet Union and Eastern Europe during 1950s and 1960s. During this time, the average Russian family lived in a one-room apartment.

ORGANIZING YOUR THOUGHTS

Use the diagram below to help you take notes. After World War II, six countries in Eastern Europe became Soviet satellite states. Identify these six countries.



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Chapter 27, Section 2 (continued)

READ TO LEARN

- **The Reign of Stalin** (page 855)

World War II devastated the Soviet Union. To create a new industrial base after the war, Stalin emphasized the production of goods for export. In some respects, this led to a rapid economic recovery. By 1950, industrial production had surpassed prewar levels by 40 percent. New power plants, canals, and giant factories were built. **Heavy industry** (the manufacture of machines and equipment for factories and mines) increased, mainly for the benefit of the military. But the Soviet people did not benefit from the industrialization. The emphasis on heavy industry meant that not enough consumer goods were produced. The housing shortage was also severe. The average Russian family lived in a one-room apartment.

Stalin was still the master of the Soviet Union. He did not share power and had little respect for other Communist Party leaders. His suspicions and lack of trust caused the repression in the Soviet Union to increase. In 1946, the government decreed that all literary and scientific work had to conform to the political needs of the state.

7. How did the emphasis on heavy industry affect the Soviet people?

- **The Khrushchev Era** (page 856)

Stalin died in 1953. A group of leaders succeeded him, but Nikita Khrushchev soon emerged as the chief Soviet policy maker. Khrushchev took steps to undo some of the worst features of Stalin's regime. The process of eliminating the more ruthless policies of Stalin became known as **de-Stalinization**. Khrushchev loosened government controls on literary works. In 1962, for example, he allowed the publication of *A Day in the Life of Ivan Denisovich* by Alexander Solzhenitsyn. This book dealt with life in a Siberian forced-labor camp. Khrushchev also placed more emphasis on producing consumer goods. He also tried to increase farm production by growing corn and cultivating lands east of the Ural Mountains. The attempt to increase farm production failed. This failure and the increased military spending hurt the Soviet economy. Foreign policy failures also damaged Khrushchev's reputation. After the Cuban missile crisis, he was voted out of office and forced into retirement.

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Chapter 27, Section 2 (continued)

8. What changes in Soviet policy did Khrushchev make?

• **Eastern Europe: Behind the Iron Curtain** (page 857)

Between 1945 and 1947, Soviet-controlled Communist governments took control of East Germany, Bulgaria, Romania, Poland, and Hungary. In Czechoslovakia, there was a strong tradition of democracy and a multi-party system, so the Soviets did not seize control until 1948. Albania and Yugoslavia were also Communist countries, but the Soviet Union did not control them. During the war, both countries had strong Communist movements that resisted the Nazis. After the war, local Communist parties took control. In Albania, Communists set up a Stalinist-type regime that grew more and more independent of the Soviet Union. In Yugoslavia, Josip Broz, known as Tito, had been the leader of the Communist resistance movement. After the war, he worked to create an independent Communist state in Yugoslavia. Stalin hoped to gain control of Yugoslavia, but Tito refused to give in to Stalin's demands. Tito ruled Yugoslavia until his death in 1980. Yugoslavia had a Communist government, but it was not a Soviet satellite state.

Between 1948 and 1953, the Eastern European satellite states followed the example of the Soviet Union. They had five-year plans, with emphasis on heavy industry rather than consumer goods. They began to collectivize agriculture. They eliminated all noncommunist parties and set up secret police and military forces. But communism did not develop deep roots among the peoples of Eastern Europe. The Soviets exploited Eastern Europe economically and made living conditions hard for most people.

In the 1950s and 1960s, the Soviet Union made it clear that it would not allow its satellite states to become independent of Soviet control. In 1956, protests erupted in Poland. In response, the Polish Communist Party adopted a series of reforms and elected Wladyslaw Gomulka as first secretary. Gomulka declared that Poland had the right to follow its own path. But Poland compromised. It pledged to remain loyal to the Warsaw Pact.

In Hungary, economic problems and unrest led to calls for revolt. To end the rebellion, Imre Nagy, the Hungarian leader, declared that Hungary was a free nation on November 1, 1956. He also promised free elections. Three days after Nagy's declaration, the Soviet Army attacked Budapest. The Soviets reestablished control over the country. Nagy was captured by the Soviet military and executed two years later.

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Chapter 27, Section 2 (continued)

In Czechoslovakia, Antonin Novotny had been placed in power in 1953 by Stalin himself. In fact, he was called "Little Stalin." By the late 1960s, Novotny had alienated many members of his own party. Czech writers especially disliked him. A writers' rebellion led to Novotny's resignation in 1968. In January 1968, Alexander Dubček was elected first secretary of the Communist party. He began a number of reforms, including freedom of speech and press and the freedom to travel abroad. He relaxed censorship and promised to democratize the Czechoslovakian political system. A period of euphoria broke out that became known as the "Prague Spring." In response, the Soviet Army invaded Czechoslovakia in August 1968 and crushed the reform movement. Gustav Husák replaced Dubček, did away with his reforms, and reestablished the old order.

9. Why were Albania and Yugoslavia able to remain free of Soviet control?

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Chapter 27, Section 3

For use with textbook pages 860–868

WESTERN EUROPE AND NORTH AMERICA

KEY TERMS

welfare state a state in which the government takes responsibility for providing citizens with services and a minimal standard of living (*page 862*)

bloc a group of nations with a common purpose (*page 863*)

real wages the actual purchasing power of income (*page 863*)

DRAWING FROM EXPERIENCE

How do you feel about welfare? Do you think the government has a responsibility to provide citizens with basic needs, such as food and medical care?

In the last section, you read about developments in the Soviet Union and Eastern Europe following World War II. In this section, you will read about economic, political, and social changes in Western Europe, the United States, and Canada after the war. Some countries, such as Great Britain and the United States, developed welfare systems.

ORGANIZING YOUR THOUGHTS

Use the chart below to help you take notes. In the late 1950s, six countries in Western Europe created the European Economic Community, also known as the Common Market. Identify the six original members of the Common Market.

Common Market

| | |
|----|----|
| 1. | 2. |
| 3. | 4. |
| 5. | 6. |

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 27, Section 3 (continued)

READ TO LEARN

• Western Europe: Recovery (page 860)

With the help of the Marshall Plan, the countries of Western Europe recovered rapidly. By 1950, industrial output in Europe was 30 percent above prewar levels. The 1950s and 1960s were a period of dramatic growth and prosperity in Western Europe. There was nearly full employment during this period.

After the war, one man, the war hero Charles de Gaulle, dominated France. In 1946, de Gaulle helped establish a new government called the Fourth Republic. It had a strong parliament and a weak presidency. No party was strong enough to dominate, and the government was largely ineffective. De Gaulle was unhappy with the Fourth Republic and withdrew from politics. In 1958, French leaders asked de Gaulle to form a new government and revise the constitution. He drafted a new constitution for the Fifth Republic that increased the power of the presidency. The president would now have the right to choose the prime minister, dissolve parliament, and supervise defense and foreign policy. French voters overwhelmingly approved the new constitution. De Gaulle became the first president of the Fifth Republic.

To achieve the status of a world power, de Gaulle invested heavily in nuclear weapons. France exploded its first nuclear bomb in 1960. During de Gaulle's presidency, the French economy grew rapidly. France became a major industrial producer and exporter, especially of automobiles and weapons. But there were still problems. Large government deficits and a rise in the cost of living led to unrest. In May 1968, a series of student protests was followed by a general labor strike. De Gaulle resigned in April 1969 and died within a year.

The three Western zones of Germany were unified as the Federal Republic of Germany in 1949. From 1949 to 1963, Konrad Adenauer was chancellor (head of state). He cooperated with the United States and other Western European nations. Under Adenauer, West Germany experienced an "economic miracle." Unemployment fell from 8 percent in 1950 to 0.4 percent in 1965. Adenauer resigned in 1963. Ludwig Erhard, who continued Adenauer's policies, succeeded him. An economic downturn in the mid-1960s opened the door to the Social Democratic Party, a moderate socialist party. It became the leading party in 1969. Willy Brandt, the mayor of West Berlin, led the Social Democrats.

Great Britain had serious economic problems at the end of World War II. In elections after the war, the Labour Party defeated Churchill's Conservative Party. The Labour Party had promised many reforms, especially in the area of social welfare. The Labour government set out to create a modern **welfare state** (a state in which the government takes responsibility for providing citizens with services and a minimal standard of living). In 1946, the new

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Chapter 27, Section 3 *(continued)*

government passed the National Insurance Act and the National Health Service Act. The insurance act provided government funds to help the unemployed, the sick, and the aged. The health act created a system of socialized medicine that ensured medical care for everyone. The cost of building a welfare state at home forced the British to reduce expenses abroad. This meant the end of the British Empire. Britain was forced to give in to the demands of its colonies for independence. Britain was no longer able to play the role of a world power. Economic problems brought the Conservatives back into power from 1951 to 1964. The Conservatives favored private enterprise, but they accepted the welfare state. They even added to it by starting a building program to improve British housing.

7. How did the British Empire come to an end?

- **Western Europe: The Move Toward Unity** *(page 862)*

In 1957, France, West Germany, Belgium, the Netherlands, Luxembourg, and Italy signed the Rome Treaty. This treaty created the European Economic Community (EEC), also known as the Common Market. The EEC was a free-trade area made up of the six member nations. These six nations agreed not to impose any tariffs (import charges) on each other's goods. As a group, they would be protected by a tariff on goods from non-EEC nations. All the member nations benefited economically. By the 1960s, the EEC had become an important trading **bloc** (a group of nations with a common purpose). With a total population of 165 million, the EEC was the world's largest exporter and purchaser of raw materials.

8. What is the Common Market?

- **The United States in the 1950s** *(page 863)*

The New Deal had brought basic changes to American society. These changes included an increase in the role and power of the federal government and the beginning of a welfare state. Other changes included the growth of

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Chapter 27, Section 3 (continued)

organized labor and the realization of the need to deal fairly with the concerns of minorities, especially African Americans. The New Deal tradition continued when Democrats were elected president—Harry Truman in 1948, John Kennedy in 1960, and Lyndon Johnson in 1964. Even the election of a Republican president, Dwight Eisenhower, in 1952 and 1956 did not change the basic direction of the New Deal.

An economic boom followed World War II. A shortage of consumer goods during the war had left many Americans with extra income and the desire to buy goods after the war. The growth of labor unions brought higher wages and gave more workers the ability to buy consumer goods. Between 1945 and 1973, **real wages** (the actual purchasing power of income) grew an average of 3 percent a year.

Cold War struggles made many Americans afraid that Communists had infiltrated the United States. The threat seemed even more real when thousands of American soldiers were sent to Korea to fight against Communist aggression. This climate of fear produced a dangerous politician, Senator Joseph McCarthy. He created a “Red Scare” (fear of communist subversion) by charging that hundreds of communists were in high government positions. Several people, including intellectuals and movie stars, were questioned about Communist activities. When McCarthy attacked alleged “Communist conspirators” in the U.S. army, the Senate condemned him in 1954. His anticommunist crusade soon came to an end.

9. What was the “Red Scare”?

• The United States in the 1960s (page 864)

The 1960s began on a youthful and optimistic note. At age 43, John F. Kennedy became the youngest elected president in U.S. history. His administration was cut short when an assassin killed him on November 22, 1963. Vice President Lyndon Johnson then became president. Johnson pursued the growth of the welfare state. His programs included health care for the elderly, various programs to combat poverty, and federal assistance for education. His other passion was the civil rights movement. This movement had its beginnings in 1954 when the U.S. Supreme Court ruled that the practice of racial segregation (separation) in public schools was illegal. In August 1963, Martin Luther King, Jr., leader of a growing movement for racial equality, led a march on Washington, D.C. King believed in the principle of passive disobedience

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Chapter 27, Section 3 (continued)

practiced by Mohandas Gandhi. By the end of 1963, a majority of the American people called civil rights the most significant national issue. President Johnson took up the cause of civil rights. The Civil Rights Act of 1964 began the process of ending segregation and discrimination in the workplace and all public places. The Voting Rights Act of 1965 made it easier for African Americans to vote in southern states.

In the North and West, blacks had had voting rights for many years. But local patterns of segregation led to higher unemployment for blacks than for whites. In the summer of 1965, race riots broke out in the Watts district of Los Angeles. Thirty-four people were killed. In 1968, Martin Luther King, Jr., was assassinated. Riots broke out in over a hundred cities. The riots led to a “white backlash” (whites became less sympathetic to the cause of racial equality).

Antiwar protests also divided the American people. As the Vietnam War progressed, protests grew. In 1970, four students at Kent State University were killed by the Ohio National Guard during a student demonstration. Americans became less and less willing to continue the war. The riots and antiwar demonstrations caused many people to call for “law and order.” Richard Nixon used this appeal when he was elected president in 1968. With his election, a shift to the right began in American politics.

10. What were some of the important events in the civil rights movement from 1954 to 1965?

- **The Development of Canada** (page 866)

Canada had always had a strong export economy based on its abundant natural resources. After World War II, it developed electronic, aircraft, nuclear, and chemical engineering industries. Much of the Canadian growth was financed by capital from the United States. This led to U.S. ownership of Canadian businesses, and many Canadians worried that the United States would dominate their country economically. Canada sought to establish its own identity in world politics. It was a founding member of the United Nations and joined the North Atlantic Treaty Organization in 1949. The Liberal Party dominated Canadian politics throughout most of this period. The Liberal government created Canada’s welfare state, which included a national social security system and a national health insurance program.

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Chapter 27, Section 3 (continued)

11. Why did Canadians worry that the United States would dominate their country economically?

• The Emergence of a New Society (page 866)

After World War II, Western societies experienced rapid change. New inventions, such as televisions, computers, and jet planes altered the pace and nature of human life. Changes in the middle class were especially noticeable. The middle class had traditionally included businesspeople, lawyers, doctors, and teachers. A new group of managers and technicians now joined the ranks of the middle class. Changes also occurred in the lower classes. The number of farmers declined drastically. The number of industrial workers also began to decline, as the number of white-collar workers increased. An increase in the real wages of workers made it possible for them to imitate the buying patterns of the middle class. This led to what some people have called the consumer society (a society preoccupied with buying goods). Buying on credit became widespread in the 1950s. Workers could now buy such products as televisions, washing machines, refrigerators, vacuum cleaners, stereos, and automobiles.

Women's roles also began to change. After World War I, many governments had expressed thanks to women by granting them voting rights. Sweden, Great Britain, Germany, Poland, Hungary, Austria, and Czechoslovakia gave women the right to vote in 1918, followed by the United States in 1920. Women in France gained the right to vote in 1944, while Italian women gained this right in 1945. During World War II, women had entered the workforce in huge numbers. At the end of the war, many of them were let go to provide jobs for soldiers returning home. For a time, many women fell back into traditional roles. Birthrates rose, creating a "baby boom" in the late 1940s and the 1950s.

By the end of the 1950s, the birthrate began to fall, and the size of families decreased. The number of married women in the workforce increased in both Europe and the United States. These women faced an old problem. They still earned less than men for equal work. Women also tended to enter traditionally female jobs. Many faced the burden of earning income and raising a family at the same time. These inequalities led many women to rebel. In the late 1960s, there was a renewed interest in feminism, or the women's liberation movement, as it was now called. Simone de Beauvoir's book *The Second Sex* influenced the women's movements in both Europe and the United States.

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Chapter 27, Section 3 (continued)

Before World War II, most of the people who went to universities were from the wealthier classes. After the war, European countries began to encourage more people to get a higher education by eliminating fees. Enrollments grew dramatically as students from the middle and lower classes began to attend. There were problems, however. Many European university classrooms were overcrowded. Many professors paid little attention to their students. Growing discontent led to student protests in the late 1960s. Many of these protests were an extension of the revolts in U.S. universities. Some students wanted to reform the university system. They did not believe that universities responded to their needs or to the realities of the modern world. Student protest movements in both Europe and the United States reached a high point in 1968. At the time, many people thought that the student protests were a turning point in history. By the early 1970s, however, the movements had largely disappeared. In the 1970s and 1980s, most student rebels became middle-class professionals.

