

SFDRCISD World History



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CHAPTER **1** Chapter One: Learning Like a Historian, The Rise of Agriculture, and the River Valley Civilizations

Chapter Outline

- 1.1 THE PEOPLE WHO MAKE HISTORY**
 - 1.2 PERIODIZATION AND SPICES**
 - 1.3 PREHISTORIC TIMES**
 - 1.4 NEOLITHIC REVOLUTION (HUMANS TRY AND CONTROL NATURE) AND THE RISE OF RIVER VALLEY CIVILIZATIONS**
 - 1.5 TIGRIS AND EUPHRATES RIVER VALLEY, MESOPOTAMIA**
 - 1.6 THE NILE RIVER VALLEY**
 - 1.7 REFERENCES**
-

Why study the past?

Stories about ourselves are always intriguing. Where did we come from? How did people from thousands of different cultures, over tens of thousands of years, live? How were their concerns different from or similar to our own? The past is full of surprises, but they never fall far from home. By learning more about who we were — and how we come to be here we become more fully human.

How do we begin to study over 10,000 years of History?

Historians utilize tools to better manage, categorize, and analyze large periods of time, space, and information. These tools include: Big Idea or Picture, Themes (SPICES), and Periodization (chunks). Chapter 1 will begin with the people who have discovered artifacts and the people who interpret them to create world history. Followed by the historical thinking skills that will be developed throughout course such as: making comparisons and connections over time, analyzing primary and secondary sources, and interpreting historical evidence to formulate historical arguments. The chapter will close with brief description of the origins of man and the story of man as a nomads.

1.1 The People Who Make History

1.1 The People Who Make History

Student Learning Objectives

At the end of this section the student will be able to

- Identify methods used by archaeologists, anthropologists, historians, and geographers to analyze evidence. [29.A]

Why study the past?

Stories about ourselves are always intriguing. Where did we come from? How did people from thousands of different cultures, over tens of thousands of years, live? How were their concerns different from or similar to our own? The past is full of surprises, but they never fall far from home. By learning more about who we were — and how we came to be here — we become more fully human.

Archaeologists and Their Artifacts

"Archaeology is the science of rubbish." -archaeologist Stuart Piggot

The *Forma Urbis Romae*, or Severan Marble Plan, may just be the world's biggest jigsaw-puzzle. Carved across marble slabs 45 feet high and 60 feet long, it is a map ancient Rome showing every street, building, room, and staircase. Eighteen-hundred years ago it hung in the Roman census bureau, the most detailed map of the city ever produced.

At least, it used to be. Today it languishes in the basement of a museum, smashed. Now a team of American researchers have devised a novel way of pasting it together again — by scanning it into a computer.

For hundreds of years after the fall of Rome, hunks of marble were hacked off the map for building material. Then the building housing the map collapsed. In 1562, Cardinal Alessandro Farnese made a valiant attempt to collect the surviving sections. Since then every attempt to piece together the 1,163 fragments has failed. It is one of classical archaeology's great unsolved problems.

This mock-up of an archaeological dig site gives an impression of what the important elements and basic tools are. Even in this age of computers and x-rays, archaeologists still have to use basic methods like digging and measuring to insure that they collect the best information possible

The first task of the American researchers was simple: 3-D scan each individual block into their computer. Now it gets harder. The computer must find a way to fit them together. So far the data base contains "8 billion polygons and 6 thousand color images, occupying 40 gigabytes." Solving the puzzle, says the team, "will take months, possibly years."

This approach is light-years away from the traditional methods of archaeologists who spend their time carefully sifting through the dirt. But today a battery of new tools is helping to bring the past back to life.

Archaeology, notes one of its practitioners, "has a long disreputable line of descent; its ancestors were, quite literally, grave robbers and adventurers." Foremost amongst them ranks the Italian Giovanni Belzoni. In the early 1800s he looted hundreds of ancient Egyptian tombs, candidly admitting: "The purpose of my researches was to rob the

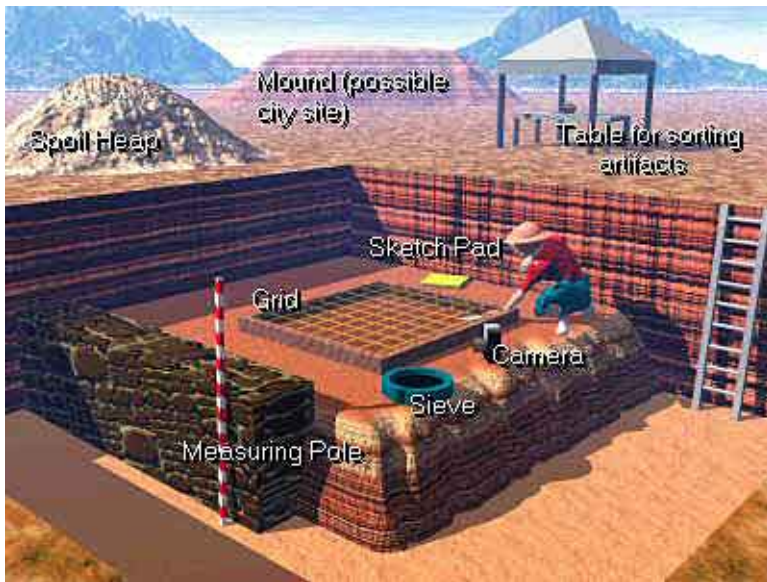


FIGURE 1.1

Egyptians of their papyri." Papyri were the ancient papers of the Egyptians. They were made from a plant that grew along the Nile valley.

Modern archaeologists proceed with more caution. Still, few can claim the delicacy of Sir Leonard Woolley, who in the 1920s excavated the great Sumerian city of Ur. While digging in the royal cemetery he noticed a small hole just below where a small gold cap and some gold nails had been found. Woolley filled the hole with liquid plaster. When the soil was cleared away, the shaft of a lyre — preserved as a plaster cast — emerged. Woolley was able to reconstruct the entire instrument, even though its original wood had long since vanished.

You Want a Date?

Before starting a dig the first step is to map a site, dividing it into small squares. Careful notes are kept of changes in sediment, and of each object (however fragmentary) found within each square. The idea is to create a 3-D picture of the area — a picture through time. Younger remains usually lie closer to the surface, older ones beneath. Fortunately, archaeologists no longer have to rely on position alone for judging an object's age.

In the late 1940s, the physicist Willard Libby invented **C-14 or radiocarbon dating**. It transformed the study of the past. For the first time organic material — charcoal, wood, shell and bone, even clothing — from 500 to 50,000 years old could be reliably dated. Through radiocarbon dating, archaeologists built a world-wide chronology of human activity.

How C-14 dating works

Carbon exists in the atmosphere in two forms — ordinary carbon, C-12; and carbon-14. This is radioactive and decays with a half-life of 5730 years (it takes 5730 years for half of the C-14 in a sample to become C-12). Plants and animals contain carbon in the same mixture as the atmosphere. When they die, C-14 continues to decay. By measuring how much — or, rather, how little — C-14 remains, researchers can calculate how much time has elapsed since death occurred.

There are traps, of course. An object may be contaminated by carbon from another source. Or, it may not "belong" at the level where the carbon-containing material was found. Perhaps it was carried there by erosion, or dislodged by a careless archaeologist. It happens. All this allows archaeologists to go on arguing about ages, for ages.

How do archaeologists know where to dig? Often they don't. They know where not to dig — where nothing interesting exists. But how do you tell one from the other? Excavation is expensive, and there is nothing an archaeologist likes less than staring at an empty hole. The ideal solution is to look underground before you start. Astonishingly, techniques are coming along to do just that.

Most archaeologists rely on buried buildings, bodies, ancient hearths, or iron tools, having different physical "signatures" from the surrounding soil. Ground penetrating radar, for example, pumps radio waves into the earth then measures the patterns reflected back. For example, by coupling his scanner to a special computer program anthropology professor Lawrence B. Conyers has produced striking images of otherwise invisible structures. One day, he promises, he will generate moving 3-D pictures and take us on underground video "tours" of archaeological sites.

The great English archaeologist Sir Mortimer Wheeler used to remind his students, "The archeologist is not digging up things, he is digging up people." Regardless of the changes in methods, archaeological aims remain the same: to illuminate the past and bring back to life the experiences and cultures of people long gone.

Anthropologists and Their People

Finding them didn't come as much of a surprise. Not to David Roberts, anyway. Winding its way across a 117,000-year-old former sand dune was a trail of footprints made by human feet. They are the oldest human footprints ever found.

Roberts is a South African geologist. Previously, he had come across fossilized carnivore tracks in the rock fringing Langebaan Lagoon 60 miles north of Cape Town. And he had noticed rock fragments which showed signs of human use. So: "On a hunch, I began searching for hominid footprints — and found them!"

When did it all begin? If you had asked Dr. John Lightfoot in 1644, he would have given you a most precise answer. The world was created on October 23, 4004 B.C.E., promptly "at nine o'clock in the morning." Lightfoot, a Hebrew scholar, arrived at the date through exhaustive study of Scripture.

Today we know this underestimates our planet's true age a million-fold. The earth formed 4.6 billion years ago — an almost unimaginably long time. But what of our human past? How far back does it stretch? There are several answers — a series of "firsts":

- 2 million+ years: First Hominids
- 100,000+ years: First Humans
- 9,000 years: First Settlements
- 6,000 years: First Civilizations

In 1572, scientists recovered a strange fossil: the skull of what they thought was an ancient Cyclops. This engraving was made to depict the live creature. As it turned out, the skull they found was simply from an elephant!

All this and more is the province of anthropology. The word means literally "the study of man." We are a complicated species, and anthropologists poke into every aspect of our human nature.

The Caretakers of Culture

Some anthropologists live for years at a time with aboriginal peoples, recording how they organize their lives with the overlay of civilization absent. Margaret Mead, the most celebrated anthropologist of her generation, pioneered this approach in the 1920s when she lived among the Samoan Islanders of the South Pacific. She returned to tell a scandalized world that they practiced free love. Later experts have suggested her adolescent informants fooled the rather earnest young Mead. They were just leading her on.

Other researchers look to our nearest surviving relatives, the great apes, and seek clues to human behavior there. For



FIGURE 1.2

40 years Jane Goodall has lived alongside the chimpanzees of Gombe National park in Tanzania. Chimps may look cuddly and cute but they are not above thievery, infanticide, and murder.

Who owns the past? It may sound an odd question, but it is one anthropologists, especially in North America, are having to face. American museums are filled with the skeletons of Native Americans exhumed — looted, if you like — without the permission of their living descendants. In 1990, the Native American Graves Protection and Repatriation Act (NAGPRA) ordered that this material returned to the tribes.

This is the upper right third molar of an unidentified species discovered at the Aramis site in Ethiopia in 1992. The species was later named *Australopithecus ramidus* and dates back 4.4 million years.

Kennewick Man is at the center of this bitter dispute. A near-complete human skeleton, it was found along the banks of the Columbia River in Kennewick, Washington, in July 1996. James C. Chatters, the forensic anthropologist who first examined it observed that its characteristics reflected European — not Native American — ancestry.

To Chatters' astonishment when the skeleton was dated, it turned out to be over 9,000 years old. The story made headlines around the world — and a coalition of Indian tribes immediately sued for possession. Ever since the case has been mired in court.

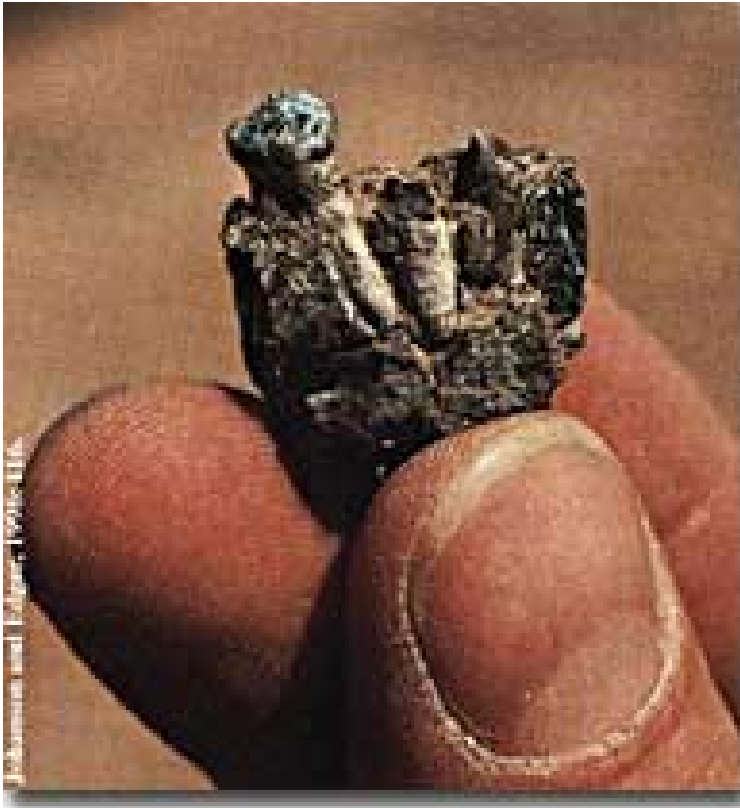


FIGURE 1.3

Kennewick Man's discovery may reveal fundamentally new facts about the earliest inhabitants of the Americas. If the tribal leaders have their way, he will be reburied at a secret site and his story lost to us all forever. What's the solution? To begin, more trusting relationships between researchers and the people they study must be forged.

Historians and Their Time

"On the 24th of August ... between 2 and 3 in the afternoon my mother drew his attention to a cloud of unusual size and appearance...I can best describe its shape by likening it to a pine tree. It rose into the sky on a very long "trunk" from which spread some "branches"...The sight of it made the scientist in my uncle determined to see it from closer at hand." –Pliny the Younger describing his uncle's death in the eruption of Mt. Vesuvius, 79 C.E.

There wasn't any history before 3000 B.C.E.

In a literal sense that is true. Historians mostly rely on written documents to reconstruct the past. Before 3000 B.C.E. writing did not exist, as far as we know. Accordingly, events earlier than this time are referred to as "pre-history," before written history!

Why C.E. and B.C.E.?

You may be used to seeing dates with B.C. or A.D. (for example, 2750 B.C. or A.D. 476). So why don't you see those abbreviations here?

The abbreviation B.C. stands for "Before Christ," and A.D. stands for the Latin phrase *Anno Domini*, which means, "the Year of Our Lord." Because history belongs to everyone, and because not everyone is a Christian, many historians have been using the new terms, B.C.E. and C.E.



FIGURE 1.4

The abbreviation C.E. stands for the "Common Era" and is used in place of A.D. For example, 1492 C.E. is the same as A.D. 1492 (which is sometimes incorrectly written as 1492 A.D.). The abbreviation B.C.E. stands for "Before the Common Era," and is used in place of B.C. The year 1625 B.C.E is the same as 1625

Clay and the Sumerians

The Sumerians of Mesopotamia were among the first people to develop a written language. They recorded events and religious information on wet clay tablets using styluses. *Note: This picture goes to the free New York Times website which requires registration. Ask your parent or teacher for help.*

The Sumerians invented the first writing system. At first they used pictographs to represent words — little pictures drawn on wet clay. A picture of a bird represents mushen, "bird;" a fish, the word ha, "fish." Sumerian scribes quickly discovered how to write new words by joining pictures together: the signs for "woman" and "mountain" produced geme, "slave-girl" — the Sumerians took their slaves from the mountain tribes to the east. Eventually the pictures evolved into abstract patterns made by a wedge-shaped stylus. This is called **cuneiform** writing, from the Latin word *cuneus* = "wedge."



 FIGURE 1.5

What did the Sumerians write? Mostly lists. Inventories of people and possessions, of goods to trade, of food rations for slaves. There are legal documents: marriage records, wills, contracts, deeds of sale — and tax returns by the score (one Sumerian proverb reads "You can have a lord, You can have a king, But the man to fear is the tax collector"). Of the 1500,000 clay tablets recovered so far, 75 percent deal with such matters.

Did they have laptop computers in 480 B.C.? Hardly. The youth in this image is writing on a folded tablet using a stylus (sort of like an ancient fountain pen).

Scattered amongst them, though, are poems and epics — the world's first literature. There is a farmer's almanac, even recipes. This one comes from Akkad around 1700 B.C.E. It is for "Tuhu Beets" — beets boiled in beer (don't knock it until you've tried it), and begins: Tuhu shirum saqum izzaz me tukan lipia tanadi tusammat tabaum... Roughly, you boil beets with onions in beer, add herbs, mush everything into a porridge, then sprinkle with raw shuhutinnu . What's shuhutinnu? — "an unidentified member of the onion family."

The Sumerians never wrote history in the sense of trying to explain how the past happened, by the deed of men and women, economic factors, natural disasters or pestilence. They believed their society had been there since the universe began, planned and decreed by the gods. It never occurred to them that their land had once been scattered villages occupying desolate marshland, its greatness coming from human toil, invention, vision and determination

Herodotus is widely credited as being the first historian. He traveled widely in the Greek world and wrote down what he saw and the stories he heard. Herodotus coined the word history, which is Greek for "inquiries."

Credit as the First Historian goes to Herodotus, born c. 484 C.E., who lived in Athens while the Parthenon was being built. He seems to have been a trader, a compulsive story-teller, who traveled widely throughout the Greek empire.