12. How did women's roles change during and after World War II?

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Chapter 28, Section 1

For use with textbook pages 875–878

DECLINE OF THE SOVIET UNION

KEY TERMS

détente a relaxation of tensions between nations, especially used for American-Soviet relations in the 1970s (page 875)

dissident a person who speaks out against a regime (page 876)

perestroika (“restructuring”) the term used by Mikhail Gorbachev for economic reforms in the Soviet Union in the late 1980s (page 877)

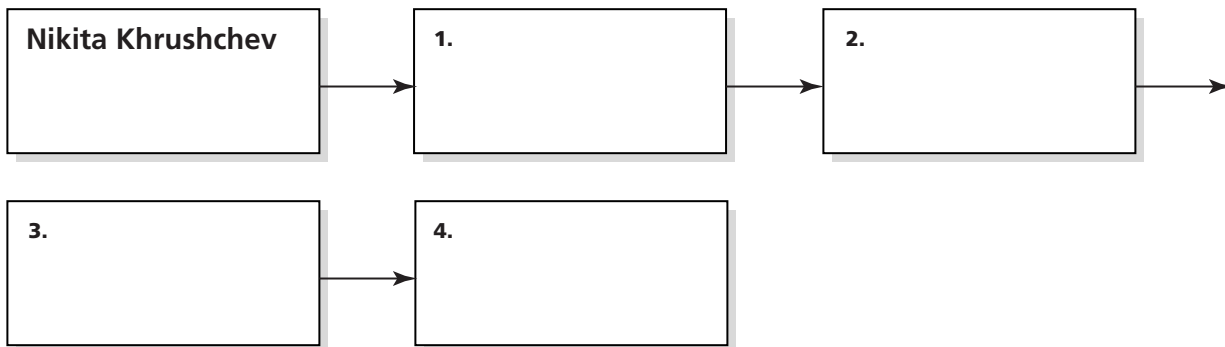
DRAWING FROM EXPERIENCE

Have you heard of the “evil empire”? Who used this expression? What country was he talking about?

In this section, you will learn about changes in the Soviet Union in the 1980s and 1990s.

ORGANIZING YOUR THOUGHTS

Use the chart below to help you take notes. Identify the rulers of the Soviet Union, and later the Russian Republic, following Nikita Khrushchev.



Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 28, Section 1 (continued)

READ TO LEARN

- **From Cold War to Post-Cold War** (page 875)

In the 1970s, relations between the United States and the Soviet Union improved. This phase in U.S.-Soviet relations is called **détente** (the relaxation of tensions between nations). The United States began to sell grain and consumer goods to the Soviet Union. Détente collapsed in 1979, however, when the Soviet Union invaded Afghanistan. President Jimmy Carter stopped the shipment of grain to the Soviet Union. He also would not allow Americans to participate in the 1980 Olympic Games, which were held in Moscow.

The Cold War intensified when Ronald Reagan was elected president in 1980. Reagan called the Soviet Union an “evil empire” and began a new arms race. Reagan also gave military aid to the Afghan rebels. When Mikhail Gorbachev became the leader of the Soviet Union in 1985, changes began that eventually ended the Cold War. Gorbachev made an agreement with the United States in 1987 to eliminate intermediate-range nuclear weapons. Both sides had reasons to slow down the arms race. Gorbachev hoped to make economic and other reforms in the Soviet Union. The national debt in the United States had tripled, and the United States had moved from being a creditor nation (a nation that exports more than it imports) to being the world’s biggest debtor nation. By 1990, both countries knew that their large military budgets would make it difficult to solve their domestic problems.

Gorbachev stopped giving military support to Communist governments in Eastern Europe. This opened the door to the overthrow of Communist governments in these countries. A revolutionary movement swept through Eastern Europe in 1989. Germany was reunified on October 3, 1990. In 1991, the Soviet Union was dissolved. The Cold War had come to an end.

5. Why did the United States and the Soviet Union begin to slow down the arms race?

- **Upheaval in the Soviet Union** (page 876)

When Nikita Khrushchev was removed from office in 1964, two men, Alexei Kosygin and Leonid Brezhnev, replaced him. Brezhnev became the dominant leader. He was determined to keep Eastern Europe in Communist hands and was not interested in reform. He insisted on the right of the Soviet

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Chapter 28, Section 1 (continued)

Union to intervene if communism was threatened in another Communist state. This was known as the Brezhnev Doctrine. Under Brezhnev, the government did allow more access to Western styles of music, dress, and art. But dissidents (those who spoke out against the regime) were still punished.

Brezhnev continued to emphasize heavy industry. Problems weakened the Soviet economy. The government's central planning led to a huge, complex bureaucracy. This discouraged efficiency and led to indifference. Collective farmers also had no incentive to work hard. By the 1970s, Communist party leaders and leaders of the army and secret police enjoyed a high standard of living and had become corrupt. By 1980, the Soviet Union was in serious trouble, with a declining economy, a rise in infant mortality rates and alcoholism, and poor working conditions. Within the Communist Party, a small group of reformers emerged. One of these was Mikhail Gorbachev. In March 1985, he was chosen to lead the Soviet Union.

From the start, Gorbachev saw the need for radical reforms. The basis of these reforms was **perestroika** (restructuring). At first, this meant restructuring economic policy. Gorbachev wanted to start a market economy, where consumers influence what is produced. But Gorbachev soon realized that it was not possible to reform the economy without political reform. In 1988, Gorbachev established a new Soviet parliament, the Congress of People's Deputies. The members were elected and met in 1989. In 1990, Gorbachev allowed non-Communist political parties to organize. At the same time, he strengthened his own power by creating a new position—president of the Soviet Union. In March 1990, Gorbachev became the Soviet Union's first (and last) president.

As Gorbachev loosened the control of the Communist Party, ethnic tensions in the Soviet Union surfaced. Nationalist movements emerged throughout the republics of the Soviet Union. In 1989 and 1990, there were calls for independence in Soviet Georgia, Latvia, Estonia, Moldavia, Uzbekistan, Azerbaijan, and Lithuania. By 1991, many Soviet leaders were worried. The breakup of the Soviet Union would mean an end to their privileges. On August 19, 1991, a group of conservative leaders arrested Gorbachev and tried to seize power. The attempt failed. Boris Yeltsin, president of the Russian Republic, and thousands of Russians resisted the takeover. The Soviet republics now moved for complete independence. Ukraine voted for independence on December 1, 1991. A week later, the leaders of Russia, Ukraine, and Belarus announced that the Soviet Union had "ceased to exist." Gorbachev resigned on December 25, 1991, and turned his responsibilities over to Boris Yeltsin, the new president of Russia.

Boris Yeltsin was committed to introducing a free market economy as quickly as possible, but the transition was not easy. Economic hardships were made worse by a rise in organized crime. Yeltsin also used brutal force against the Chechens, who wanted to secede from Russia and create their own republic. At the end of 1999, Yeltsin resigned and was replaced by Vladimir Putin.

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Chapter 28, Section 1 *(continued)*

Putin vowed to return the breakaway state of Chechnya to Russian authority. Fighting in Chechnya continued, and guerrilla attacks occurred in Moscow and in Chechnya during 2003.

In July 2001, Putin began reforms to strengthen the Russian economy. The reforms included the free purchase and sale of land, tax cuts, and efforts to join the World Trade Organization. Since then, Russia has experienced a growing economy.

- 6.** What series of events led to the end of the Soviet Union?

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Chapter 28, Section 2

For use with textbook pages 879–882

EASTERN EUROPE

KEY TERMS

ethnic cleansing the Serb policy of killing or forcibly removing Bosnians from their lands
(page 881)

autonomous self-governing (page 882)

DRAWING FROM EXPERIENCE

Have you ever seen pictures of the Berlin Wall? What did it look like? Why was it built? Why did it fall?

In the last section, you read about the fall of communism in the Soviet Union. In this section, you will read about the fall of communism in other countries in Eastern Europe.

ORGANIZING YOUR THOUGHTS

Use the chart below to help you take notes. Describe how communism ended in the countries in this chart. Also indicate some results of the revolutions in these countries.

| Country | How Communism Ended | Results of Revolution |
|----------------|---------------------|-----------------------|
| Poland | 1. | 2. |
| Czechoslovakia | 3. | 4. |
| Romania | 5. | 6. |
| East Germany | 7. | 8. |
| Yugoslavia | 9. | 10. |

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 28, Section 2 (continued)

READ TO LEARN

• **Revolutions in Eastern Europe** (page 879)

People in Eastern Europe had not always been happy with their Soviet-style Communist governments. After Gorbachev made it clear that the Soviet Union would not intervene militarily in their countries, revolutions broke out throughout Eastern Europe.

In Poland, workers' protests led to changes. In 1980, a worker named Lech Walesa organized a national trade union known as Solidarity. Solidarity gained the support of the workers and the Roman Catholic Church. During a period of military rule in the 1980s, Walesa was arrested, but the movement continued. After more demonstrations in 1988, the Polish government agreed to free parliamentary elections—the first free elections in Eastern Europe in 40 years. A new government was elected, ending 45 years of Communist rule in Poland. In December 1990, Walesa was chosen as president. But the new path was not easy. Free-market reforms led to severe unemployment and discontent. At the end of 1995, Aleksander Kwasniewski, a former Communist, defeated Walesa and became the new president. He continued Poland's move toward a prosperous free market economy.

In Czechoslovakia, mass demonstrations took place in 1988 and 1989. In December 1989, the Communist government collapsed. At the end of December, Václav Havel became the new president. He was a writer who had played an important role in bringing down the Communist government. The new government in Czechoslovakia faced old ethnic conflicts. The two national groups, Czechs and Slovaks, agreed to a peaceful division of the country. On January 1, 1993, Czechoslovakia split into the Czech Republic and Slovakia.

In Romania, the Communist leader Nicolae Ceaușescu had set up a rigid dictatorship in 1965. He used secret police to crush all dissent. His economic policies led to a sharp drop in living standards, including food shortages and the rationing of bread, flour, and sugar. His plan for rapid urbanization also made the Romanian people angry. Entire villages were bulldozed as part of the plan. In December 1989, the secret police murdered thousands of people who were peacefully demonstrating. Finally, the army refused to support any more repression. Ceaușescu and his wife were captured and executed. A new government was quickly formed.

In East Germany, Erich Honecker became head of the Communist Party in 1971. He used the Stasi, the secret police, to rule for the next 18 years. In 1989, many East Germans began to flee their country. Mass demonstrations broke out in the fall of 1989. On November 9, the Communist government gave in and opened its border with the West. Thousands of East Germans rushed across the border. Families who had not seen each other in years were reunited. People on both sides of the Berlin Wall began tearing the

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 28, Section 2 (continued)

wall down. The government gave in again and ordered the rest of the wall torn down.

During East Germany's first free elections in March 1990, the Christian Democrats won almost 50 percent of the vote. The Christian Democrats supported reunification with West Germany. The reunification of Germany took place on October 3, 1990.

11. What series of events led to the reunification of Germany?

• The Disintegration of Yugoslavia (page 881)

Although Yugoslavia had a Communist government, it had never been a Soviet satellite state. After Tito died in 1980, a government composed of representatives from the six republics and two provinces of Yugoslavia kept the country under Communist rule. By 1990, new parties had emerged, and the Communist Party lost its power.

The situation in Yugoslavia was complex. In 1990, the Yugoslav republics of Slovenia, Croatia, Bosnia-Herzegovina, and Macedonia began to push for independence. Slobodan Milošević, who became the leader of Serbia in 1987, was against their plans, because the republics included Serb minorities. He wanted to redraw borders to include the Serb minorities in a new Greater Serbian state. In June 1991, Slovenia and Croatia declared their independence. In September, the Yugoslavian army began a full assault against Croatia. Serbia dominated the Yugoslavian army. Before a cease-fire was arranged, the Serbian forces captured one-third of Croatia's territory.

In 1992, the Serbs began an assault against Bosnia-Herzegovina. By mid-1993, Serbian forces had acquired 70 percent of Bosnian territory. Many Bosnians were Muslims. Toward them, the Serbs followed a policy they called **ethnic cleansing** (killing them or forcibly removing them from their lands). By 1995, 250,000 Bosnians (mostly civilians) had been killed, and two million others were homeless. In 1995, Bosnian and Croatian forces regained much of the territory that had been lost to Serbian forces. Air strikes by NATO bombers were launched in retaliation for Serb attacks on civilians. These attacks forced the Serbs to sign a peace treaty on December 14. The agreement split Bosnia into a loose union of a Serb republic and a Muslim-Croat federation. NATO sent a force of sixty thousand troops to monitor the area.

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Chapter 28, Section 2 (continued)

Peace in Bosnia did not bring peace to the region. A new war began in 1998 over Kosovo. In 1974, Tito had made Kosovo an **autonomous** (self-governing) province within Yugoslavia. Kosovo's inhabitants were mainly ethnic Albanians. In 1989, Milošević took Kosovo's autonomous status away. Groups of ethnic Albanians formed the Kosovo Liberation Army in the mid-1990s and began a campaign against Serbian rule. In response, Serb forces began to massacre ethnic Albanians. In 1999, Albanians in Kosovo gained autonomy within Serbia. When Milošević objected, a NATO bombing campaign forced Yugoslav cooperation. Elections held in 2000 ended Milošević's rule, and he was brought to trial for his role in the bloodshed in the Balkans. In 2003, Serbia and Montenegro formed a republic. The new prime minister, Zoran Djindić, promised to crack down on organized crime and on those who had committed war crimes. Djindić was assassinated in March 2003. Police believed the gang supporters of Milošević played a role in the assassination.

12. Why did Serbia oppose the other republics' plans for independence?

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Chapter 28, Section 3

For use with textbook pages 884–888

EUROPE AND NORTH AMERICA

KEY TERMS

Thatcherism a term for the economic policy of British Prime Minister Margaret Thatcher (page 886)

budget deficit spending by a government that exceeds revenues (page 887)

DRAWING FROM EXPERIENCE

Do you or your family have a budget? What kinds of things do you include in your budget? What happens if you spend more than your budget had allowed?

In the last two sections, you read about changes in the Soviet Union and Eastern Europe after 1970. In this section, you will read about developments in Western Europe and North America during this time. Economic issues dominated politics during much of this period.

ORGANIZING YOUR THOUGHTS

Use the chart below to help you take notes. Indicate the effect of economic issues on politics in the countries in this chart.

| Effect of Economic Issues on Politics | |
|---------------------------------------|----|
| Canada | 1. |
| France | 2. |
| Germany | 3. |
| Great Britain | 4. |
| United States | 5. |

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 28, Section 3 (continued)

READ TO LEARN

• Winds of Change in Western Europe (page 884)

Between the early 1950s and late 1970s, Western Europe had nearly full employment. However, an economic downturn occurred in the mid-1970s and early 1980s. Inflation and unemployment rose dramatically. A dramatic increase in the price of oil after the Arab-Israeli conflict in 1973 was a major cause of the downturn. Western European economies recovered in the 1980s, but there were still problems.

The Western European nations moved toward a greater union of their economies after 1970. The European Economic Community (EEC) expanded in 1973 to include Great Britain, Ireland, and Denmark. By 1986, Spain, Portugal, and Greece had become members. Austria, Finland, and Sweden joined in 1995. The Treaty on European Union in 1994 turned the EEC into the principal organization of the new European Union (EU). One of the European Union's first goals was to establish a common European currency, the euro. Most of the EU nations gave up their currency in favor of the euro by January 1, 2002.

France's economic problems in the 1970s caused a shift to the left politically. By 1981, the Socialists had become the chief party in the National Assembly. The Socialist leader, François Mitterrand, was elected president. To help workers, Mitterrand implemented a higher minimum wage, a 39-hour work week, and higher taxes for the rich. The Socialist government also nationalized (took over) major banks, the steel industry, the space and electronics industries, and insurance firms. But most Socialist policies failed to work. In 1993, French unemployment was 10.6 percent. In the elections in March 1993, a coalition of conservative parties gained 80 percent of the seats in the National Assembly. In 1995, the conservative mayor of Paris, Jacques Chirac, was elected president.

In West Germany, the Social Democrats, a moderate socialist party, replaced the Christian Democrats as the leading party in 1969. The first Social Democratic chancellor was Willy Brandt. In December 1972, Brandt signed a treaty with East Germany that led to more cultural, personal, and economic contacts between West and East Germany. In 1982, the Christian Democratic Union of Helmut Kohl formed a new, more conservative government. When events in East Germany led to the reunification of the two Germanies in 1990, the new Germany became the leading power in Europe.

It soon became clear that rebuilding eastern Germany would take far more money than had originally been thought. Kohl's government was forced to raise taxes. The collapse of the economy in eastern Germany led to high levels of unemployment and discontent. One result was a return to power for the Social Democrats in 1998. Unemployment and economic problems caused tensions to grow between Germans and immigrant groups. Attacks against foreigners by right-wing extremists, especially young neo-Nazis, became part of German life.

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Chapter 28, Section 3 (continued)

Between 1964 and 1979, Great Britain’s Conservative Party and Labour Party alternated in power. One problem both parties had to face was intense fighting between Catholics and Protestants in Northern Ireland. There were also economic problems and frequent labor strikes. In 1979, the Conservatives came to power under Margaret Thatcher. Thatcher pledged to limit social welfare, restrict union power, and end inflation. Although she did not eliminate the basic parts of the welfare system, she did break the power of the unions and controlled inflation. **Thatcherism**, as her economic policy was called, improved the British economic situation overall. The south of England, for example, prospered. But old industrial areas in other parts of the country had high unemployment, poverty and even violence. In 1990, Thatcher’s government tried to replace local property taxes with a flat-rate tax for all adults. Antitax riots broke out. Thatcher’s popularity fell to an all-time low, and she resigned as prime minister. The Conservative Party was now led by John Major. In the elections of 1997, the Labour Party won a landslide victory. Tony Blair, a moderate, became prime minister.

6. What were some of the problems faced by Germany after reunification?

• The U.S. Domestic Scene (page 886)

With the election of Richard Nixon in 1968, politics in the United States shifted to the right. In his campaign for the presidency, Nixon used “law and order” issues and a slowdown in racial desegregation to appeal to southern whites. The South, which had been a stronghold for the Democrats, began to form a new allegiance to the Republican Party. As president, Nixon used illegal methods to gain political information about his opponents. This led to the Watergate scandal. A group of men working for Nixon’s reelection campaign broke into the Democratic National Headquarters in the Watergate Hotel in Washington, D.C. They were caught trying to install electronic listening devices. At first, Nixon lied about his involvement in the affair, but secret tapes of his own conversations in the White House revealed the truth. On August 9, 1974, Nixon resigned to avoid impeachment.

Vice President Gerald Ford became president when Nixon resigned. In the 1976 election, he lost to the former governor of Georgia, Jimmy Carter. By 1980, the Carter administration faced two serious problems. First, high rates of inflation and a decline in average weekly earnings were causing a drop in

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 28, Section 3 (continued)

American living standards. Second, 52 Americans were taken hostage by the Iranian government of the Ayatollah Khomeini. Carter was unable to gain the release of the hostages. The economic problems and the hostage situation contributed to Carter’s loss to Ronald Reagan in the election of 1980.

The Reagan Revolution, as it has been called, sent U.S. policy in new directions. Reagan cut back on the welfare state by decreasing spending on food stamps, school lunch programs, and job programs. At the same time, he oversaw the largest peacetime military buildup in U.S. history. The spending policies of the Reagan administration produced record budget deficits. A **budget deficit** exists when a government spends more than it collects in revenues. George Bush, Reagan’s vice president, succeeded him as president.

Economic problems enabled a Democrat, Bill Clinton, to defeat Bush in the presidential election in 1992. Clinton claimed to be a new kind of Democrat—one who favored a number of the Republican policies of the 1980s. An economic revival helped Clinton to be reelected. Much of his second term was overshadowed by charges of misconduct. The House of Representatives voted two articles of impeachment (formal charges of misconduct) against him. He was tried in the Senate and acquitted. Clinton’s problems helped the Republican candidate, George W. Bush, win a very close presidential election in 2000. President Bush directed much of his attention to fighting terrorism, stimulating the economy, and lowering unemployment.

7. Why did President Nixon resign?

• **Canada** (page 888)

During a major recession in the early 1960s, the Liberals came into power in Canada. The most prominent Liberal government was that of Pierre Trudeau, who became prime minister in 1968. Trudeau was French-Canadian, but he was dedicated to preserving a united Canada. His government passed the Official Languages Act, which allowed both English and French to be used in the federal civil service. Trudeau also supported a vigorous program of industrialization.

An economic recession in the early 1980s brought Brian Mulroney to power in 1984. Mulroney’s government tried to return some of Canada’s state-run corporations to private owners. In 1993, Canada approved the North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA) along with the United States and Mexico. The purpose of NAFTA was to make trade easier and more profitable

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 28, Section 3 *(continued)*

by establishing guidelines for cooperation between the countries. Many Canadians thought the agreement was too favorable to the United States. It cost Mulroney much of his popularity. In 1993, the Liberal party came to power with Jean Chrétien as prime minister.

Debate over Quebec continued throughout this period. The status of the French-speaking province has been an issue since the 1960s, when a new political party began to push for Quebec's secession from Canada. In 1995, voters in Quebec narrowly rejected the plan. Canada's Supreme Court ruled in 1998 that the Canadian government would have to grant independence to Quebec if Quebec voters supported it. The issue still divides Canadians.

8. What is NAFTA? Why were many Canadians opposed to it?

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Chapter 28, Section 4

For use with textbook pages 889–894

WESTERN SOCIETY AND CULTURE

KEY TERMS

pop art an art style beginning in the early 1960s that took images of popular culture and transformed them into works of fine art (page 892)

postmodernism a movement in the arts beginning in the 1980s that was marked by a revival of traditional elements and techniques (page 893)

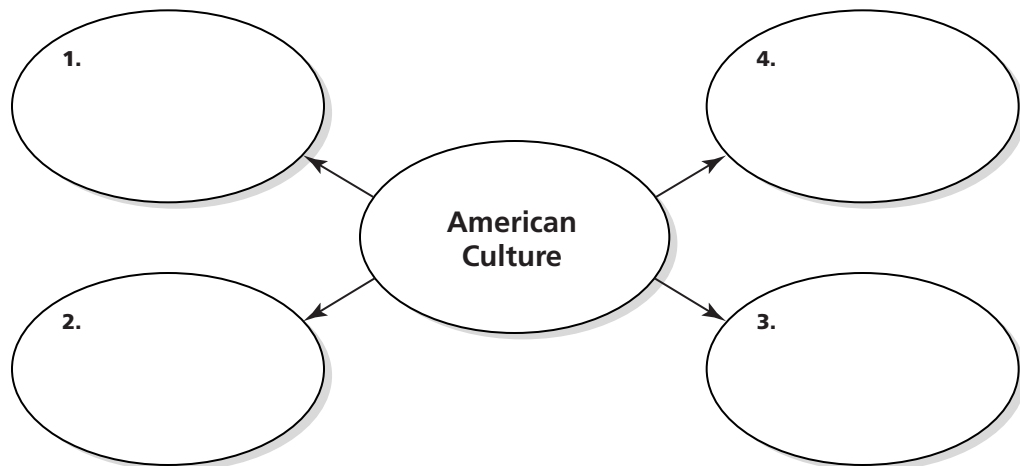
DRAWING FROM EXPERIENCE

Where were you when you heard about the attacks on the World Trade Center Towers? How did this event affect your life?

In the last section, you read about economic and political developments in Western Europe and North America in the late twentieth century. In this section, you will read about changes in Western society and culture during this time. The growth of terrorism has had a great impact on Western countries.

ORGANIZING YOUR THOUGHTS

Use the diagram below to help you take notes. American culture has increasingly influenced other parts of the world since the end of World War II. Indicate four ways that American culture has influenced other countries.



Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 28, Section 4 (continued)

READ TO LEARN

• **Changes in Women's Lives** (page 889)

Since 1970, more and more women have entered the workforce in Western countries. However, women continue to receive lower wages than men for the same work, and they have fewer opportunities to reach top positions. In the 1960s and 1970s, some women in the women's liberation movement began to believe that women themselves must make changes in their lives. Women formed "consciousness-raising groups" to make people aware of women's issues. During this time in the United States, the Equal Pay Act was passed. This law gave legal support to equal pay for equal work for women.

In the 1990s, there was a backlash against the women's movement. Some women wanted to return to traditional roles. Other women tried to redefine the term "feminism," as they struggled to balance career, family, and personal goals.

5. What law was passed in the United States in the 1960s and 1970s that gave support to equal rights for women?

• **The Growth of Terrorism** (page 890)

Acts of terrorism have become a part of modern society. Terrorists kill civilians, take hostages, and hijack airplanes to draw attention to their demands or to achieve their goals. Some terrorists are militant nationalists who wish to create separate states. One example is the Irish Republican Army (IRA). Its goal is to unite Northern Ireland, which is ruled by Great Britain, with the Irish Republic. Since the 1970s, IRA terrorists have been responsible for the deaths of thousands of people. State-sponsored terrorism is another form of terrorism. Some militant governments have provided support to terrorist organizations. Iraq, Syria, and North Korea are some examples.

One of the most destructive acts of terrorism occurred on September 11, 2001. Terrorists, directed by an organization called al-Qaeda, hijacked four commercial U.S. jets. They flew two of the airplanes into the World Trade Center towers in New York City. They flew the third airplane into the Pentagon near Washington, D.C. The fourth plane was diverted by heroic passengers and crashed in an isolated area of Pennsylvania. Thousands of people were killed, including all of the people aboard the airplanes.

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Chapter 28, Section 4 (continued)

The U.S. government gathered evidence that indicated that the acts had been carried out by al-Qaeda, the terrorist organization of Osama bin Laden. Bin Laden had inherited a fortune and used it to train terrorists in Afghanistan. U.S. President George W. Bush vowed to wage war on terrorism. The process began with military action against Afghanistan in October 2001. In 2002, the United Nations approved a resolution imposing new arms inspections in Iraq. In 2003, the United States, with support from a coalition of nations, declared that Iraq failed to meet the U.N. requirements, and war followed. Saddam Hussein was defeated.

6. What methods do terrorists use to draw attention to their demands?

• **Science and Technology** (page 891)

Scientific and technological achievements since World War II have revolutionized people's lives. During the war, many scientists had been recruited to develop new weapons. The most famous product of wartime research was the atomic bomb. After the war, wartime technology was adapted for peacetime uses. Computers and jet airplanes are two examples. By sponsoring projects, governments and the military created a new model for scientific research. Wartime projects were complex and required large teams of scientists and huge laboratories. After the war, the new scientific establishment continued to operate. The space program is one example. Massive government funding enabled the United States to land astronauts on the Moon in 1969.

In the 1960s and 1970s, people began to worry that technological advances were having side effects that were damaging to the environment. Chemical fertilizers, for example, helped farmers grow more abundant crops, but these fertilizers also destroyed the ecological balance of streams, rivers, and woodlands.

7. How has wartime research been adapted for peacetime use?

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Chapter 28, Section 4 (continued)

• Religious Revival (page 892)

Many people were concerned about a collapse in values during the twentieth century. The revival of religion was one response to that collapse. Religion continued to play an important role in the lives of many people. This was in spite of the attempts of the Communist world to build an atheistic society and the attempts of the West to build a secular society. Christian thinkers tried to breathe new life into traditional Christian teachings. Karl Barth is one example. To Barth, the imperfect nature of human beings meant that humans could not know religious truth through reason, but only through the grace of God.

In the Catholic Church, efforts for religious renewal came from two popes, John XXIII and John Paul II. Pope John XXIII started a revival when he summoned the twenty-first ecumenical council of the Catholic Church. Known as Vatican Council II, it liberalized several Catholic practices. For example, the mass could now be celebrated in vernacular languages as well as Latin. John Paul II was the first non-Italian pope since the sixteenth century. He alienated many people by supporting traditional Catholic teachings on birth control and a ban on women in the priesthood. But John Paul II reminded Catholics of the need to balance the pursuit of materialism with spiritual concerns.

8. What efforts for religious renewal have taken place in the Catholic Church?

• Trends in Art (page 892)

The United States has dominated the art world since the end of World War II. American art is often vibrantly colored and filled with activity. In this way, it reflected the energy of the postwar United States. After 1945, New York City became the artistic center of the Western world. Abstractionism was the most popular form of modern art after World War II. The enormous canvases of Jackson Pollock, for example, are filled with the vibrant energy of abstract expressionism. In the early 1960s, pop art emerged. **Pop art** took images of popular culture and transformed them into works of fine art. Andy Warhol was the most famous of the pop artists.

In the 1980s, styles emerged that have been called *postmodern*. **Postmodernism** is marked by a revival of traditional elements and techniques. These include not only traditional painting styles, but also traditional crafts. Weavers, potters, glassmakers, metalsmiths, and furniture makers have all gained respect

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Chapter 28, Section 4 (continued)

as postmodern artists. During the 1980s and 1990s, many artists experimented with technologies, such as digital cameras and computer programs, to create new art forms. These new art forms are often interactive and give the viewer the opportunity to influence the production of the artwork itself.

9. What new art forms and styles have emerged since the 1960s?

• Popular Culture (page 893)

The United States has been the most powerful force in shaping popular culture in the West and, to a lesser degree, the whole world. Through movies, television, and music, the United States has spread its ideals and values of material prosperity (“the American Dream”) around the world. Other countries often object to the influence of American culture. It has been called “cultural imperialism.”

American movies have dominated both European and American markets since the end of World War II. Television did not become available until the 1940s, but it spread quickly. By 1954, there were 32 million television sets in the United States. As television spread around the world in the 1960s, U.S. programs became popular in both European and non-Western countries.

The United States has also dominated popular music since the end of World War II. Jazz, blues, rhythm and blues, rock, and rap have been the most popular music forms in the Western world (and in much of the non-Western world) during this time. All of these music forms began in the United States, and all are rooted in African American musical traditions. American popular music inspired musicians in other countries, who then transformed music in their own way. For example, in the 1950s, American musicians such as Chuck Berry and Elvis Presley inspired the Beatles and other British musicians. The Beatles then led an “invasion” of the United States in the 1960s that inspired new American musicians. An increasing number of performers are moving beyond regional boundaries to develop international audiences. For example, in the late 1990s, Latin American artists became popular in non-Latin markets. The development of the video music channel MTV in the early 1980s has also changed the music scene, by making image as important as sound to the selling of records.

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Chapter 28, Section 4 (continued)

10. What is “cultural imperialism”?

• **Sports, Television, Politics** (page 894)

In the postwar years, sports became big business. Through television, sports were transformed into a worldwide experience. Many sports organizations began to receive most of their revenues from television contracts. The Olympics, for example, are now funded chiefly by American television. These funds come from advertising sponsors.

Sports have become big politics as well as big business. Soccer, for example, is a source of national pride in many countries. Unfortunately, this has sometimes led to violence. Another example of the mix of politics and sports is the Olympic Games. The Soviets used the Olympics to promote the Communist system. In 1972, at the Munich Games, a Palestinian terrorist group seized 11 Israeli athletes as hostages. All of the hostages were killed. The United States boycotted the 1980 Moscow Olympics, and the Soviets responded by refusing to participate in the Los Angeles Games in 1984.