FIGURE 1.6

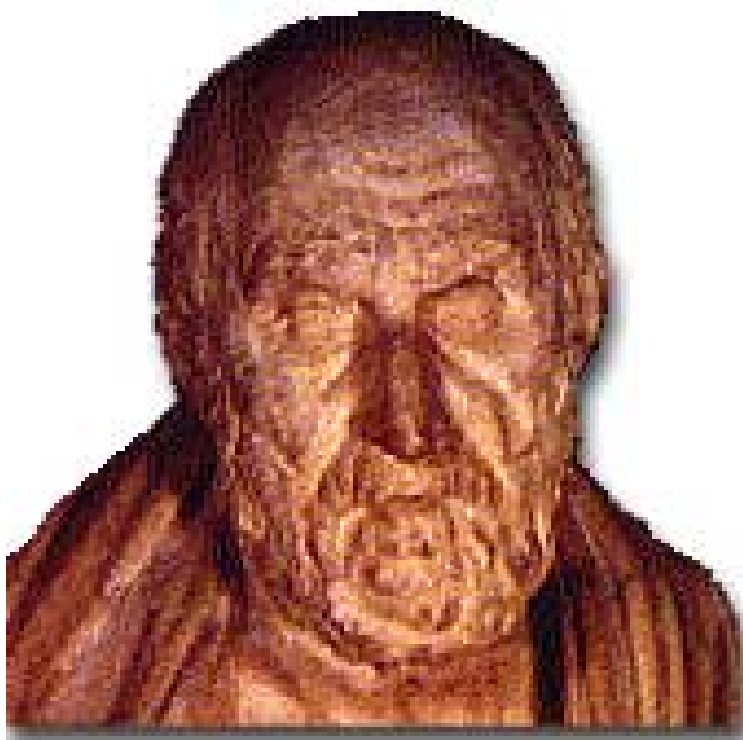


FIGURE 1.7

He must have made an enchanting companion, engaging in conversation everyone he met. "My business is to record what people say," he explains, "but I am no means bound to believe it." Officially he wrote an account of the war between the Persians and Greeks. Along the way he found time to be fascinated by ancient Egyptian religion, the flooding of the Nile — and gnats, on which he offers sound advice:

Everyone provides himself with a net, which during the day he uses for fishing, and at night fixes up around his bed, and creeps in under it before he goes to sleep. For anyone to sleep wrapped in a cloak or linen would be useless, for the gnats would bite through them; but they do no even attempt to get through the net.

"What made him the first serious historian," says classical scholar and poet Peter Levi, "is his combination of great scope and precise focus, his imaginative power as a story-teller and his rationalism, his concern with truth."

Vesuvius: A Case Study in History



FIGURE 1.8

It might not look like much, but this 316-pound rock was to the ancient Greeks what the Heisman Trophy is to a collegiate football player. The inscription reveals who won the weight lifting competition in one of the first Olympics: "Bybon has lifted me over his head with one hand." Did Bybon know his victory would make for some heavy history over 26 centuries later?

In Roman times, Pliny-the-Younger proved a worthy successor with his brilliant description of the eruption of Vesuvius quoted above. He was just 17 years-old when the volcano exploded, destroying the towns of Pompeii and Herculaneum. His account has helped modern volcanologists reconstruct the event. It lasted about 18 hours, Pliny tells them. There was a cloud shaped like "a pine tree" — a dense column of hot gas, rock and ash, tossed 20 miles up into the sky. After about 12 hours, the force of the blast slackened. The column collapsed hurtling a gigantic surge cloud of hot ash down Vesuvius' western slope at 100 mph. Within 4 minutes it reached Herculaneum, blasting buildings, burning or suffocating the people. A second surge devastated Pompeii.

During the 1981 eruption of Mt. St. Helens scientists were amazed at the speed and power of these so-called "pyroclastic flows." They overturned forests and engulfed a car speeding away at 80 mph. Pliny reports one of these surges and was fortunate not have perished in it: "I look back: a dense cloud looms behind us, following us like a flood poured across the land... The fire itself actually stopped some distance away, but darkness and ashes came again, a great weight of them..." His uncle was not so lucky and died across the Gulf of Naples at Stabiae.

Vesuvius will erupt again. The only question is when. Millions of people now living in the shadow of the volcano will be at risk.

The philosopher George Santayana remarked: "Those who do not remember the past are condemned to relive it." Henry Ford dismissed history as "bunk." Edward Waldo Emerson maintained "There is no history; only biography." Percy Bysshe Shelley put it poetically: "History is a cyclic poem written by Time upon the memories of man." Shakespeare is briefest: "The past is prologue." The future begins here.

Herodotus, the first historian, claimed modest goals for his work: "that the doings of men may not be forgotten." On the title page he wrote *Historia*, Greek for "inquiries" or "researches." Inquiring into the past has been called history ever since

Geographers and Their Space.



FIGURE 1.9

The desire to know how people in distant cultures live is an ancient one. Before photography, the internet, and airline travel, how did people learn about far off lands? During the Renaissance, mapmaking was the answer! An explorer would chart his path, bring home the information and hire a mapmaker to bring his memories to life.

They set out on April 7, 1805, from Fort Mandan, North Dakota, near present-day Bismarck. Two young army captains, 28 year-old Merriweather Lewis and his partner William Clark, rounded up their party and headed west. With them they took a map showing just three points — the Mississippi as far as Mandan, the position of St. Louis and the location of the mouth of the Columbia River in the Pacific Northwest. It was Lewis and Clark's task to fill in the rest.

"Your observations are to be taken with great pains and accuracy," President Thomas Jefferson instructed. "In all your intercourse with the natives, treat them in the most friendly and conciliatory manner." To this end, the expedition's supplies included 4,600 sewing needles, 144 small scissors, 8 brass kettles, 33 pounds of colored beads, and a quantity of vermilion face paint.

Traveling with Lewis and Clark were 32 men and a young Indian woman named Sacagawea. When the expedition limped into St. Louis on September 23, 1806, it had covered 8,000 miles, bringing back priceless information about the rivers and mountains of the region, the plants and animals and people.



FIGURE 1.10

Based on this picture of a woman in a traditional Russian coat, do you think the weather in Russia is more tropical or wintery? Do you think it is that way all the time in Russia? How would you find out?

Humans are curious creatures, always wondering what lies beyond the horizon. Lewis and Clark did not describe themselves as geographers, but they might well have. Geography is the study of the surface of the earth. It is about people and places. It is about the physical character of a country, its climates and landscapes, and its biological environment.

Eratosthenes was the first to use the word "Geographica" as the title of his book in the 3rd century B.C.E. Eratosthenes figured out the size of the earth. His method was rather simple. He knew that on the summer solstice in Aswan, the sun shines directly overhead at noon. In Alexandria, 500 miles to the north, he found it cast a shadow, giving an angle of about 7.2 degrees. Assuming the sun is sufficiently distant that its rays are parallel, he calculated the earth's circumference by the ratios: $7.2/360 = 500/x$. His figure of 25,000 miles was very close to reality.

Mapping the World

The geographer's most important tool is the map. Mapmaking went through a revolution in 15th and 16th centuries when a marvelous age of exploration dawned. Bartolomeu Dias, who discovered the Cape of Good Hope in 1487, was followed by Vasco da Gama, who pioneered the route to India. In 1492, Columbus crossed the Atlantic. And in 1519, Magellan set out on his ambitious voyage to circumnavigate the planet.

Magellan's venture was not a happy one. Approaching the tip of South America his crew mutinied, terrified by ferocious weather. Magellan executed some, imprisoned others, and marooned the ringleader on a remote shore of South America. Rounding Tierra del Fuego — the southern tip of South America — Magellan headed into the Pacific. He trusted his maps and thought it would take only a few days to cross. But his trip took four months. Drinking water became putrid and turned yellow. The crew almost starved. They were reduced to eating sawdust, leather strips, and rats.

As sailors returned and more information came in, more of the earth needed to be mapped. Cartographers — or mapmakers — faced a fascinating problem. How could the three-dimensional surface of the earth be represented on a two-dimensional page? They learned it could not be done without sacrificing shape, direction, or size.

Have you ever been lost? How did you find your way back home? Did you ask someone, consult a map, or wander around until you recognized something?

Mercator Plots the Course

In 1569, Gerardus Mercator, a Flemish mapmaker, devised a brilliant solution and produced the earth's most famous map. On a globe, lines of longitude meet at the poles. Mercator opened them up to make them parallel, intersecting at right angles with lines of latitude. In another adjustment, he placed latitude lines farther apart as they approached north and south.

The map had certain drawbacks. Regions near the poles suffered gross distortions. Greenland, for example, appeared several times the size of South America. Sailors, for whom the map was prepared, did not much care. What mattered was that the map offered a simple way to plot a course.

In 1585, Mercator began to publish his maps in book form. Engraved on the title page appeared the Greek god, Atlas, carrying the earth upon his back. Ever since, a book of maps has been known as an atlas.



FIGURE 1.11

(ISN) Interactive Student Notebook Assignments

1. Describe the process archaeologist use to discover lost artifact.
2. Outline some of the ways anthropologist learn about society.
3. Explain what the letters AD, BC, CE, BCE mean and what are the difference in their use.
4. Explain why historians know or write so little about society prior to 3000BC.
5. Summarize the methods geographers use to study and organize information about the earth.

(ISN) Discussion and Study Questions

1. Why do we study history?
2. Why might Herodotus be considered the first world historian?
3. How did Geographers deal with issue of mapping a 3-dimensional and 2-dimensional surface?

(ISN) Tech Activities

Examine the reference atlas of the world Maps101.com pay attention the names of the continents/regions. Then create or print an outline map of the world. Consider alternative interpretations on how to organize the world, for example, does Latin and English America provide a better description of the commonalities in the Americas instead of North, Central, and South America?