11. What are some ways that sports and politics have been mixed?

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Chapter 29, Section 1

For use with textbook pages 901–905

GENERAL TRENDS IN LATIN AMERICA

KEY TERMS

multinational corporation a company with divisions in more than two countries (page 902)

magic realism a movement in Latin American literature in which realistic events are mixed with dreamlike or fantastic backgrounds (page 905)

DRAWING FROM EXPERIENCE

Have you ever bought anything that was grown or made in a Latin American country? If so, what?

In this section, you will learn about developments in Latin America since the end of World War II. Exporting raw materials and importing manufactured goods led to economic and political problems for many Latin American nations.

ORGANIZING YOUR THOUGHTS

Use the chart below to help you take notes. For each topic in the chart, describe its effect on the countries of Latin America.

| Effect on Latin American Countries of: | |
|--|----|
| Great Depression | 1. |
| multinational corporations | 2. |
| borrowing from foreign countries | 3. |
| debt crisis | 4. |
| population growth | 5. |
| Cold War | 6. |

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 29, Section 1 (continued)

READ TO LEARN

• Economic and Political Developments (page 901)

Since the nineteenth century, Latin Americans had exported raw materials and imported manufactured goods from industrialized countries. As a result of the Great Depression, exports declined, and the Latin American countries did not have the money they needed to buy imported goods. In response, many Latin American countries developed their own industries to produce goods that had been imported previously. By the 1960s, however, Latin American countries still had economic problems. They were dependent on the United States, Europe, and Japan for the technology needed for modern industries. Many Latin American countries also had problems finding markets for their manufactured goods.

In the 1960s, military governments in Chile, Brazil, and Argentina returned to export-import economies. These governments also encouraged **multinational corporations** (companies with divisions in more than two countries) to come to Latin America. Multinational corporations made these countries more dependent on industrialized nations. In the 1970s, Latin American nations became even more dependent as they tried to maintain their weak economies by borrowing money. By 1982, many Latin American economies had begun to crumble. Wages fell. Unemployment and inflation skyrocketed. To get new loans, Latin American governments were now forced to make basic reforms. During this process, many people began to believe that government had taken control of too many industries. Many people also believed that peasants should be encouraged to grow food for use within their country rather than for export. They hoped that this would stop the flow of people from the countryside to the cities.

With the debt crisis of the 1980s came a movement toward democracy. Some military leaders were unwilling to deal with the huge debt problems. Many people also began to realize that military power alone could not create a strong state. By the mid-1990s, several democratic governments had been created. But this revival of democracy was sometimes fragile. For example, in 1992, President Fujimori of Peru returned that country to an authoritarian system.

7. What is a multinational corporation?

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Chapter 29, Section 1 (continued)

• Latin American Society (page 904)

Latin America's economic problems were made worse by dramatic growth in population. By the mid-1980s, the population of Latin America had grown to 400 million. With the increase in population, there was an increase in the size of cities. By 2000, 50 Latin American cities had over a million people. Slums or shantytowns became part of many of these cities. The gap between the poor and the rich was still enormous in Latin America. Peasants and the urban poor struggled just to survive.

The international drug trade brought crime and corruption to some Latin American countries. This undermined their stability. Bolivia, Peru, and Colombia were especially big producers of cocaine and marijuana.

8. How has the international drug trade affected Latin American countries?

• The United States and Latin America (page 904)

The United States has always played a large role in Latin America. For years, the United States sent troops into Latin American countries to protect U.S. interests and to help dictators that were friendly to the United States. In 1948, the countries of the Western Hemisphere formed the Organization of American States (OAS). The OAS called for an end to military involvement by one state in the affairs of any other state. But the formation of the OAS did not end U.S. involvement in Latin American affairs. As the Cold War developed, the United States took action when it believed that Soviet agents were trying to establish Communist governments. The United States also provided huge amounts of military aid to anti-Communist governments.

9. What are some reasons that the United States has taken military action in Latin America?

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Chapter 29, Section 1 (continued)

- **Latin American Culture** (page 905)

Writers and artists in Latin America have a very high status. They are seen as people who can express the hopes of the people. In literature, Latin Americans developed a unique form of expression called **magic realism**. Magic realism brings together realistic events with dreamlike or fantastic backgrounds. Perhaps the foremost example of magic realism is *One Hundred Years of Solitude*, a novel by Gabriel García Márquez. Another important Latin American writer is the Chilean poet Gabriela Mistral. Both García Márquez and Mistral have been awarded the Nobel Prize for literature.

Latin American art and architecture were strongly influenced by international styles after World War II. In painting, abstract styles were especially important. Some of the best examples of modern architecture can be seen in Brasília, the capital city of Brazil. Latin America's greatest modern architect, Oscar Niemeyer, designed some of the major buildings in Brasília.

10. Why do writers and artists enjoy a high status in Latin America?

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Chapter 29, Section 2

For use with textbook pages 906–909

MEXICO, CUBA, AND CENTRAL AMERICA

KEY TERMS

privatization the sale of government-owned companies to private firms (page 907)

trade embargo prohibiting trade with a particular country (page 907)

contra a member of a group in Nicaragua opposed to the Sandinistas (page 909)

DRAWING FROM EXPERIENCE

How far is Cuba from the United States? What kind of relationship does our country have with Cuba? Have you ever bought any goods grown or made in Cuba? Why do you think this is so?

In the last section, you read about general trends in all of Latin America. In this section, you will read about economic and political crises in Mexico, Cuba, and Central America following World War II.

ORGANIZING YOUR THOUGHTS

Use the chart below to help you take notes. The United States has been involved in the affairs of many Latin American countries. Describe U.S. relations after World War II with the countries in this chart.

| U.S. Relations With: | |
|----------------------|----|
| Cuba | 1. |
| El Salvador | 2. |
| Nicaragua | 3. |
| Panama | 4. |

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 29, Section 2 (continued)

READ TO LEARN

- **The Mexican Way** (page 906)

The official political party of the Mexican Revolution was the Institutional Revolutionary Party (PRI). It came to dominate Mexico. Every six years, leaders of the PRI chose the party's presidential candidate, who was then elected by the people. During the 1950s and 1960s, economic growth led to real gains in wages for more and more people in Mexico. At the end of the 1960s, however, students began to protest the one-party system in Mexico. On October 2, 1968, university students gathered in Mexico City to protest government policies. Police forces opened fire and killed hundreds. People became concerned about the need for change. The next two presidents, Luís Echeverría and José López Portillo, made political reforms and opened the door to new political parties. Greater freedom of debate in the press and universities was allowed.

In the late 1970s, new reserves of oil were discovered in Mexico. The sale of oil abroad increased dramatically. The government became more dependent on oil revenues. When oil prices dropped in the mid-1980s, Mexico was no longer able to make payments on its foreign debt. The government was forced to adopt new economic policies. One of these policies was **privatization** (the sale of government-owned companies to private firms). The debt crisis and rising unemployment caused support for the PRI to drop. In 2000, Vicente Fox defeated the PRI candidate for the presidency.

5. What was the effect of the discovery of oil on the Mexican economy?

- **The Cuban Revolution** (page 907)

In the 1950s, a strong opposition movement arose in Cuba. The movement was led by Fidel Castro and overthrew the government of the dictator Fulgencio Batista in 1959. Many Cubans who disagreed with Castro fled to the United States. When Cuba began to receive aid and arms from the Soviet Union and Eastern Europe, relations with the United States deteriorated. In October 1960, the United States declared a **trade embargo** (prohibited trade) and broke all diplomatic relations with Cuba. In April 1961, the American president, John F. Kennedy, supported an attempt to overthrow Castro's government. When the invasion at the Bay of Pigs failed, the Soviets decided to make an even greater commitment to Cuba. In December 1961, Castro

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Chapter 29, Section 2 (continued)

declared that he was a Marxist. The Soviets began placing missiles in Cuba in 1962, which led to the Cuban missile crisis.

The Cuban missile crisis caused Castro to realize that the Soviet Union had been unreliable. Castro tried to start his own revolutionary movement in the rest of Latin America, but this failed. Castro’s Marxist government continued in Cuba, but with mixed results. The Cuban people did benefit in some ways. The government provided free medical services for all citizens. Illiteracy in Cuba was nearly eliminated.

The Cuban economy relied on the production and sale of sugar. Economic problems forced Castro’s government to depend on Soviet aid and the purchase of Cuban sugar by Soviet bloc countries. After the collapse of these Communist governments in 1989, Cuba lost their support. Economic conditions in Cuba have steadily declined, but Castro has managed to remain in power.

- How did the collapse of Communist governments in Eastern Europe affect Cuba?

- **Upheaval in Central America** (page 908)

Central America includes seven countries: Costa Rica, Nicaragua, Honduras, El Salvador, Panama, Belize and Guatemala. Central America has depended on the export of bananas, coffee, and cotton. Prices for these products have varied over time. This has created economic crises at different times. A huge gulf between the wealthy elite and poor peasants in these countries has also created a climate of instability. Fear of communism has often led the United States to support repressive regimes in this area.

In El Salvador, the wealthy elite and the military controlled the government after World War II. In the late 1970s and the 1980s, El Salvador was torn apart by a bloody civil war. Marxist-led guerrillas and right-wing groups fought one another. During the presidency of Ronald Reagan, the United States provided weapons and training to the Salvadoran army to defeat the guerrillas. In 1984, José Duarte, a moderate, was elected president. But the elections did not stop the killing. By the early 1990s, the civil war had led to the deaths of at least 75,000 people. In 1992, a peace settlement finally brought the war to an end.

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Chapter 29, Section 2 (continued)

In Nicaragua, the Somoza family took control of the government in 1937 and kept control for the next 42 years. The Somoza government had the support of the United States during most of this time. But the Somozas got rich at the nation's expense and used murder and torture against their opponents. By 1979, the United States was no longer willing to support the Somoza government. In that year, Marxist guerrilla forces, known as the Sandinista National Liberation Front, won a number of victories against the government forces. They gained control of the country. Soon, a group called the **contras**, who were opposed to the Sandinistas' policies, began to try to overthrow the new government. The Reagan and Bush administrations in the United States supported the contras, because they were worried about the Sandinistas' ties with the Soviet Union. The war with the contras caused the Sandinistas to lose support. In 1990, the Sandinistas agreed to free elections. They lost to a coalition headed by Violeta Barrios de Chamorro. They lost again in 2001 but remained one of the strongest parties in Nicaragua.

Panama became a nation in 1903, when it broke away from Colombia with the help of the United States. In return for this help, the United States was able to build the Panama Canal. The United States also had a great deal of influence over the government and economy of Panama. After 1968, power in Panama came into the hands of the military leaders of Panama's National Guard. One of these leaders, Manuel Noriega, took control of Panama in 1983. At first, the United States supported Noriega. But his brutality and involvement with the drug trade turned American leaders against him. In 1989, President George Bush sent U.S. troops to Panama. Noriega was arrested and sent to prison in the United States on charges of drug trafficking. In 1999, Panama took control of the canal in accordance with a 1977 treaty with the United States.

7. What are the main export products of Central America? How has the export of these products affected the Central American economies?

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Chapter 29, Section 3

For use with textbook pages 911–914

THE NATIONS OF SOUTH AMERICA

KEY TERMS

cooperative a farm organization owned by and operated for the peasants' benefit (page 913)

Shining Path a radical guerrilla group in Peru whose goal was to smash all authority and create a classless society (page 913)

DRAWING FROM EXPERIENCE

Have you ever seen the musical or movie *Evita*? Who was Evita? Why do you think a musical was written about her?

In the last section, you read about economic and political crises in Mexico, Cuba, and Central America following World War II. In this section, you will read about economic, political, and social problems in South America during the same period.

ORGANIZING YOUR THOUGHTS

Use the chart below to help you take notes. The military has played an important role in many South American countries. Describe the role of the military in each of the countries in this chart.

| Role of the Military in: | |
|--------------------------|----|
| Argentina | 1. |
| Brazil | 2. |
| Chile | 3. |
| Peru | 4. |

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 29, Section 3 *(continued)*

READ TO LEARN

- **Argentina** *(page 911)*

Argentina is Latin America’s second largest country. For years, it had been ruled by a powerful oligarchy. In 1943, a group of army officials overthrew the oligarchy. Juan Perón, the labor secretary of the new military government, tried to win the support of the workers. He encouraged them to join labor unions. He also increased job benefits and the number of paid vacations and holidays. In 1944, Perón became vice president of the military government. He made sure that people knew that he was responsible for the better conditions for workers. Perón was elected president of Argentina in 1946. His main support came from labor and the urban middle class. To please them, he followed a policy of increased industrialization. He also tried to free Argentina from foreign investors. The government bought the railways and took over the banking, insurance, shipping, and communications industries. Perón’s regime was authoritarian. He created Fascist gangs modeled after Hitler’s Brownshirts. The gangs used violence to terrify Perón’s opponents. Fearing Perón’s power, the military overthrew him in September 1955. Perón went into exile in Spain. The military leaders were soon overwhelmed by problems and allowed Perón to return. He was reelected as president in 1973 but died a year later.

In 1976, the military once again took control. The new regime allowed no opposition. Perhaps 36,000 people were killed. At the same time, there were serious economic problems. To divert people’s attention, the military government invaded the Falkland Islands in April 1982. The Falklands were islands off the coast of Argentina that Great Britain had controlled since the nineteenth century. Great Britain sent ships and troops and took the islands back. The loss made the military look bad. In 1983, Raúl Alfonsín was elected president and worked to restore democratic practices. In 1989, the Perónist Carlos Saúl Menem won the presidential election. This peaceful transfer of power made many people hope that Argentina was moving on a democratic path.

5. Who were Perón’s main supporters? How did he gain their support?

- **Brazil** *(page 912)*

Like other Latin American countries, Brazil experienced severe economic problems after World War II. When democratic governments were unable to solve these problems, the military stepped in and took control in 1964. The military remained in control for the next 20 years. It set a new economic direction. It reduced government interference in the economy and stressed free market forces. Beginning in 1968, Brazil experienced an “economic miracle.”

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Chapter 29, Section 3 (continued)

Its economy grew spectacularly. But ordinary Brazilians benefited very little from this economic growth. The gulf between rich and poor grew even wider.

Rapid development led to an inflation rate of 100 percent a year. The military government was overwhelmed, and democracy returned in 1985. The new democratic government faced enormous problems. Brazil had a huge foreign debt, severe inflation, and a lack of social unity. In the 1990s, a series of democratically elected presidents restored some stability to Brazil's economy. Dissatisfaction with the gap between rich and poor helped to elect Luiz Inacio Lula da Silva, a left-wing president, in 2002.

6. In what ways did Brazil experience an "economic miracle"? In what ways was it not a miracle?

- **Chile** (page 913)

In 1970, Salvador Allende, a Marxist, became president of Chile. He tried to create a socialist society by constitutional means. He increased the wages of industrial workers and nationalized the largest corporations. In March 1973, new elections increased the number of Allende's supporters in the Chilean congress. The Chilean army, under the direction of General Augusto Pinochet, was afraid of Allende's power. In September 1973, military forces seized the presidential palace, resulting in Allende's death. The military then set up a dictatorship.

The Pinochet dictatorship was one of the most brutal in Chile's history. Thousands of opponents were imprisoned. Others were tortured and murdered. The regime also outlawed all political parties and did away with the congress. The abuses of human rights led to unrest in the 1980s. In 1989, free presidential elections led to the defeat of Pinochet. Chile moved toward a more democratic system.

7. What were some characteristics of Pinochet's regime?

- **Peru** (page 913)

The history of Peru has been marked by instability. Peru's dependence on exports has led to extreme ups and downs in the economy. With these ups and downs have come many changes in the government. A military takeover in 1968 brought General Juan Velasco Alvarado to power. He tried to help the peasants. His government took almost 75 percent of the nation's large landed

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Chapter 29, Section 3 (continued)

estates and gave the land to peasant **cooperatives** (farm organizations owned by and operated for the benefit of the peasants). The government also nationalized many foreign-owned companies and kept food prices low to help urban workers. Economic problems continued, and military leaders removed General Alvarado from power in 1975.

Five years later, the military returned Peru to civilian rule. There were new problems for the civilian government. A radical Communist guerrilla group based in rural areas and known as **Shining Path** emerged. It killed mayors, missionaries, priests, and peasants. The goal of Shining Path was to smash all authority and create a classless society. In 1990, Peruvians chose Alberto Fujimori as president. Fujimori promised reforms. Two years later, he suspended the constitution and congress and became a dictator. He began a campaign against Shining Path. He was removed from power in 2000. In June 2001, Alejandro Toledo became the first freely elected president of Native American descent.

8. How has Peru's dependence on exports affected its economy and government?

- **Colombia** (page 914)

Colombia has had a democratic political system for a long time, but a conservative elite has dominated the government. After World War II, Marxist guerrilla groups began to organize Colombian peasants. The government responded with violence. More than two hundred thousand peasants had been killed by the mid-1960s. Peasants who lived in poverty turned to a new cash crop—coca leaves. Coca leaves are used to make cocaine. The drug trade increased. Drug lords formed cartels (groups of drug businesses). The cartels used bribes and violence to eliminate competitors and to force government cooperation. Attempts to stop the traffic in drugs had little success. The government has begun an aerial eradication program, but Colombia still supplies the majority of cocaine to the international drug market.

Colombia continues to have major economic problems. Unemployment is high (around 20 percent in 2000). Colombia's main exports, coffee and oil, often fluctuate in price, which leads to ups and downs in the economy.

9. How did the drug trade begin in Colombia? What has the government done to try to stop it?

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Chapter 30, Section 1

For use with textbook pages 921–927

INDEPENDENCE IN AFRICA

KEY TERMS

apartheid (“apartness”) a system of racial segregation in South Africa (page 922)

Pan-Africanism the unity of all black Africans, regardless of national boundaries (page 923)

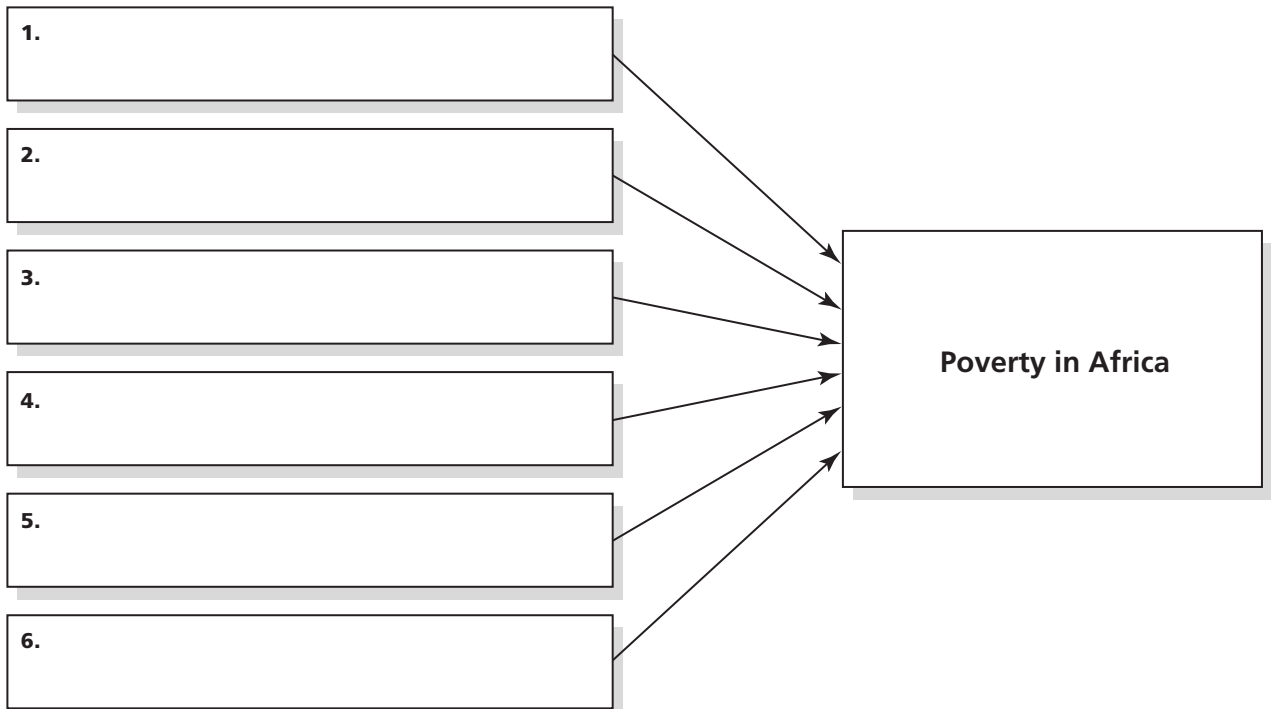
DRAWING FROM EXPERIENCE

Have you read any poems by Africans? Have you seen any African art-work? Have you listened to any African music? What do these art forms tell you about African culture?

In this section, you will learn about political, economic, social, and cultural developments in Africa following World War II. Most African nations achieved their independence during this period.

ORGANIZING YOUR THOUGHTS

Use the diagram below to help you take notes. Poverty is widespread in much of Africa. Identify six problems in Africa that account for much of its poverty.



Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 30, Section 1 (continued)

READ TO LEARN

• The Transition to Independence (page 921)

After World War II, Europeans realized that colonial rule would have to end. Great Britain and France both decided to let go of their colonial empires. In the 1950s and 1960s, most black African nations gained their independence. In 1957, the Gold Coast was the first former British colony to gain independence. It was renamed Ghana. Nigeria, the Belgian Congo (renamed Zaire), Kenya, and others followed. Seventeen new African nations emerged in 1960. Another 11 nations followed between 1961 and 1965. After a series of guerrilla wars, the Portuguese finally gave up their colonies of Mozambique and Angola in the 1970s. In North Africa, the French gave Morocco and Tunisia their independence in 1956. The French chose to keep control of Algeria, but independence was finally granted in 1962.

In South Africa, the situation was more complicated. By the 1950s, South African whites that were descendants of the Dutch (called Afrikaners) had laws separating whites and blacks. The result was a system of racial segregation known as **apartheid** (“apartness”). Blacks had formed the African National Congress (ANC) in 1912. Its goal was economic and political reform, but it had little success. Blacks demonstrated against the apartheid laws, but the white government brutally repressed the demonstrators. After the arrest of ANC leader Nelson Mandela in 1962, members of the ANC called for armed resistance to the white government.

7. What was apartheid?

• The New Nations (page 923)

Most of the leaders of the newly independent African nations came from the urban middle class. They had studied in either Europe or the United States. They spoke and read European languages and believed in democracy. The views of these leaders on economics were more diverse. Some believed in Western-style capitalism. Others wanted an “African form of socialism.” The African form of socialism was based on African traditions of community. Ownership of the country’s wealth would be put in the hands of the people. Some African leaders believed in the dream of **Pan-Africanism** (the unity of all black Africans, regardless of national boundaries). Pan-Africanism was

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Chapter 30, Section 1 (continued)

supported by several of the new African leaders, including Léopold Senghor of Senegal, Kwame Nkrumah of Ghana, and Jomo Kenyatta of Kenya. The Organization of African Unity (OAU) was a result of the belief in Pan-Africanism. It was founded in 1963 by the leaders of 32 African nations. In 2002, the African Union (AU) replaced the OAU. The new 53-nation group aims to promote democracy and economic growth in the region.

Independence did not bring economic prosperity to the new African nations. Most of the countries still relied on the export of a single crop or natural resource. When prices for these exports dropped, their economies suffered. Most African nations also had to import technology and manufactured goods from the West. The new nations sometimes created their own problems. Natural resources were spent on military equipment or expensive consumer goods rather than on building the foundations for an industrial economy. Corruption and bribery became common. Population growth also kept many countries from creating modern economies. Drought conditions led to widespread hunger and starvation. Millions fled to neighboring countries in search of food. In recent years, the spread of acquired immunodeficiency syndrome (AIDS) in Africa has reached epidemic proportions. According to one estimate, more than 29 million people in sub-Saharan Africa are infected with the AIDS virus. As a result of all these problems, poverty is widespread in Africa. Cities have grown tremendously. They are often surrounded by slums populated by people who came to the cities looking for work. Millions live without water and electricity in their homes. At the same time, a few people enjoy lavish lifestyles. The rich in many East African countries are known as the *wabenzi* (Mercedes-Benz people).

Many people had hoped that independence would lead to stable political systems based on “one person, one vote.” They were soon disappointed. Democratic governments gave way to military regimes and one-party states. Between 1957 and 1982, over 70 leaders of African countries were overthrown by violence. Within many African nations, there were warring ethnic groups. The concept of nationhood was not strong. This was the result of the way that the countries were formed. The boundaries of many African countries had been drawn arbitrarily by colonial powers. Nearly all of these countries included different ethnic, linguistic, and territorial groups. During the late 1960s, civil war tore Nigeria apart. Northerners began to kill the Ibo people, who fled to their home region in the eastern part of Nigeria. The Ibo declared the eastern region of Nigeria an independent state called Biafra. After two and a half years of bloody civil war, Biafra finally surrendered and accepted the authority of the Nigerian government. In central Africa, fighting between the Hutu and Tutsi created unstable governments in both Burundi and Rwanda. In 1994, a Hutu rampage left five hundred thousand Tutsi dead in Rwanda.

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Chapter 30, Section 1 (continued)

8. What two economic systems have African leaders advocated?

• **New Hopes** (page 925)

In recent years, demonstrations have led to the rise of democracies in several countries. In Uganda, for example, Idi Amin had ruled by terror and repression throughout the 1970s, but he was deposed in 1979. Dictatorships also came to an end in Ethiopia, Liberia, and Somalia. In these cases, however, the fall of the dictatorships was followed by civil war.

One of the most remarkable events in recent African history was the election of Nelson Mandela to the presidency of the Republic of South Africa. Mandela had been sentenced to life imprisonment in 1962 for his activities with the ANC. He spent almost 26 years in prison. Bishop Desmond Tutu and others worked to free him and to end apartheid in South Africa. Worldwide pressure on the white South African government led to reforms and the end of apartheid laws. In 1990, Mandela was released from prison. In 1993, the government agreed to hold democratic elections. In 1994, Nelson Mandela became South Africa's first black president.

9. What factors contributed to the release of Nelson Mandela and the end of apartheid laws in South Africa?

• **Society and Culture in Modern Africa** (page 926)

Africa is a study in contrasts. Old and new, native and foreign live side by side. There is a constant tension between traditional ways and Western culture. Most African cities look like cities elsewhere in the world. They have high-rise apartments, neon lights, movie theaters, and traffic jams. Outside the major cities, where about three-quarters of the people of Africa live, modern influence has had less of an impact. Millions of people live much as their

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Chapter 30, Section 1 *(continued)*

ancestors did, in thatched dwellings without modern plumbing and electricity. They farm, hunt, or raise livestock by traditional methods. They also wear traditional clothing and practice traditional beliefs. Many urban people see rural people as backward. Rural people see the cities as corrupting and destructive to traditional African values and customs.

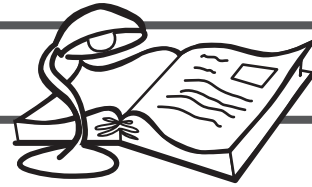
Independence from colonial powers had an impact on women's roles in Africa. Women were allowed to vote and run for political office. Women dominate some professions, such as teaching, child care, and clerical work, but they do not have the range of career opportunities that men do. Most African women are employed in low-paid positions. In many rural areas, traditional attitudes toward women, including arranged marriages, still prevail.

Africans have kept their native artistic traditions while adapting them to foreign influences. A dilemma for many African artists is the need to balance Western techniques and training with the rich heritage of traditional African art forms. In some countries, governments make the artists' decisions for them. Artists are told to depict scenes of traditional African life. These works are designed to serve the tourist industry.

African writers have often addressed the tensions and dilemmas that modern Africans face. The conflicting demands of town versus country and native versus foreign were the themes of most of the best-known works of the 1960s and 1970s. For example, the novels of Chinua Achebe show the problems of Africans caught up in the conflict between traditional and Western values.

10. How do most of the people of Africa live?

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Chapter 30, Section 2

For use with textbook pages 929–934

CONFLICT IN THE MIDDLE EAST

KEY TERMS

Pan-Arabism Arab unity (page 931)

intifada (“uprising”) a movement among PLO supporters living inside Israel (page 932)

DRAWING FROM EXPERIENCE

Have you ever looked at a world map to find the Middle East? The Middle Eastern countries are located on two continents. What are the two continents? Why do geographers classify countries from two different continents into the same region (the Middle East)? What do these countries have in common?

In the last section, you read about developments in Africa following World War II. In this section, you will read about developments in the Middle East during this time. There have been many armed conflicts in this region.

ORGANIZING YOUR THOUGHTS

Use the chart below to help you take notes. Identify the causes and outcomes of each conflict in this chart.

| Middle East Conflict | Causes | Outcomes |
|--------------------------|--------|----------|
| Suez War of 1956 | 1. | 2. |
| Six-Day War of 1967 | 3. | 4. |
| Arab-Israeli War of 1973 | 5. | 6. |
| Iraq-Iran War (1980s) | 7. | 8. |
| Persian Gulf War | 9. | 10. |

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Chapter 30, Section 2 (continued)

READ TO LEARN

- **The Question of Palestine** (page 929)

In the Middle East, World War II led to the emergence of new independent states. Syria and Lebanon gained their independence near the end of World War II. Jordan achieved self-rule soon after the war. These new states were predominantly Muslim.

In the years between the two world wars, many Jews had immigrated to Palestine. Tensions between Jews and Arabs had increased during the 1930s. Great Britain governed Palestine under a United Nations mandate. It had limited Jewish immigration into the area and had rejected proposals for an independent Jewish state in Palestine. As a result of the Holocaust, sympathy for the Jewish cause grew following World War II. In 1948, a United Nations resolution divided Palestine into a Jewish state and an Arab state. The Jews in Palestine proclaimed the state of Israel on May 14, 1948. Israel's Arab neighbors saw the new state as a betrayal of the Palestinian people, most of whom were Muslim. Several Arab countries invaded Israel. The invasion failed, but the Arab states still refused to recognize Israel's right to exist. As a result of the division of Palestine, hundreds of thousands of Palestinians fled to neighboring Arab countries. Other Palestinians came under Israeli rule.

11. How did the Holocaust influence events in the Middle East?

- **Nasser and Pan-Arabism** (page 930)

In the early 1950s, Colonel Gamal Abdel Nasser took control of the Egyptian government. On July 26, 1956, Nasser seized the Suez Canal Company, which had been under British and French control. Great Britain and France decided to strike back. Israel quickly joined them. The three nations launched an attack on Egypt. This started the Suez War of 1956. The United States and the Soviet Union supported Nasser and forced Britain, France, and Israel to withdraw their troops from Egypt.

Nasser emerged from the conflict as a powerful leader. He now began to promote **Pan-Arabism** (Arab unity). In February 1958, Egypt united with Syria to form the United Arab Republic (UAR). Nasser was named the first president of this new state. Egypt and Syria hoped that the union would eventually include all Arab states. But many other Arab leaders were suspicious of Pan-Arabism. Oil-rich Arab states were concerned that they would have to share revenues with poorer states in the Middle East. In 1961, military leaders took over Syria and withdrew the country from its union with Egypt.