Vocabulary

Quizlet Flashcard Vocabulary for People that make history and Periodization

TABLE 1.1:

anthropologist	a scientist who studies artifacts in order to understand the origins, customs and beliefs of humankind.
archaeologist	a scientist who studies past human life and culture by the recovery and examination of artifacts.
artifact	anything created and left behind by humans that gives information about the culture of its creator.
geographer	a scientist who studies the earth and its features and of the distribution of life on the earth, including human life and the effects of human activity.
historian	one who records and interprets human events of the past.
economics	the study of the human behaviors practiced by people in order to meet their needs.
era	a segment of historical time.
periodization	the division of history into periods or segments of time.
Stone Age	an historical era existing before humans learned to develop metal technologies, characterized by a hunting and gathering way of life.
turning points	an event marking a unique or important historical change of course.

Internet Resources

[ABC-CLIO](#) provides a database of Daily Lives throughout the World over different periods of time.

[Maps101](#) provides collections, videos, map and other resources that can be downloaded, streamed, or printed for student use.

[ushistory.org](#) provides the a free online textbook for complete readings of extracts included in the section

1.2 Periodization and SPICES

1.2 Periodization and SPICES

At the end of this section, the student will be able to

- identify major causes and describe the major effects of the following events from 8000 BC to 500 BC: the development of agriculture and the development of the river valley civilizations.[WHS.1A]
- identify major causes and describe the major effects of the following events from 500 BC to AD 600: the development of the classical civilizations of Greece, Rome, Persia, India (Maurya and Gupta), China (Zhou, Qin, and Han), and the development of major world religions.[WHS.1B]
- identify major causes and describe the major effects of the following important turning points in world history from 600 to 1450: the spread of Christianity, the decline of Rome and the formation of medieval Europe; the development of Islamic caliphates and their impact on Asia, Africa, and Europe; the Mongol invasions and their impact on Europe, China, India, and Southwest Asia.[WHS.1C]
- identify major causes and describe the major effects of the following important turning points in world history from 1450 to 1750: the rise of the Ottoman Empire, the influence of the Ming dynasty on world trade, European exploration and the Columbian Exchange, European expansion, and the Renaissance and the Reformation.[WHS.1D]
- identify major causes and describe the major effects of the following important turning points in world history from 1750 to 1914: the Scientific Revolution, the Industrial Revolution and its impact on the development of modern economic systems, European imperialism, and the Enlightenment's impact on political revolutions.[WHS.1E]
- identify major causes and describe the major effects of the following important turning points in world history from 1914 to the present: the world wars and their impact on political, economic, and social systems; communist revolutions and their impact on the Cold War; independence movements; and globalization.[WHS.1F]
- analyze information by sequencing, categorizing, identifying cause-and-effect relationships, comparing, contrasting, finding the main idea, summarizing, making generalizations and predictions, drawing inferences and conclusions, and developing connections between historical events over time.[WHS.29F]

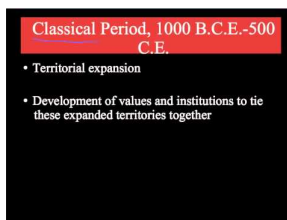
WHAT IS PERIODIZATION?

Periodization is a technique that is used in the study of history. Each period is defined by following three conditions: the first condition, is geographical component civilization may contract or shrink, the spread of the civilization from smaller to wider area. The second condition, is the increase or decrease in contacts across regions (trade, conflict, migration). Finally, parallel developments are found across the globe. Often these events do not happen at the exact same time across the world. So dates are not the best way to define a period. Rather, dates act as a guide and often there is controversy over which dates to use. The example that will be presented is taken from the Texas Essential Knowledge and Skills.

Two keys ideas that need to be understand are turning points and eras. First, eras are a large period of time. As you begin, you will notice that early eras, also known as ages or periods, usually stretch over longer periods of time. As history moves closer to the present, the period of time is significantly shorter. What accounts for this difference in time? Mainly, it's based on the developments that took place during that period of time. A second factor is the amount of physical evidence, especially recorded or written evidence. Early time periods show that developments took much longer than they do today. Therefore, information is usually generalized in the early periods and more specific in the modern era.

The second key idea is a turning point in history. A turning point is when a common way of doing things changes. The causes may vary from region to region and from era to era. Also, as was stated before this changes happen at different rates. A factor that affects the rate of change is contact with other societies such as trade and war. The more contact the more that civilization will adapt or risk the chance of being absorbed by a more powerful society. Other catalyst to change include disease, natural disaster, advances and spread of technology.

Putting the concept of era and turning point together, allows historians to group large periods of time together. The periods being introduced below begin with rise of agriculture and civilization, followed by the rise of regional empires, this trend will continue and lead to trans-regional empires and increased contacts. Key technologic advances in the rate at which these contacts can take place and the methods and purposes for these contact eventually connects the Old and New Worlds beyond the idea of trans-regional to a global community of trade, conquest, and diffusion. Finally, it ends with the 20th century and change is accelerated by communication technology, world wars, and global trade.



MEDIA

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FOUNDATION PERIOD

The Foundation period begins in 8,000 BC and continues to 500 BC. As the name Foundation implies, civilization is in its early developments. What is significant is the developments that occur in this era will be built on by the following periods, this process will continue throughout time. The key firsts, are the rise of agriculture and sedentary cultures. One thing to keep in mind is that prior to those key firsts all societies were nomadic. Some were still hunters and gatherers but several had begun domesticating animals and are better described as pastoralists. However, the need for more food to support larger sedentary populations resulted in improvements of farming. These improvements furthered the population growth and civilization began to blossom into generally small city-states, states with complex institutions. The era or period is divided into two sub-periods: the Neolithic (Revolution) and the Ancient River Valley Civilizations. Finally, the period ends with rise of large, regional empires.

CLASSICAL PERIOD

The Classical period begins in 500 BC and continues to 600 AD. The major change that starts this era is the development of large, regional empires. These empires centralize power through the use military aristocracies and various forms of bureaucracy. This allows them to integrate their regions through the use of roads and sea travel. Permanent traditions largely started in the Foundation era become characteristics of these newly formed regional civilizations. The four main areas are in China, India, South West Asia, and the Mediterranean Sea. These empires make strong contacts between regional centers. Other areas that grew in isolation from Europe and Asia are Mesoamerica and Andean America. Still do not forget that civilization is growing rapidly but there are many societies outside classical civilizations that made significant contributions to the regional civilizations, such as pastoralists and other nomads. The period ends with the collapse of Classical empires when massive nomadic invasions sweep through Asia and Europe.

POST-CLASSICAL AGE

The Post-Classical period begins 600 AD to 1450 AD. The fall of the great Classical Empires creates an opportunity for civilizations and pastoral societies outside of them to come to prominence. Beginning with rise of Islam, the first trans-regional civilization as it spanned Eurasia and Africa. The two great powers merge in China and in the Middle East. The spread of universalizing religions, philosophies of Christianity, Islam, and Buddhism promote ideas on equality and will reunite the old regional empires and add new civilizations into a network of global contacts. These new developments will see the rise of new civilization centers. The period comes to an end with the conquest of the

Mongols and the spread of the Black Death and Asian technological innovations.



MEDIA

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CONNECTING EAST WEST ERA

The Early Modern Era or “Connecting East and West Era” begins in 1450 AD and ends 1750 AD. The rise of gunpowder empires in the Middle East and Europe allow for the rise of Western Europe. Navigation techniques borrowed from Asia allow the Iberian Peninsula to discover the new world and thus the world begins to shrink. All continents are included in world network and global trade takes place for first time. This leads to the great exchanges of goods, products, flora, fauna, people, germs, and ideas (European and Christianity) between East and West.

AGE of REVOLUTION

Age of Revolution begins 1750 AD and ends in 1914. The era is characterized by massive change in the following areas: technological change caused by the Industrial Revolution, Political Revolution brought on by the Enlightenment, Intellectual change caused by the Renaissance and Reformation, and Social change that moves people from rural areas to populated urban centers. Vast trade networks are solidified and dominated by Europe, which leads to western global hegemony. The nation-state rises to replace previously formed systems of political control with Great Britain, France, and Germany competing to divide the world. This referred to as Imperialism, others such as Russia, the USA, and Japan join the older European powers. Western Culture begins to dominate the globe through colonization.

MODERN ERA

The Modern era begins 1914 AD with World War I and continues to the Present “Change, Change, Change” are its main calling cards. Often referred to as The American Century and the Retreat of Europe as two World Wars severely alter the hierarchy of power and Europe’s control over its colonies. In addition the areas of the Pacific Rim and India begin to rise. This leads to the collapse of European colonial empires. As modernization attempts bring industrialization to the areas outside of initial influence, local values and traditionalism run the risk of being lost. As modernization promotes westernization, mass culture promoted by new telecommunication technologies begins to transform, such as the development of lingua francas, ways of the past are forgotten. Lastly, the battle between new political forms which pit political and economic ideas of democracy, free enterprises against socialism, communism, and totalitarianism. Issue such as genocide and ethnic cleansing promote the development of global organizations which attempt to protect human rights and promote exchange.



MEDIA

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SPICES

SPICES is mnemonic tool used to help students recall the themes or structures historians use to analyze, evaluate, and compare information on various societies within and out of an era. S stands for Social Structure, P stands

for Political Structure, I stands for Interactions between civilizations, C stands for Cultural Structure, E stands for Economic Structure, S stands for spaces which is another term used to connect student with geography.

Social Structure

- Economic, Social Classes
- Gender Roles, Relations
- Inequalities
- Family, Kinship
- Racial, Ethnic Constructs

Political Structure

- States
- Leaders
- Forms of Control
- Law
- Bureaucracy
- State-building, expansion

Interactions

- War, Conflict
- Trade, Commerce
- Exchanges, Migrations
- Diplomacy, Alliances
- Transnational Organizations

Cultural Structures

- Cultural
- Intellectual
- Arts, Architecture
- Religion
- World Views
- Philosophy
- Lifestyles, Entertainment
- Literatures
- Secularism, Atheism
- Ideologies and “isms”

Economic Structures

- Industrialization
- Economic Systems
- Capitalism, Socialism
- Business Organizations
- Labor, Labor Organizations
- Technology
- Industry

- Science, Invention, Innovation
- Power
- Transportation
- Communication

Spaces = Geography

- Location
- Physical
- Movement
- Use
- Environment
- Land forms

(ISN) Interactive Student Notebook Assignments

1. Summarize the reasons Historians break history into eras.
2. Outline the Periodization that will be used in class, ensure you include name of era, date, and at least 3 ideas from the era.
3. Explain why there is no one accepted convention for periodization.
4. List and define the terms below each structure in SPICES.

(ISN) Discussion and Study Questions

1. Why are the eras in early history so much shorter than recent history eras?
2. What was the turning point that took place that brought an end to the Classical era?
3. Which era probably has the most information?
4. Why is SPICES an appropriate term for themes in world history?
5. What are the peaceful forms of Interaction?

(ISN) Tech Activities

Vocabulary

[Quizlet Flashcard Vocabulary for Periodization and SPICES](#)

TABLE 1.2:

economics	the study of the human behaviors practiced by people in order to meet their needs.
era	a segment of historical time.
periodization	the division of history into periods or segments of time.
Stone Age	an historical era existing before humans learned to develop metal technologies, characterized by a hunting and gathering way of life.
turning points	an event marking a unique or important historical change of course.

Internet Resources

1.3 Prehistoric Times

1.3 Prehistoric Times

Student Learning Objectives:

At the end of this section, the student will be able to:

- identify major causes and describe the major effects of the following events from 8000 BC to 500 BC: the development of agriculture and the development of the river valley civilizations.[WHS.1A]
- interpret maps, charts, and graphs to explain how geography has influenced people and events in the past.[WHS.16C]
- identify significant examples of art and architecture that demonstrate an artistic ideal or visual principle from selected cultures.[WHS.26A]
- analyze examples of how art, architecture, literature, music, and drama reflect the history of the cultures in which they are produced.[WHS.26B]
- identify examples of art, music, and literature that transcend the cultures in which they were created and convey universal themes.[WHS.26C]

The Stone Age

Evidence of life from about 30,000 years ago has been found in cave paintings, in burial chambers, and in the form of crude tools. But what about time dating earlier than that? This "Prehistoric" period — before writing and civilizations — is called the Stone Age and is extremely valuable to our understanding of our earliest *hominid* ancestors. Hominids comprise humans today, extinct ancestors, and apes that share similarities with humans.

The earliest and longest period of the Stone Age is called the Paleolithic Age. This comes from the Greek word *Palaios*, meaning "long ago" or "old," and *lithos*, meaning "stone" — put together, Paleolithic Age means Old Stone Age.

The Old Stone Age began approximately 4.5 million years ago. It lasted until about 25 thousand years ago — relatively recently in terms of the overall age of the earth. It was at the beginning of the Old Stone Age, approximately 4.4 million years ago, that the first human ancestors made their appearance on earth.

Approximately 3.5 million years ago, hominids began walking upright. What did they eat? Where did they live? The archaeological evidence is not clear. Those who study the earliest hominids do know, however, that these human ancestors physically changed in response to their environment.

Chill Out

Dramatic changes in world climate started taking place about 1.5 million years ago. Most of the world became cold — really cold. This plunge in temperature began one of four distinct periods of frigid temperatures known as an Ice Age. Each of these frigid periods lasted from 10,000 to 50,000 years. The most recent chilled the Earth just over 10,000 years ago.

During this most recent Ice Age, the northern polar icecap moved so far south that massive sheets of ice were created over much of the northern hemisphere. In some areas the ice was several miles thick. About 1/3 of the earth's surface was encased in an icy layer — that's four times the amount of ice normally found on earth today. Naturally, hunting and gathering abilities were interfered with during the Ice Ages.

Once these frigid years were over, a revolution took place — humans started planting crops. This new way of life, which began about 10,000 years ago, led to permanent settlements and the world's first communities. Farming and

the domestication of animals mark the beginning of the Neolithic Age, also called the New Stone Age.

So what they did they wear and eat? What follows is a look at some of our earliest known human ancestors — how they lived, how they changed, and how they interacted with their environment.

Archeologists and anthropologists unearth the remains of prehistoric people. Their work helps to answer profound questions:

- Who are humans?
- Where did we come from?
- Where are we going?

Food, Clothing and Shelter

Could you survive in the wild? TV shows like "Gilligan's Island" and "Survivor" and books and movies like "Lord of the Flies" ask this question. Small groups of people are set down on a deserted island and left to fend for themselves. They have none of the things we take for granted, such as easy access to food, shelter, clothing, or video games. There are no cities, no roads, no tools, no doctors, no computers — and no malls.

In part, these shows are so compelling because it is interesting to ponder how each one of us would do in such a setting. Could you create tools, make rules, gather food, or work with wood? Could you weave clothes, protect your toes, fight off a beast, or know which direction is east?

Now take yourself back 20,000 years. For Neanderthal Man, each and every day was a challenge. What was life like for Neanderthals? How did early humans find food, make clothing, and seek shelter?.

Hominids, History, and Prehistory

Modern day farm animals were pretty different from the original wild animals. Find out where the horse and the chicken came from.

Before answering these questions, it will be useful to understand how we know what we know about early hominids. Hominids are from the family *hominidae*, and refer to primate mammals who could stand on two legs. We are hominids as were our ancestors, including Java Man, Neanderthal Man, Beijing Man, and Lucy.

When studying humans, historians strongly rely on written records to gather information about the past. History, as it pertains to mankind, is said to begin with the invention of writing, about 5,000 years ago.

But humans lived long before the invention of writing. *Prehistory* refers to this long time period before writing was invented. How do we know what life was like if there were no written records of prehistory? Anthropologists and archaeologists work together with other scientists in answering this question. They use artifacts and fossils — clues from ancient times. After testing and analyzing them, educated conclusions are made about life in prehistoric times. Some of the conclusions are wrong, some are somewhat correct, and others may be entirely correct. Some theories will change as the next generations of scientists and historians glean more information.

Imagine yourself digging through a stranger's trash. You can draw some conclusions about his or her life based on what you find. While archaeologists don't exactly dig through trash, they do sift through fossil remains and artifacts and try to explain things.

For the Ages

Prehistory is divided into different time periods. The use of stone tools by early people led historians to apply the name Stone Age to the period before writing became established.



FIGURE 1.12

The Paleolithic, or Old Stone Age, began about 4.5 million years ago and lasted until about 8000 B.C.E. Many anthropologists believe that creatures vaguely resembling *Homo sapiens* (that's us today) may have lived at the onset of the Stone Age.

The Neolithic, or New Stone Age, lasted from 8000 B.C.E. until approximately 3000 B.C.E. By the end of this era,

villages and farms had come into existence.

Scientists believe that the earliest hominids may have used caves as shelters. They probably ate vegetables and gathered seeds, fruits, nuts and other edible plants. Later, scientists speculate, meat was added to the diet as small animals were hunted. Eventually, humans hunted large animals.

In order to hunt successfully, early men had to work together. As humans became successful hunters, they migrated over great distances in search of food. For nearly a million years, however, periods of extremely cold weather during the Ice Age limited the areas to which early people could migrate. Prehistoric people learned how to use fire and make warm clothing in response to this cold climate.

Neanderthals and Cro-Magnons



FIGURE 1.13

In 1856, human remains were found in the Neander Valley of Germany. This is where the Neanderthal people lived some 60,000 years ago. They had stocky builds, heavy jaws, thick eyebrow ridges, and large noses. Unlike hominids who came before them, they made efficient tools and wore heavy clothing made of animal skins.

Most Neanderthals lived in groups of 50 people. Some may have dwelled in open-air camps along the shores of lakes and rivers. They cared for their sick and aged and may have been the first to practice a primitive form of medicine.

The Cro-Magnons were one of the earliest *Homo sapiens*. They lived in Europe and lived after the Neanderthals. They lived inside cave entrances while others built huts in forested areas. Long houses made of stone blocks were also used for communities of 30-100 people. Hunting weapons which allowed for a safe distance, such as the spear and bow, were used to hunt the woolly mammoth and bison.