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Chapter 30, Section 2 (continued)

12. What is Pan-Arabism? Why were some Arab leaders suspicious of it?

• **The Arab-Israeli Dispute** (page 931)

During the late 1950s and 1960s, the dispute between Israel and other states in the Middle East became more heated. In 1967, Nasser imposed a blockade against Israeli shipping through the Gulf of Aqaba. He also said that he was ready to confront Israel. Fearing attack, Israel launched air strikes against Egypt and several of its Arab neighbors on June 5, 1967. Israeli planes wiped out most of the Egyptian air force. Israeli armies broke the blockade and occupied the Sinai Peninsula. Israel also seized territory on the West Bank of the Jordan River, occupied Jerusalem, and took control of the Golan Heights. During this Six-Day War, Israel tripled the size of its territory. Over the next few years, Arab states demanded the return of the occupied territories. Nasser died in 1970 and was succeeded by Anwar el-Sadat. In 1973, Arab forces led by Sadat launched a new attack against Israel. This conflict ended in 1974 by a cease-fire agreement negotiated by the UN.

The war was having indirect effects in Western nations. A number of Arab oil-producing states had formed the Organization of Petroleum Exporting Countries (OPEC) in 1960 to gain control over oil prices. During the 1973 war, some OPEC nations announced large increases in the price of oil to foreign countries. The price hikes and cuts in oil production led to oil shortages in the United States and Europe. In 1977, U.S. president Jimmy Carter began to push for a peace agreement between Arabs and Israelis. In September 1978, Carter met with President Sadat of Egypt and Israeli Prime Minister Menachem Begin at Camp David. The result was the Camp David Accords, an agreement to sign an Israeli-Egyptian peace treaty. Sadat and Begin signed the treaty in March 1979. It ended the war between Egypt and Israel.

13. Why did the United States become involved in the Arab-Israeli conflict? What was the result?

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Chapter 30, Section 2 (continued)

• The PLO and the *Intifada* (page 932)

In 1964, the Egyptians took the lead in forming the Palestine Liberation Organization (PLO) to represent the interests of the Palestinians. The PLO believed that only the Palestinian peoples had the right to create a state in Palestine. A guerrilla movement called al-Fatah began to launch terrorist attacks on Israeli territory. The PLO leader Yasir Arafat headed it. Militancy in the early 1980s led to a movement called the *intifada* (“uprising”) among PLO supporters living in the territories occupied by Israel since the 1967 Arab-Israeli war.

Finally, in 1993, Israel and the PLO reached an agreement calling for Palestinian autonomy in certain areas of Israel. In return, the PLO recognized the Israeli state. Yasir Arafat became the head of the semi-independent area known as the Palestinian Authority. Little progress was made toward Palestinian statehood, but in 2003 the Israeli cabinet accepted the principle of a Palestinian state.

14. What is the PLO? What agreement did it reach with Israel in 1993?

• Revolution in Iran (page 932)

The leadership of Shah Mohammad Reza Pahlavi and revenue from oil helped Iran to become a rich country. But there was much opposition to the shah in Iran. Millions of devout Muslims looked with distaste at the new Iranian civilization. In their eyes, it was based on greed and materialism, which they identified with American influence. Leading the opposition to the shah was the Ayatollah Ruhollah Khomeini, a member of the Muslim clergy. In 1979, the shah’s government collapsed and was replaced by an Islamic republic. The new government, led by Ayatollah Khomeini, began to restore Islamic law. Anti-American sentiments led to the taking of 52 American hostages from the United States embassy in Tehran. After the death of Khomeini in 1989, a new government under President Hashemi Rafsanjani began to loosen control over personal expression and social activities. But a new wave of government repression began in the mid-1990s.

15. Why did many Muslims in Iran oppose the shah?

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Chapter 30, Section 2 (continued)

- **Iraq’s Aggression** (page 933)

Iraq and Iran have had a poor relationship for a long time. Both are Muslim nations, but the Iranians are mainly Shiites, while most Iraqi leaders are Sunnis. Iran and Iraq have also had disputes over territory, especially the Strait of Hormuz, which connects the Persian Gulf and the Gulf of Oman. In 1980, President Saddam Hussein of Iraq launched a brutal attack on Iran. A ceasefire was finally arranged in 1988.

In 1990, Iraqi troops occupied the small neighboring country of Kuwait. This sparked what has been called the Persian Gulf War. The United States led an international force that freed Kuwait and destroyed a large part of Iraq’s armed forces. The allies hoped that a revolt within Iraq would overthrow Hussein, but he remained in power. In 2003, the United States and its allies toppled Hussein’s regime because they feared Iraq had weapons of mass destruction.

16. Why do Iraq and Iran have a poor relationship?

- **Afghanistan and the Taliban** (page 933)

After World War II, the king of Afghanistan developed close ties with the Soviet Union, in order to gain economic assistance for his country. After the king was overthrown, new leaders attempted to create a Communist government, but groups wanting to create an Islamic state opposed them. The Soviets then launched a full-scale invasion of Afghanistan in 1979, installing Babrak Karmal as prime minister. The Soviets occupied Afghanistan for 10 years but were forced to withdraw by anti-Communist forces supported by the United States and Pakistan. Various Islamic groups began to fight for control. One of these, the Taliban, seized Kabul, the capital, in 1996. By the fall of 1998, the Taliban controlled more than two-thirds of the country.

The Taliban was condemned for its human rights abuses and harsh social policies. It was also suspected of sheltering Osama bin Laden and his al-Qaeda organization. In 1990 and 2000, the United Nations Security Council demanded that the Taliban hand over bin Laden for trial, but it refused. In 2001, the Taliban was driven out of Kabul by rebel forces and American bombers.

17. What is the Taliban? Why has it been condemned?

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Chapter 30, Section 2 (continued)

• Society and Culture (page 933)

In recent years, conservative religious forces have tried to replace foreign culture and values with Islamic beliefs and behavior. This movement is called Islamic revivalism or Islamic activism. For most Muslims, the Islamic revival is a reassertion of cultural identity, religious observance, family values, and morality. In the eyes of some Islamic leaders, Western values and culture are based on materialism, greed, and immorality. The goal of Muslim extremists is to remove all Western influence in Muslim countries. The movement to return to the pure ideals of Islam began in Iran, under the Ayatollah Khomeini. In revolutionary Iran, the return to traditional Muslim beliefs affected clothing styles, social practices, and the legal system. In Egypt, militant Muslims assassinated President Sadat in 1981. The extreme and militant movements in Islam have received much media exposure, giving many people an unfavorable impression of Islam.

At the beginning of the twentieth century, women's place in Middle Eastern society had changed little for hundreds of years. In the nineteenth and twentieth centuries, many Muslim scholars argued for the need to rethink outdated practices that prevented women from realizing their potential. Until the 1970s, there was a general trend in urban areas toward a greater role for women. Beginning in the 1970s, however, there was a shift back toward more traditional roles for women. This trend was especially noticeable in Iran.

The literature and art of the Middle East since 1945 has reflected a rise in national awareness. This encouraged an interest in historical traditions. Literature is no longer reserved for the elite but is increasingly written for broader audiences. The most famous contemporary Egyptian writer is Naguib Mahfouz. He was the first writer in Arabic to win the Nobel Prize for literature. Middle Eastern artists tended to imitate Western models at first. Later, they began to experiment with national styles and returned to earlier forms for inspiration.

18. What is Islamic revivalism?

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Chapter 31, Section 1

For use with textbook pages 941–946

COMMUNIST CHINA

KEY TERMS

commune a vast collective farm in China that contained more than thirty thousand people who lived and worked together (page 942)

permanent revolution an atmosphere of constant revolutionary fervor (page 942)

per capita per person (page 943)

DRAWING FROM EXPERIENCE

Do you have any relatives who fought in the Korean War? What caused the war between North and South Korea?

In this section, you will learn how the Communist Party came to power in China and the effects that communism has had on China. You will also learn how Cold War tensions led to the Korean War.

ORGANIZING YOUR THOUGHTS

Use the chart below to help you take notes. Describe the Communist programs in this chart and list the outcomes of these programs.

| Communist Program | Description | Outcomes |
|---------------------|-------------|----------|
| collectivization | 1. | 2. |
| Great Leap Forward | 3. | 4. |
| Cultural Revolution | 5. | 6. |
| Four Modernizations | 7. | 8. |

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 31, Section 1 (continued)

READ TO LEARN

- **Civil War and the Great Leap Forward** (page 941)

By 1945, there were two Chinese governments. The Nationalist government of Chiang Kai-shek was based in southern and central China. The United States supported it. The Communist government under Mao Zedong was based in North China. In 1945, war broke out between the Nationalists and the Communists. Many peasants joined Mao’s People’s Liberation Army. By the spring of 1949, the People’s Liberation Army had defeated the Nationalists. Chiang Kai-shek and his followers fled to the island of Taiwan.

The Communist Party now ruled China (called the People’s Republic of China). In 1955, the Chinese government began a program to build a socialist society. Lands were taken from wealthy landlords and given to poor peasants. About two-thirds of the peasants received land under the new program. Most industry and commerce was nationalized. Most of the farmland was collectivized. Chinese leaders hoped that collective farms would increase food production. They hoped that this would allow more people to work in industry. But food production did not grow.

To speed up economic growth, Mao began a radical program, known as the Great Leap Forward, in 1958. Collective farms were combined into vast **communes**. Each commune contained more than thirty thousand people who lived and worked together. The Great Leap Forward was a disaster. The peasants hated the new system. Bad weather and the peasants’ hatred made food production decline. As a result, almost fifteen million people died of starvation. In 1960, the government began to break up the communes and returned to collective farms and some private plots.

9. What two governments existed in China in 1945? Who were their leaders, and where were they located?

- **The Great Proletarian Cultural Revolution** (page 942)

In spite of the commune failure, Mao still dreamed of the final stage of communism—a classless society. Mao believed that only **permanent revolution** (an atmosphere of constant revolutionary fervor) would make it possible for the Chinese to overcome the past and reach this final stage. In 1966, Mao launched the Great Proletarian Cultural Revolution. (“Proletarian” means the

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Chapter 31, Section 1 (continued)

working class.) A collection of Mao’s thoughts, called the *Little Red Book*, was considered the most important source of knowledge in all areas.

To promote the Cultural Revolution, the Red Guards were formed. These were revolutionary groups that were made up primarily of young people. Red Guards were sent throughout the country to eliminate the “Four Olds”—old ideas, old culture, old customs, and old habits. The Red Guard destroyed temples, books written by foreigners, and foreign music. People who had not followed Mao’s plan were attacked. Intellectuals and artists accused of being pro-Western were especially open to attack. But there were groups within the country that did not share Mao’s desire for permanent revolution. Many people were upset by the Red Guards’ attacks and began to turn against the movement.

10. What was considered the most important source of knowledge during the Cultural Revolution?

• China After Mao (page 943)

In 1976, Mao Zedong died at the age of 82. A group of practical reformers seized power and brought the Cultural Revolution to an end. Deng Xiaoping led them. Under Deng, the government followed a policy called the Four Modernizations. This policy focused on four areas—industry, agriculture, technology, and national defense. China needed to catch up with the technological advances that had been taking place in the rest of the world. The government invited foreign investors to China. Thousands of students were sent to other countries to study science, technology, and modern business techniques. A new agricultural policy was also begun. Collective farms could now lease land to peasant families who paid rent to the collective. Anything produced on the land above the amount of the rent could be sold on the private market. Overall, modernization worked. Industrial output skyrocketed. **Per capita** (per person) income doubled during the 1980s. The standard of living increased for most people.

As more Chinese people began to study abroad, more information about Western society reached educated people. But the new leaders did not allow criticism of the Communist Party. People who called for democracy were often sent to prison. In the late 1980s, high inflation led to discontent, especially in the cities. Corruption and special treatment for officials also led to

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Chapter 31, Section 1 *(continued)*

criticism of the government. In May 1989, students protested the corruption and demanded the resignation of China’s Communist party leaders. Many people in the cities supported the students. They led mass demonstrations in Tiananmen Square in Beijing. Deng Xiaoping saw the students’ desire for democracy as a demand for the end of the Communist Party. He ordered tanks and troops into Tiananmen Square to crush the demonstrators.

Throughout the 1990s, China’s human rights violations and its determination to unify with Taiwan strained its relationship with the West. China’s increasing military power has also caused concern in other countries. However, in 2002 the United States and China normalized trade relations, and China joined the World Trade Organization.

11. How were calls for democracy treated under Deng Xiaoping?

- **Chinese Society Under Communism** *(page 944)*

The Chinese Communist Party wanted to create a new kind of citizen. These new citizens would be expected to contribute their utmost for the good of all. Women’s roles were changed. Women were now allowed to take part in politics. In 1950, a new marriage law guaranteed women equal rights with men. The Communists also tried to destroy the influence of the traditional family. Loyalty to the family had always been an important part of the Confucian social order. The Communists thought that loyalty to family undermined loyalty to the state. During the Great Leap Forward, children were encouraged to spy on their parents. They were supposed to report any comments that their parents made that criticized the system. This continued during the Cultural Revolution.

After the death of Mao, there was a shift away from revolutionary fervor and a return to family traditions. For most people, this shift meant better living conditions. The new attitudes also were reflected in people’s clothing. Under Mao, people had worn only baggy “Mao suits.” After Mao’s death, young Chinese people began to wear jeans, sneakers, and sweat suits.

12. What was the attitude of the Communists toward the family?

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Chapter 31, Section 1 *(continued)*

• **China and the World: The Cold War in Asia** *(page 945)*

Korea had been part of the Japanese Empire from 1905 until 1945. In August 1945, the Soviet Union and the United States agreed to divide Korea into two zones at the 38th parallel. The original plan was to hold elections after the end of World War II to reunify Korea. But the relationship between the United States and the Soviet Union grew worse after the war. Two separate governments were set up in Korea—a Communist one in the north and an anti-Communist one in the south.

North Korean troops invaded South Korea on June 25, 1950. U.S. President Harry Truman sent U.S. troops to fight the North Koreans. The United Nations supported this move. In October 1950, UN forces (mostly Americans) marched across the 38th parallel. Their goal was the reunification of Korea. The Chinese sent hundreds of thousands of Chinese troops into North Korea and pushed UN forces back across the 38th parallel. The fighting continued for three more years, but there was no final victory. An armistice was signed in 1953. The 38th parallel remained the dividing line between North and South Korea.

In 1950, China had signed a pact of friendship and cooperation with the Soviet Union. Some Americans and other Westerners began to worry about a Communist desire for world domination. These fears led to China's isolation from the major Western powers. China was forced to rely almost entirely on the Soviet Union for technological and economic aid. In the late 1950s, however, relations between China and the Soviet Union began to deteriorate. In the 1960s, Chinese and Soviet military forces often clashed at the border between the two countries. Chinese leaders decided to improve relations with the United States. In 1972, President Richard Nixon made a state visit to China. He was the first U.S. president to visit the People's Republic of China. In 1979, diplomatic relations were established with the United States. Chinese relations with the Soviet Union also gradually improved during the 1980s.

13. How did Korea become two countries?

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Chapter 31, Section 2

For use with textbook pages 952–956

INDEPENDENT STATES IN SOUTH AND SOUTHEAST ASIA

KEY TERMS

stalemate a situation in war in which neither side is able to make significant gains (page 956)

discrimination prejudice (page 956)

DRAWING FROM EXPERIENCE

Do you know anyone who fought in the Vietnam War? Do you know anyone who protested the war? Why did the U.S. send troops to Vietnam?

In the last section, you read about Communist China and the Korean War. In this section, you will learn how India, Pakistan, and the countries of Southeast Asia gained their independence. You will also learn about the problems these countries have faced since gaining their independence. Many of these problems have led to armed conflicts, including the Vietnam War.