How did early Homo Sapiens such as Cro-Magnons compare with humans of today? In essence, we are brainier and they were brawnier. But the similarities, despite the passage of thousands of years, are striking.

A Page Right Out of History

Because there was no written language 50,000 years ago, we do not have much information on how a "modern stone age family" lived, what they ate, where they lived, what they wore, or even what they looked like. Like Fred Flintstone, did they have leopardskin suits, go barefoot, and use a boulder for a bowling ball?

Archaeologists and anthropologist who study this time period do have artifacts upon which they can begin to draw some conclusions. Techniques like carbon dating can help scientists determine the age of objects and bones. Large

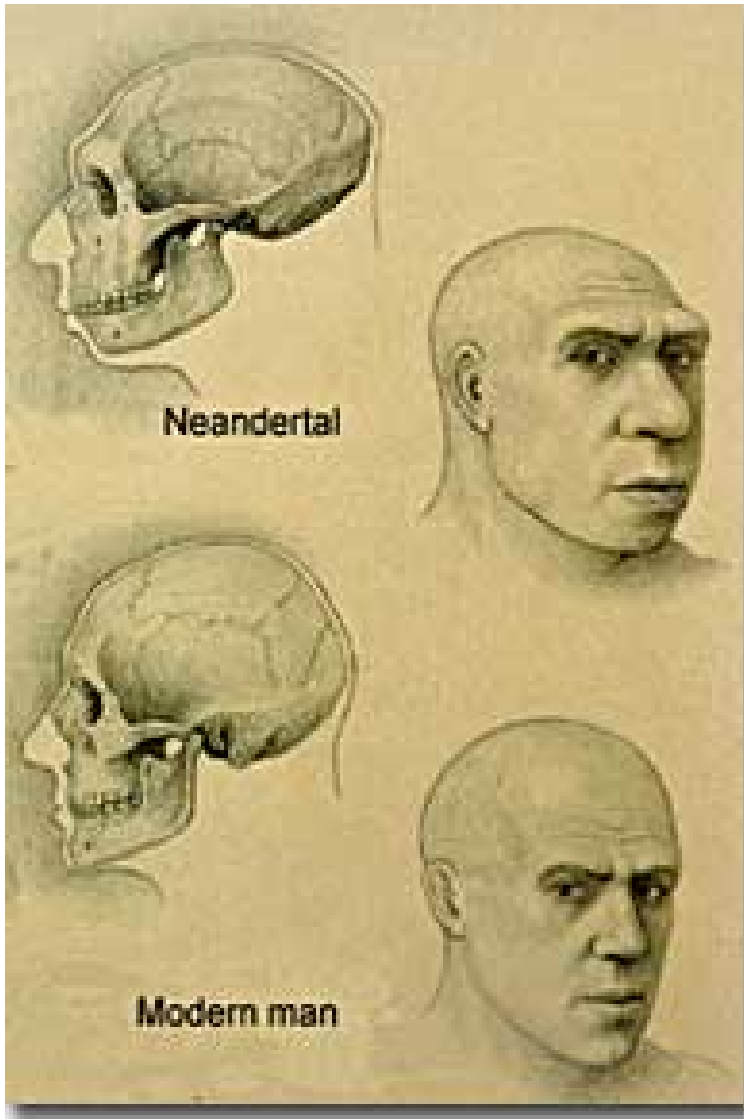


FIGURE 1.14

human skulls, body bones, animal skeletons, cave paintings, and scientific ideas on ancient climate patterns allow scientists to draw a picture of what life may have been like for primitive people

Archaeologists excavate artifacts at Çatal Hüyük. This Turkish site is one of the oldest human settlements to be discovered.

Long and Evolved Story

As a result of the Neolithic Revolution, humans were forced to settle in one place permanently in order to grow food. Shown here is an example of early Neolithic settlement; the remnants of an early village in Jordan.

People living in Africa and advances in agriculture sparked the beginning of the Mesolithic Age or Middle Stone Age. This period lasted from 12,000 till about 10,000 years ago in Africa and Asia, although this date varies according to region. Raising crops for food signifies the beginning of a new way of life for people.

The Neolithic Age or New Stone Age was revolutionary. About 10,000 years ago people learned to make better tools and weapons, establish permanent villages and domesticate animals for food and work. They were beginning to live



FIGURE 1.15



FIGURE 1.16

like "modern" people.

This "Neolithic or Agricultural Revolution," did not happen overnight. It took several millennia after the first discovery of agriculture for people to form settled societies.

Jarmo in present day Iraq was one of the oldest. At 8750 years old this little town was home to 200 inhabitants. Catal Huyuk in present day Turkey was an even larger society with almost 3000 residents 8000 years ago.

Slowly but surely modern human beings had evolved.

(ISN)

Vocabulary

TABLE 1.3:

TABLE 1.3: (continued)

Stone Age	an historical era existing before humans learned to develop metal technologies, characterized by a hunting and gathering way of life.
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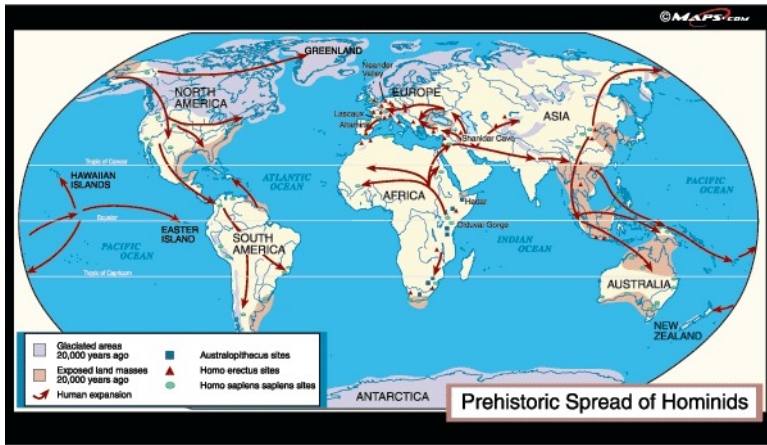


FIGURE 1.17

Internet Resources

1.4 Neolithic Revolution (Humans Try and Control Nature) and the Rise of River Valley Civilizations

Neolithic Revolution [WHS.14, WHS.2A, WHS.17A, WHS.17B, WHS.24A, WHS.29F, WHS.30A, WHS.30B, WHS.30C, WHS.30D]

1.4 The Neolithic Revolution (Humans Try and Control Nature)

Student Learning Objectives

At the end of this section students will be able to:

- identify major causes and describe the major effects of the following events from 8000 BC to 500 BC: the development of agriculture.

The term *Neolithic Revolution* was coined in 1923 by V. Gordon Childe to describe the first in a series of agricultural revolutions in Middle Eastern history. The period is described as a "revolution" to denote its importance, and the great significance and degree of change affecting the communities in which new agricultural practices were gradually adopted and refined.

The beginning of this process in different regions has been dated from 10,000 to 8,000 BC in the Fertile Crescent and perhaps 8000 BC in the Kuk Early Agricultural Site of Melanesia to 2500 BC in Subsaharan Africa, with some considering the developments of 9000–7000 BC in the Fertile Crescent to be the most important. This transition everywhere seems associated with a change from a largely nomadic hunter-gatherer way of life to a more settled, agrarian-based one, with the inception of the domestication of various plant and animal species—depending on the species locally available, and probably also influenced by local culture. Recent archaeological research suggests that in some regions such as the Southeast Asian peninsula, the transition from hunter-gatherer to agriculturalist was not linear, but region-specific.

A **civilization** (or **civilisation** in British English) is any complex state society characterized by urban development, social stratification, symbolic communication forms (typically, writing systems), and a perceived separation from and domination over the natural environment. Civilizations are intimately associated with and often further defined by other socio-politico-economic characteristics, including centralization, the domestication of both humans and other organisms, specialization of labor, culturally ingrained ideologies of progress and supremacism, monumental architecture, taxation, societal dependence upon agriculture, and expansionism. Historically, a *civilization* was an "advanced" culture in contrast to more supposedly barbarian, savage, or primitive cultures. In this broad sense, a civilization contrasts with non-centralized feudal or tribal societies, including the cultures of nomadic pastoralists or hunter-gatherers. As an uncountable noun, *civilization* also refers to the process of a society developing into a centralized, urbanized, stratified structure.

Civilizations are organized in densely populated settlements divided into hierarchical social classes with a ruling elite and subordinate urban and rural populations, which, by the engagement in intensive agriculture, mining, small-scale manufacture and trade. Civilization concentrates power, extending human control over the rest of nature, including over other human beings.



MEDIA

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Think fire wasn't a big deal? Think again. Read this article about how the origin of cooking affected our brains. [Article Link](#)



MEDIA

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(ISN) Interactive Student Notebook Assignment

1. List three examples of the earliest know place for agriculture to develop.
2. List the elements of a civilization?
3. Describe the activities that take place in civilizations?

(ISN) Discussion and Study Questions

1. Describe the techniques and methods used to develop farming and herding.
2. Explain the new challenges which sedentary societies faced that they would not as a nomadic society?
3. How did daily life change due to the shift from a nomadic lifestyle to a sedentary one?
4. How did the roles of women and the family change after the Neolithic Revolution?
5. What groups or institutions were formed to help develop and sustain an agricultural society?
6. What is "surplus" and how did it lead to the development of civilization?

(ISN) Tech Activities

Vocabulary

[Quizlet Flashcard Vocabulary for Neolithic Revoultion and the Rise of Agriculture](#)

TABLE 1.4:

civilization	complex societies characterized by cities, specialized workers, complex institutions, record keeping, and advanced technology.
culture	the customary beliefs, social forms, and material traits of a society.
domestication	to take animals out of the wild and breed them for food production.
hunter-gatherer	a member of a culture in which food is obtained by hunting, fishing, and foraging rather than by agriculture or the domestication of animals.
Neolithic Revolution	the major change in human life caused by the beginnings of farming when people shifted from being hunters and gatherers to becoming food producers.
nomads	people who have no fixed residence but move from place to place in order to obtain food.
Paleolithic	of or relating to the earliest period of the Stone Age, ending about 15,000 years ago.

Rise 1

1.5 Tigris and Euphrates River Valley, Mesopotamia

1.5 Tigris and Euphrates River Valley, Mesopotamia

Students Learning Objectives

At the end of this section the student will be able to:

- identify the major causes and describe the major effects of the events from 8000BC to 500 BC: the development of the river valley civilizations.
- summarize the impact of the development of farming (Neolithic Revolution) on the creation of river valley civilizations.
- identify the characteristics of a civilization.
- describe the major political, religious/philosophical, and cultural influences of Persia, India, China, Israel, Greece, and Rome, including the development of monotheism, Judaism, and Christianity.

The Fertile Crescent: Mesopotamia, Sumer, and Ur

Mesopotamia literally means "(Land) between rivers" in ancient Greek. The oldest known occurrence of the name Mesopotamia dates to the 4th century BC, when it was used to designate the land east of the Euphrates in north Syria. Later it was more generally applied to all the lands between the Euphrates and the Tigris, thereby incorporating not only parts of Syria but also almost all of Iraq and southeastern Turkey. The neighboring steppes to the west of the Euphrates and the western part of the Zagros Mountains are also often included under the wider term Mesopotamia.

Throughout the centuries, historians have used these powerful words to describe the Middle East.

In the ancient Middle East, many great civilizations rose and fell. The religions of Judaism, Christianity, and Islam each trace their origins back to this part of the world.

All of these civilizations arose in the area known as the Fertile Crescent. The Fertile Crescent stretches from the Mediterranean Sea in the west to the Zagros Mountains in the east. It is bordered in the north by the Taurus Mountains and in the south by the Persian Gulf and the Arabian Desert. Its shape resembles a crescent moon.

One area within the Fertile Crescent gave rise to the region's most powerful empires and grandest cities. This area was Mesopotamia, the land between the Tigris and Euphrates Rivers.

The Fertile Crescent is the region in which humans first began farming and herding around 8,000 B.C.E. This dramatic change from nomadic hunting and gathering allowed early humans to settle into permanent villages and to begin accumulating a surplus of food.

With such a surplus, early villagers could begin to focus on developing the skills associated with civilization. Some of them became priests, scribes, merchants, artists, teachers, and government officials. They began to build cities, and before long, they were establishing empires. The Sumerians, Babylonians, Assyrians, Persians, and Phoenicians all built great empires, each of which rose to glory in the Middle East.

Because they were constantly interacting through war and trade, the societies in the Middle East borrowed from each other. They modified newly acquired ideas and technologies to suit their own needs. Often, these changes were improvements. Over time, many aspects of various societies throughout the ancient Middle East began to resemble each other.

The Middle East is also the crossroads of the ancient world. It is located at the merging point of three continents: Europe, Africa, and Asia. Many travelers who journeyed from one continent to the next passed through the Middle



FIGURE 1.18
Map showing the extent of Mesopotamia

East, absorbing its culture and introducing new ideas to the region. Throughout the centuries, its prized location became the source of conflict. Its goods became the source of envy.

And its ideas became the source of faith.

The Sumerians were firmly established in Mesopotamia by the middle of the 4th millennium BCE, in the archaeological Uruk period, although scholars dispute when they arrived. It is hard to tell where the Sumerians might have come from because the Sumerian language is a language isolate, unrelated to any other known language. Their mythology includes many references to the area of Mesopotamia but little clue regarding their place of origin, perhaps indicating that they had been there for a long time. The Sumerian language is identifiable from its initially logographic script which arose last half of the 4th millennium BCE.

By the 3rd millennium BCE, these urban centers had developed into increasingly complex societies. Irrigation and other means of exploiting food sources were being used to amass large surpluses. Huge building projects were being undertaken by rulers, and political organization was becoming ever more sophisticated. Throughout the millennium, the various city-states Kish, Uruk, Ur and Lagash vied for power and gained hegemony at various times. Nippur and Girsu were important religious centers, as was Eridu at this point. This was also the time of Gilgamesh, a semi-historical king of Uruk, and the subject of the famous *Epic of Gilgamesh*. By 2600 BCE, the logographic script had developed into a decipherable cuneiform syllabic script.

The chronology of this era is particularly uncertain due to difficulties in our understanding of the text, our understanding of the material culture of the Early Dynastic period and a general lack of radiocarbon dates for sites in Iraq. Also, the multitude of city-states made for a confusing situation, as each had its own history. The Sumerian king list is one record of the political history of the period. It starts with mythological figures with improbably long reigns, but later rulers have been authenticated with archaeological evidence. The first of these is Enmebaragesi of Kish, c. 2600 BC, said by the king list to have subjected neighboring Elam. However, one complication of the Sumerian king list is that although dynasties are listed in sequential order, some of them actually ruled at the same time over different areas.

Enshakushanna of Uruk conquered all of Sumer, Akkad, and Hamazi, followed by Eannatum of Lagash who also conquered Sumer. His methods were force and intimidation (see the Stele of the Vultures), and soon after his death, the cities rebelled and the empire again fell apart. Some time later, Lugal-Anne-Mundu of Adab created the first, if short-lived, empire to extend west of Mesopotamia, at least according to historical accounts dated centuries later. The last native Sumerian to rule over most of Sumer before Sargon of Akkad established supremacy was Lugal-Zage-Si.

During the 3rd millennium BCE, there developed a very intimate cultural symbiosis between the Sumerians and the Akkadians which included widespread bilingualism. The influence of Sumerian on Akkadian (and vice versa) is evident in all areas, from lexical borrowing on a massive scale, to syntactic, morphological, and phonological convergence. This has prompted scholars to refer to Sumerian and Akkadian in the 3rd millennium as a *sprachbund*.

Akkadian gradually replaced Sumerian as the spoken language of Mesopotamia somewhere around the turn of the 3rd and the 2nd millennium BCE (the exact dating being a matter of debate), but Sumerian continued to be used as a sacred, ceremonial, literary and scientific language in Mesopotamia until the 1st century CE.



FIGURE 1.19

More details The reconstructed facade of the Neo-Sumerian Great Ziggurat of Ur, near Nasiriyah, Iraq

Life in Sumer

The first writing system. The plow. The sailboat. The first lunar calendar.

These accomplishments and more were the products of the city-states of Sumer, which arose on the flood plains of the Tigris and Euphrates Rivers in what is now modern-day Iraq. The Sumerians began to build their walled cities and make significant advances beginning around 3500 B.C.E.

Sumerians also developed high-quality crafts, evidence of which was found in the royal tombs of Ur, excavated by Sir Leonard Woolley in the 1920s. Trade also helped the Sumerians to secure vital items such as timber from Lebanon and luxury goods such as the semiprecious stone lapis lazuli from the Indus River Valley.

Because of the surplus grain, the government could grow in size to support numerous officials and priests. It could also pay thousands of workers with barley while they were building canals, city walls, and ziggurats or while they were fighting to defend their city-state or extend its influence over the region. The barley was collected as a tax from the farmers. Farmers were also required to give some time to the government to work on projects. Slaves and hired workers also contributed.

As the government and economy grew in size and complexity, officials and merchants required a sophisticated writing system to record transactions. First came number markings and simple pictograms, the writing system began to incorporate pictures representing a physical object or idea (such as a picture of the sun to represent the sun).

As trade and government activity increased, the writing system began to incorporate more abstract pictograms and phonograms, or symbols representing sounds. These new forms provided greater flexibility and speed in writing. They were adopted by other cultures (such as the Assyrians) who did not even speak Sumerian. **Sumerian Wisdom**

The Sumerians wrote on clay tablets, using a reed pen called a stylus. Once dried, these tablets became hard and, fortunately for today's researchers, endured for millennia in the hot, dry climate.

Thousands of these tablets have been unearthed. Some libraries have even been discovered with over 10,000 of these clay tablets. And although the vast majority of these tablets contain records of goods collected and distributed by the governments and trade transactions, some contain myths, stories, and letters. These documents have provided much information about the culture and history of the Sumerian people.