ORGANIZING YOUR THOUGHTS

Use the chart below to help you take notes. For each of the countries in this chart, describe some of the challenges and conflicts that they have faced since the end of World War II.

| Country | Challenges and Conflicts |
|-------------|--------------------------|
| India | 1. |
| Pakistan | 2. |
| Philippines | 3. |
| Vietnam | 4. |

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Chapter 31, Section 2 (continued)

READ TO LEARN

• **India Divided** (page 952)

At the end of World War II, the leaders of India realized that India would have to be divided into two countries, one Hindu (India) and one Muslim (Pakistan). Pakistan consisted of two regions separated by India. One part, West Pakistan, was to the northwest of India. The other, East Pakistan, was to the northeast. On August 15, 1947, India and Pakistan became independent. Millions of Hindus and Muslims fled across the new borders—Hindus to India and Muslims to Pakistan. Violence broke out, and more than a million people were killed. One of those killed was Mohandas Gandhi, who was assassinated by a Hindu militant on January 30, 1948.

5. Why was India divided into two countries?

• **The New India** (page 953)

The Indian National Congress began to rule India. It was renamed the Congress Party. Jawaharlal Nehru was the new prime minister. He was a popular figure with strong ideas about the future of India. Nehru's vision of the new India combined a parliamentary form of government with a moderate socialist economic structure. The government took over the ownership of major industries, utilities, and transportation. Private enterprise was permitted at the local level. Farmland remained in private hands. Industrial production almost tripled between 1950 and 1965.

Nehru died in 1964. In 1966, the leaders of the Congress Party selected Nehru's daughter, Indira Gandhi, as the new prime minister. She held that position until 1984. India had many problems during this period. Its population growth was one of the most serious problems. In spite of government efforts, India was unable to control this growth. One result was poverty for many people. Millions lived in vast city slums. Another problem was ethnic and religious conflict. This conflict involved the Sikhs. The Sikhs were followers of a religion based on both Hindu and Muslim ideas. Many Sikhs lived in a province called the Punjab. Many of them wanted this province to be independent from India. Gandhi refused to allow this. In 1984, she used military force against Sikh rebels. More than 450 Sikhs were killed. Two Sikhs in Gandhi's bodyguard assassinated her in retaliation for the killings.

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Chapter 31, Section 2 (continued)

Gandhi's son Rajiv replaced his mother as prime minister in 1984. He began to move the government in new directions, encouraging private enterprise and foreign investments. His efforts led to growth in India's middle class. In 1991, he was assassinated while campaigning for reelection. Since then, Gandhi's party, the Congress Party, has been forced to compete with new political parties.

Tensions between Hindus and Muslims continue to disturb India's stability. These religious differences have fueled a long-term dispute over Kashmir, a territory located between India and Pakistan. Both countries want to control Kashmir. In 2002, these two nuclear powers almost went to war several times.

6. What was Nehru's vision of the new India?

• Pakistan (page 954)

Pakistan was a completely new nation when it gained its independence in 1947. During its early years, there were intense conflicts within the country. The division between East and West Pakistan was a major source of conflict. The government was based in West Pakistan. Many people in East Pakistan felt that the government ignored their needs. In 1971, East Pakistan declared its independence. After a brief civil war, it became the new nation of Bangladesh.

Bangladesh and Pakistan have both had problems establishing stable governments. In both nations, military officials have often seized control of the government. Both nations are also very poor.

7. Why did East Pakistan declare its independence?

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Chapter 31, Section 2 (continued)

• Southeast Asia (page 954)

In July 1946, the United States granted total independence to the Philippines. Great Britain also ended its colonial rule in Southeast Asia. Burma became independent in 1948. Malaya became independent in 1957. The Netherlands and France were less willing to give up their colonial empires. Nationalists in Indonesia tried to set up an independent republic, but the Dutch suppressed it. The Indonesian Communist Party then tried to seize power. The United States pressured the Netherlands to grant independence to the non-Communist Nationalist Party. In 1949, the Netherlands recognized the new Republic of Indonesia.

In Vietnam, the leading force in the movement to end colonial rule was the Communist Party, led by Ho Chi Minh. In August 1945, the Vietminh seized control of most of Vietnam. The Vietminh was an alliance of forces under Communist leadership. Ho Chi Minh was elected president of a new republic in Hanoi. But France refused to accept the new government and seized the southern part of the country. France fought the Vietminh for control of Vietnam, but France was unable to regain control. In 1954, France agreed to a peace settlement. Vietnam was divided into two parts. In the north, the Communists were based in Hanoi. In the south, the non-Communists were based in Saigon. Both sides agreed to hold elections in two years to create a single government. But the conflict continued. The United States began to provide aid to South Vietnam. In spite of this aid, the Viet Cong were on the verge of seizing control of the entire country by early 1965. The Viet Cong were South Vietnamese Communist guerrillas, who were supported by military units from North Vietnam.

In 1965, President Lyndon Johnson decided to send U.S. troops to South Vietnam to prevent the Communists from taking control. By the end of the 1960s, the war had reached a **stalemate** (neither side was able to make significant gains). President Richard Nixon reached an agreement with North Vietnam in 1973 that allowed the United States to withdraw its forces. Within two years, Communist armies had reunited Vietnam under Communist control. By the end of 1975, both Laos and Cambodia had Communist governments. In Cambodia, the dictator Pol Pot, leader of the Khmer Rouge, massacred more than a million Cambodians. But the Communist victories in Indochina did not lead to the “falling dominoes” that many U.S. leaders had feared.

Many of the leaders of the newly independent states in Southeast Asia hoped to form democratic, capitalist systems. By the end of the 1950s, hopes for economic growth had failed. Disputes within the new countries weakened democratic governments. This opened the door to both military and one-party regimes. In more recent years, some Southeast Asian societies have shown signs of moving toward more democratic governments. In the Philippines, Ferdinand Marcos came to power in 1965. Under Marcos, fraud and

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Chapter 31, Section 2 (continued)

corruption were widespread. Marcos was accused of involvement in the killing of Benigno Aquino, a leader of the opposition. An uprising forced Marcos to flee the country. In 1986, Corazon Aquino, wife of the murdered leader, became president and worked for democratic reforms. Muslim terrorists have been a persistent challenge for the Philippine government.

Women's roles in South and Southeast Asia have changed considerably. After independence, India's leaders tried to expand women's rights. The constitution of 1950 forbade **discrimination** (prejudicial treatment) based on gender. It also called for equal pay for equal work. Child marriage was outlawed. Women were encouraged to attend school and to get jobs. In Southeast Asia, nearly all of the newly independent states gave women full legal and political rights.

8. How have women's roles changed in South and Southeast Asia?

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Chapter 31, Section 3

For use with textbook pages 957–962

JAPAN AND THE PACIFIC

KEY TERMS

occupied a country whose lands are held and controlled by military forces (page 957)

state capitalism a form of capitalism in which the central government plays an active role in the economy (page 958)

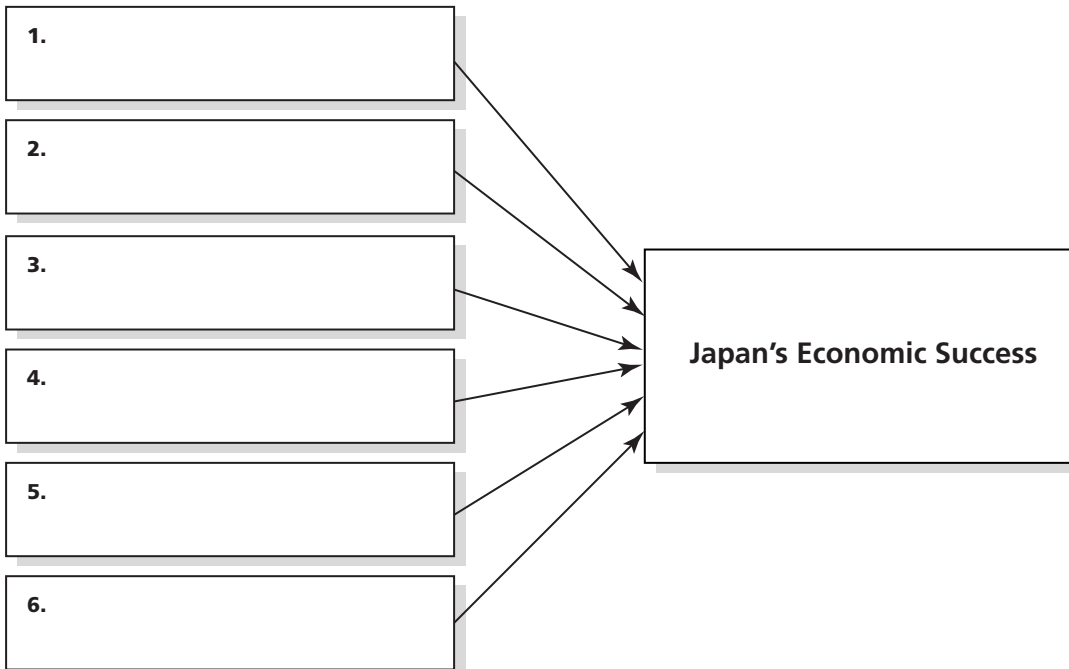
DRAWING FROM EXPERIENCE

Do you or your family own any products that were made in Japan? What are these products?

In the last two sections, you read about changes in China, India, Pakistan, and Southeast Asia since the end of World War II. In this section, you will read about changes in Japan and other countries of the Pacific during this time. Many of these countries have created successful industrial societies.

ORGANIZING YOUR THOUGHTS

Use the diagram below to help you take notes. Japan’s transformation into an economic giant since the end of World War II has been described as the “Japanese miracle.” List six factors that have contributed to Japan’s economic success.



Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 31, Section 3 (continued)

READ TO LEARN

- **The Allied Occupation** (page 957)

From 1945 to 1952, Japan was an **occupied** country. Its lands were held and controlled by Allied military forces. An Allied administration governed Japan. This administration was under the command of U.S. General Douglas MacArthur. A new constitution was created. In it, Japan agreed to keep its armed forces at levels that were only enough for self-defense. The new constitution also set up a parliamentary system and reduced the power of the emperor. It guaranteed basic civil rights and gave women the right to vote.

On September 8, 1951, the United States and other World War II allies signed a peace treaty that gave Japan its independence. Japan and the United States also signed an alliance in which the Japanese agreed that the United States could keep military bases in Japan.

7. What were some of the provisions of Japan's new constitution?

- **The Japanese Miracle** (page 958)

After World War II, Japan quickly became an economic giant. This has often been described as the "Japanese miracle." Japan made a dramatic recovery from the war. Several factors contributed to this "miracle." The government played a major role. Japan's new constitution provided for universal suffrage and a balance of power between the executive, legislative, and judicial branches of government. Today Japan is a stable democratic society. The current Japanese political system still has some of the features of Japan's political system under the Meiji. Japan has a multiparty system with two major parties, the Liberal Democrats and the Socialists. But the Liberal Democrats have dominated the government. Key decisions were made by a small group within this party. A change took place in 1993, when the Liberal Democrats were defeated. Mirohiro Hosokawa was elected prime minister and promised to clean up the political system.

The central government plays an active role in the economy. It establishes price and wage policies and subsidizes industries. The government's role in the economy is often cited as a key reason for the efficiency of Japanese industry. Japan's economic system has been described as "**state capitalism.**" During the occupation of Japan, a land reform program was put in place. Under this

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Chapter 31, Section 3 *(continued)*

program, lands were sold on easy credit terms to the tenants. The reform program created a strong class of farmers. Today Japan is the greatest exporting nation in the world. Its per capita income is among the highest in the world.

Cultural factors also help to explain Japan’s economic success. The Japanese are group oriented and find it easy to cooperate with one another. They are also hardworking and are inclined to save rather than to buy. These characteristics have produced high savings rates and labor productivity.

There are other, more practical reasons for Japan’s success. Japan’s industries were destroyed in World War II, so Japan was forced to build entirely new, modern factories. Japanese workers spend considerably more time at their jobs than workers in other countries. Corporations reward innovation and maintain good management-labor relations. Finally, some people believe that Japan uses unfair trade practices—that it sells goods at prices below cost to break into foreign markets and restricts imports from other countries.

There have been major social and cultural changes in Japan since the end of World War II. A new educational system removed all references to patriotism and loyalty to the emperor. It also stressed individualism. Women were given the right to vote and were encouraged to enter politics. But many of the distinctive characteristics of traditional Japanese society still exist. Emphasis on the work ethic is still strong. The tradition of hard work is stressed in the educational system. The subordinate position of women has not been entirely eliminated. Women are now legally protected against discrimination in employment, but very few have reached senior levels in business, education, or politics. Women now make up more than 40 percent of the workforce, but most are in retail or service jobs. Their average salary is only about 60 percent that of men.

After the Japanese defeat in World War II, many of the writers who had been active before the war continued to write. But their writing was more sober now. Several writers committed suicide. Since the 1970s, there has been a huge production of books. In 1975, Japan produced twice as much fiction as the United States. Current Japanese authors were raised in cities and soaked up movies, television, and rock music. These writers deal with the concerns of all wealthy industrialized nations. Haruki Murakami is one of Japan’s most popular authors. He was one of the first writers to give up the somber style of the postwar period.

8. What characteristics of traditional Japanese society still exist?

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Chapter 31, Section 3 (continued)

• The “Asian Tigers” (page 961)

South Korea, Taiwan, Singapore, and Hong Kong have imitated Japan and have created successful industrial societies. They are called the “Asian tigers.”

In 1953, Korea was exhausted from three years of war. It was divided into two parts at the 38th parallel. North of this line was the People’s Republic of Korea (North Korea) under the Communist leader Kim Il Sung. South of the line was the Republic of Korea (South Korea) under the dictatorial president Syngman Rhee. In South Korea, there were several years of harsh rule and government corruption. Demonstrations broke out in the capital city of Seoul in the spring of 1960. Rhee was forced to retire. Two years later, General Chung Hee Park was elected president. He began to strengthen the economy. Land was given to the peasants, and new industries were promoted. The key industries were chemicals, textiles, and shipbuilding. In the 1980s, South Korea began to move into automobile production. But South Korea was slow to develop democratic principles. Park ruled by autocratic means and suppressed protest. Many people began to demonstrate against government policies. Democracy finally came in the 1990s. Elections held in 1997 brought the reformer Kim Tae-jung to the presidency.

In Taiwan, Chiang Kai-shek and his followers established a capital at Taipei. The government continued to call itself the Republic of China. Chiang Kai-shek’s government maintained that it was the legitimate government of China and would eventually return to the mainland. Taiwan was protected by the American military. This made it possible for Taiwan to concentrate on economic growth. Taiwan made good use of foreign aid and the efforts of its own people. It was able to build a modern industrialized society. A land-reform program put farmland in the hands of peasants and doubled food production. With government help, local manufacturing and commerce expanded. Prosperity did not at first lead to democracy, however. Under Chiang Kai-shek, the government refused to allow new political parties to form. After the death of Chiang in 1975, the Republic of China slowly began to move toward a more representative form of government. By 2002, free elections had let opposition parties win control of the presidency and the legislature. Unification is still a major issue for Taiwan. The People’s Republic of China on the mainland is still committed to eventual unification. The United States supports self-determination for the people of Taiwan.

Singapore was once a British colony and is now an independent state. Under the leadership of Prime Minister Lee Kuan Yew, Singapore developed an industrial economy based on shipbuilding, oil refineries, and electronics. Singapore has also become the banking center of the region. Singapore has an authoritarian political system. The prime minister once said that democracy was not appropriate for Singapore. But its citizens are beginning to demand more political freedoms.

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Chapter 31, Section 3 (continued)

Hong Kong has also become an industrial powerhouse with high standards of living. For over 150 years, Hong Kong was under British rule. In 1997, Great Britain returned control of Hong Kong to mainland China. China promised that for the next 50 years, Hong Kong would enjoy a high degree of economic freedom under a capitalist system. Hong Kong's future, however, remains uncertain.

9. What are the "Asian tigers"? Why are they called this?

• **Australia and New Zealand** (page 962)

Both Australia and New Zealand have identified themselves culturally and politically with Europe rather than with their Asian neighbors. Their economies resemble those of the industrialized countries of the world. Both are members of the British Commonwealth. Since the majority of the people in both Australia and New Zealand have European origins, cultural differences often hinder mutual understanding between the two countries and their Asian neighbors. However, in recent years, trends have been drawing both countries closer to Asia. Immigration from East and Southeast Asia has increased. Trade relations with Asia are also increasing. About 60 percent of Australia's export markets are now in East Asia.

10. In what ways are Australia and New Zealand more like European countries than Asian countries?

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Chapter 32, Section 1

For use with textbook pages 969–973

THE CHALLENGES OF OUR WORLD

KEY TERMS

- ecology** the study of the relationship between living things and their environment (*page 970*)
- deforestation** the clearing of forests (*page 970*)
- ozone layer** a thin layer of gas in the upper atmosphere that shields Earth from the Sun’s ultra-violet rays (*page 970*)
- greenhouse effect** global warming caused by the buildup of carbon dioxide in the atmosphere (*page 970*)
- acid rain** the rainfall that results when sulfur produced by factories mixes with moisture in the air (*page 970*)
- global economy** an economy in which the production, distribution, and sale of goods take place on a worldwide scale (*page 972*)

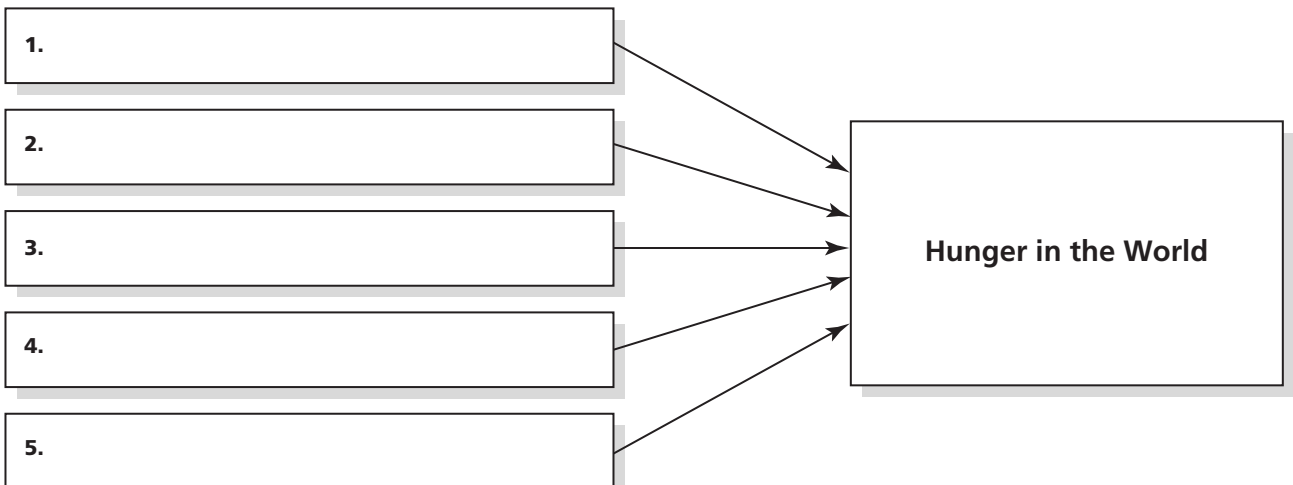
DRAWING FROM EXPERIENCE

Do you or your family recycle cans and other types of containers? Are there any other things that you do to help the environment?

In this section, you will read about the environmental, economic, social, and political challenges facing the world at the end of the twentieth century.

ORGANIZING YOUR THOUGHTS

Use the diagram below to help you take notes. Hunger is a huge problem in many parts of the world. List five reasons why hunger continues to be a problem.



Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 32, Section 1 (continued)

READ TO LEARN

- **The Environmental Crisis** (page 969)

In 1962, an American scientist, Rachel Carson, wrote a book called *Silent Spring*. In it she warned that the use of pesticides (chemicals sprayed on crops to kill insects) was having deadly results. The pesticides were killing birds, fish, and other wild animals. The pesticide residue on food was also harmful to human beings. Carson’s warning alarmed many scientists. It led to a new field of science called **ecology** (the study of the relationship between living things and their environment). Many people became more aware of the dangers to the environment.

Dangers to the environment have many sources. A rapid increase in world population has led many people to fear that the Earth’s resources simply cannot support the growing number of human beings. **Deforestation** (the clearing of forests) is one result of the growing population. Forests and jungles are cut down to provide farmland and firewood for people on Earth. As forests are cut down, dwelling places for plants and animals are destroyed. The destruction of tropical rain forests is a special concern. The tropical rain forests support 50 percent of the world’s species of plants and animals. They are also crucial to human survival. They remove carbon dioxide from the air and return oxygen to it.

Another danger to the environment is chemical waste. Chlorofluorocarbons are a particular concern. They are the gases used in aerosol cans, refrigerators, and air conditioners. Many scientists warn that the release of chlorofluorocarbons is destroying the **ozone layer** (a thin layer of gas in the upper atmosphere that shields Earth from the Sun’s ultraviolet rays). Other scientists have proposed that there is a **greenhouse effect** (global warming caused by the buildup of carbon dioxide in the atmosphere). Another problem is **acid rain** (the rainfall that results when sulfur from factories mixes with moisture in the air). Acid rain has killed forests in both North America and Europe.

Major ecological disasters have also occurred during the last 20 years. The nuclear explosion at Chernobyl in 1986 and the oil spill caused by the oil tanker *Exxon Valdez* in 1989 are two examples. These disasters made people aware of the need to deal with environmental problems. In 1987, representatives of 43 nations met in Montreal. They agreed to protect the Earth’s ozone layer by reducing the use of chlorofluorocarbons. In 1992, an Earth Summit in Rio de Janeiro looked at the challenges to the environment and proposed new solutions.

6. Why are the rain forests a special environmental concern?

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Chapter 32, Section 1 (continued)

• The Technological Revolution (page 971)

Modern transportation and communication systems are transforming the world. Jumbo jets, the Internet, satellites, cable television, fax machines, and cellular telephones are some examples. The exploration of space has led to many world-changing developments. In 1969, the American astronauts Neil Armstrong and Buzz Aldrin landed on the moon. Since then, space probes have increased our understanding of distant planets. Satellites provide information about weather and transmit signals for radio, television, and telephone communications.

In the field of health, new technologies have enabled doctors to perform “miracle” operations. Mechanical valves and pumps for the heart and organ transplants have allowed people to live longer lives. Technological changes in the health field have also raised new concerns. For example, genetic engineering is a new scientific field that alters the genetic information of cells to produce new variations. Some people worry that the new variations could be deadly. The overuse of antibiotics has already created “supergerms” that do not respond to treatment with available antibiotics. The issues of stem-cell research and human cloning have also created intense debates.

In agriculture, the Green Revolution has promised huge returns. The Green Revolution refers to the development of new strains of rice, corn, and other grains that have greater yields. It was promoted as the technological solution to feeding the world’s growing population. But immense amounts of chemical fertilizers and pesticides are needed to grow the new strains. Many farmers cannot afford the fertilizers, and the pesticides create environmental problems.

The technological revolution has also led to the development of nuclear, biological, and chemical weapons. Although the end of the Cold War reduced the chances of a major nuclear war, there is still concern that nuclear materials (bombs or radioactive matter) will be obtained and used by terrorists.

Biowarfare (the use of disease and poison against civilians and soldiers in wartime) is not new. Chemical weapons were used extensively in World War I. Japan used biological weapons on China and Manchuria in the 1930s and 1940s. Governments have made agreements to limit the research, production, and use of biological and chemical weapons. But these agreements have not prevented terrorists from practicing **bioterrorism** (the use of biological and chemical weapons in terrorist attacks).

7. What concerns have been raised by technological changes in the health field?

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Chapter 32, Section 1 (continued)

• Economic and Social Challenges (page 972)

Since World War II, the world has developed a **global economy** (an economy in which the production, distribution, and sale of goods take place on a worldwide scale). In 1995, the World Trade Organization (WTO) was established. Trade agreements are negotiated, signed, and upheld by its member nations. The WTO has been criticized for placing commercial interests above environmental and health concerns and for favoring the wealthier countries.

One of the features of the global economy is the wide gap between rich, or industrialized, nations and poor, or developing, nations. The rich nations are mainly in the Northern Hemisphere. They have well-organized industrial and agricultural systems, advanced technologies, and strong educational systems. The poor nations are located mainly in Africa, Asia, and Latin America. They are primarily farming nations with little technology. A serious problem in developing countries is rapid population growth. In order to find jobs, millions move to already overcrowded cities where the living conditions are terrible.

Hunger has also become a staggering problem that kills over 8 million people every year. Rapid population growth, poor soil, natural catastrophes, and economic and political factors contribute to widespread hunger. For example, during Sudan's civil war in the 1980s, neither side would allow food to be sent to their enemy. As a result, 1.3 million people starved.

In recent decades some infectious diseases have raised global concerns. The most significant is AIDS, or acquired immune deficiency syndrome. AIDS is caused by the HIV virus, which weakens the immune system so that people cannot fight other illnesses. AIDS was first reported in the United States in 1981. AIDS has claimed the lives of thousands, and it has spread quickly. By the end of 2002, the United Nations estimated that 42 million people around the world were HIV-positive or had AIDS. More than 29 million of those people live in sub-Saharan Africa, where the epidemic has already orphaned around 12 million children. International help has begun and, in 2003, the United States committed \$15 billion to treat AIDS in Africa and in the Caribbean.

In 2003 another virus, SARS, or severe acute respiratory syndrome, raised a world threat. The SARS virus spread the same way as the common cold. Most cases were found in China, but the disease had spread to 28 countries around the world.

8. What are some of the main differences between rich and poor nations?

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 32, Section 1 *(continued)*

- **Political Challenges** *(page 973)*

Within a decade of World War II, military dictatorships or one-party governments had replaced democratic systems in many developing countries. Many leaders underestimated the difficulty of building democratic political systems. Recently, there have been signs of renewed interest in democracy in various parts of the world.

Regional, ethnic, and religious differences continue to create conflict around the world. In Europe, Yugoslavia has been torn apart by ethnic divisions. In the Middle East, the conflict between Israelis and Palestinians continues to produce acts of violence. Conflicts between ethnic groups in Africa have led to massacres of hundreds of thousands of people.

9. What differences continue to create conflicts around the world?

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Chapter 32, Section 2

For use with textbook pages 974–976

GLOBAL VISIONS

KEY TERMS

peacekeeping force a military force drawn from neutral states to settle conflicts and supervise truces (page 975)

disarmament limiting or reducing armed forces and weapons (page 976)

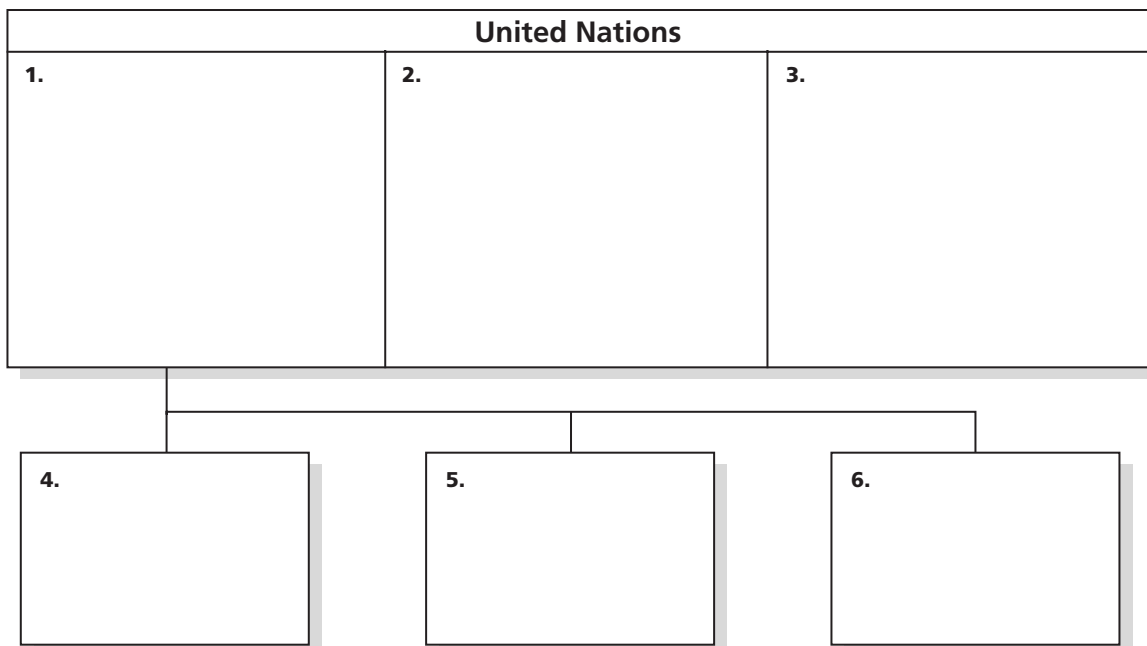
DRAWING FROM EXPERIENCE

Have you heard the slogan “Think globally, act locally”? What do you think this slogan means? How might this slogan be carried out in your community?

In the last section, you read about global challenges at the end of the twentieth century. In this section, you will read about international organizations that have been formed to respond to these challenges. You will also read about groups led by ordinary citizens that have tried to address some of these problems.

ORGANIZING YOUR THOUGHTS

Use the chart below to help you take notes. The United Nations is one of the organizations that have tried to address global problems. List the three main parts of the United Nations and describe their functions. Also list three of the specialized agencies that are under the direction of the United Nations.



Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 32, Section 2 (continued)

READ TO LEARN

- **The United Nations** (page 974)

Representatives of the Allied forces founded the United Nations (UN) in 1945 in San Francisco. The United Nations had two main goals: peace and human dignity. The General Assembly of the United Nations is made up of representatives of all member nations. It has the power to discuss any question of importance to the organization and to recommend the action to be taken. The secretary-general, whose offices are located in New York City, supervises the day-to-day administrative business of the UN. The most important advisory group of the UN is the Security Council. It is made up of 5 permanent members (the United States, Russia, Great Britain, France, and China) and 10 members chosen by the General Assembly to serve limited terms. The Security Council decides what actions the UN should take to settle international disputes.

Several specialized agencies function under the direction of the United Nations. These include the United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), the World Health Organization (WHO), and the United Nations International Children’s Emergency Fund (UNICEF). All of these agencies have been successful in helping to address economic and social problems. The United Nations has also organized international conferences on important issues such as population growth and the environment. It has also provided **peacekeeping forces** (military forces drawn from neutral member states to settle conflicts and supervise truces) on various occasions.

7. What are the two main goals of the United Nations?

- **New Global Visions** (page 975)

One approach to global problems has been the development of social movements led by ordinary citizens. These movements have addressed issues such as environmental problems, women’s liberation, human potential, technology, and nonviolence. “Think globally, act locally” is the slogan of such groups.

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Chapter 32, Section 2 (continued)

Nongovernmental organizations (NGOs) are another way that people have addressed global issues. NGOs include business and professional organizations, foundations, and religious, peace, and **disarmament** groups (groups that work to limit or reduce armed forces and weapons). Other examples are youth and women’s organizations, environmental and human rights groups, and research institutes. These groups help to create global perspectives. Despite the efforts of these groups, global approaches to global problems continue to be hindered by political, ethnic, and religious disputes around the world.

8. What are NGOs? What are some examples?