With their ingenuity, the Sumerian people developed complex irrigation system and a written language. They were the first people to use the plow to lift the silt-laden soil of their crop fields and they invented the sailboat. They were the first people to design a calendar based on the phase of the moon and they developed a numerical system, based on the number 60, that is still used to measure seconds and minutes. **Gilgamesh**

Gilgamesh was likely an actual king of Uruk in Babylonia who lived about 2700 B.C.E.

Sumerians recorded stories and myths about Gilgamesh, which were written on clay tablets. The stories were combined into an epic tale. Versions of this tale were translated into other languages including Akkadian, which was spoken by the Babylonians.

The fullest surviving version is derived from twelve stone tablets, in the Akkadian language, which were found stored in the famous library at Nineveh of Assyrian King Assurbanipal.

The epic relates the heroic deeds of Gilgamesh, who is the king of Uruk. His father is mortal and his mother is a goddess. Since Gilgamesh is part mortal, he knows he must die one day. However, he longs for immortality, whether through doing great deeds or discovering the secret of eternal life. He roams the earth on this quest and meets Utnapishtim, the only human granted eternal life by the gods. He tells Gilgamesh many stories, including one of a great flood that covered the Earth.

What happens to Gilgamesh? Read the tale and find out. The following is an excerpt from Gilgamesh.

O man of Shuruppak, son of Ubartutu: Tear down the house and build a boat! Abandon wealth and seek living beings! Spurn possessions and keep alive living beings! Make all living beings go up into the boat. The boat which you are to build, its dimensions must measure equal to each other: its length must correspond to its width. Roof it over like the Apsu. From Tablet XI — translation by Maureen Gallery Kovacs, 1998

A culture of many firsts, the Sumerians led the way for other societies that followed them.

Hammurabi and Hammurabi's Code

The Babylonians used the innovations of the Sumerians, added to them, and built an empire that gave the world, among other things, codified laws, a tower that soared above the earth, and one of the Seven Wonders of the World. Babylonian language evolved from pictographs to cuneiforms throughout the life of the civilization.

Geographically, the empire of Babylonia occupied the middle and southern part of Mesopotamia. Situated between the Tigris and Euphrates Rivers, it stretched from the present-day city of Baghdad south to the Persian Gulf.

Hammurabi ruled for nearly 42 years, c. 1792 to 1750 BC according to the Middle chronology. In the preface to the law, he states, "Anu and Bel called by name me, Hammurabi, the exalted prince, who feared Marduk, the patron god of Babylon (The Human Record, Andrea & Overfield 2005), to bring about the rule in the land." On the stone slab there are 44 columns and 28 paragraphs that contained 282 laws.

The stele was probably erected at Sippar, city of the sun god Shamash, god of justice, who is depicted handing authority to the king in the image at the top of the stele.

In 1901, Egyptologist Gustave Jéquier, a member of an expedition headed by Jacques de Morgan, found the stele containing the Code of Hammurabi in what is now Khūzestān, Iran (ancient Susa, Elam), where it had been taken as plunder by the Elamite king Shutruk-Nahhunte in the 12th century BC.

The Code of Hammurabi was one of several sets of laws in the ancient Near East. The code of laws was arranged in orderly groups, so that everyone who read the laws would know what was required of them. Earlier collections of laws include the Code of Ur-Nammu, king of Ur (c. 2050 BC), the Laws of Eshnunna (c. 1930 BC) and the



















PICTOGRAPHIC SIGN c. 3100 BC						
INTERPRETATION	Star	Stream	Barley	Bull's head	Bowl	Head and bowl
EARLY CUNEIFORM SIGN c. 2400 BC						
LATER CUNEIFORM SIGN c. 700 BC						
MEANING	God, sky	Water, seed, son	Barley	Ox	Food, bread	To eat

FIGURE 1.20

Babylonian language evolved from pictographs to cuneiforms throughout the life of the civilization.

codex of Lipit-Ishtar of Isin (c. 1870 BC), while later ones include the Hittite laws, the Assyrian laws, and Mosaic Law. These codes come from similar cultures in a relatively small geographical area, and they have passages which resemble each other.

The Code of Hammurabi is the longest surviving text from the Old Babylonian period. The code has been seen as an early example of a fundamental law regulating a government — i.e., a primitive constitution. The code is also one of the earliest examples of the idea of presumption of innocence, and it also suggests that both the accused and accuser have the opportunity to provide evidence. The occasional nature of many provisions suggests that the Code may be better understood as a codification of Hammurabi's supplementary judicial decisions, and that, by memorializing his wisdom and justice, its purpose may have been the self-glorification of Hammurabi rather than a modern legal code or constitution. However, its copying in subsequent generations indicates that it was used as a model of legal and judicial reasoning.

"Hammurabi, the king of righteousness, on whom Shamash has conferred the law, am I."

"An eye for an eye, and a tooth for a tooth."

This phrase, along with the idea of written laws, goes back to ancient Mesopotamian culture that prospered long before the Bible was written or the civilizations of the Greeks or Romans flowered.

"An eye for an eye ..." is a paraphrase of Hammurabi's Code, a collection of 282 laws inscribed on an upright stone pillar. The code was found by French archaeologists in 1901 while excavating the ancient city of Susa, which is in modern-day Iran.

Hammurabi is the best known and most celebrated of all Mesopotamian kings. He ruled the Babylonian Empire from 1792-50 B.C.E. Although he was concerned with keeping order in his kingdom, this was not his only reason for compiling the list of laws. When he began ruling the city-state of Babylon, he had control of no more than 50 square miles of territory. As he conquered other city-states and his empire grew, he saw the need to unify the various groups he controlled. **A Need for Justice**

Hammurabi keenly understood that, to achieve this goal, he needed one universal set of laws for all of the diverse peoples he conquered. Therefore, he sent legal experts throughout his kingdom to gather existing laws. These laws were reviewed and some were changed or eliminated before compiling his final list of 282 laws. Despite what many people believe, this code of laws was not the first. **Oldest Code Known**

The oldest known evidence of a law code are tablets from the ancient city Ebla (Tell Mardikh in modern-day Syria). They date to about 2400 B.C.E. — approximately 600 years before Hammurabi put together his famous code.

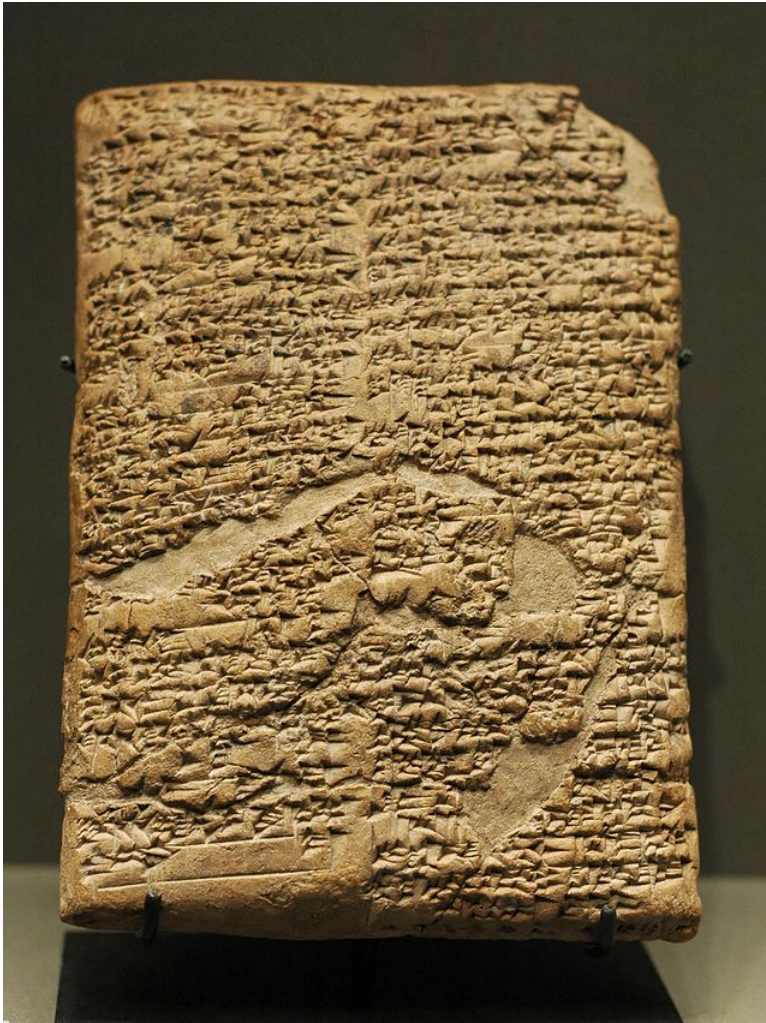


FIGURE 1.21

Code on clay tablet

The prologue or introduction to the list of laws is very enlightening. Here, Hammurabi states that he wants "to make justice visible in the land, to destroy the wicked person and the evil-doer, that the strong might not injure the weak." The laws themselves support this compassionate claim, and protect widows, orphans and others from being harmed or exploited.

The phrase "an eye for an eye" represents what many people view as a harsh sense of justice based on revenge. But, the entire code is much more complex than that one phrase. The code distinguishes among punishments for wealthy or noble persons, lower-class persons or commoners, and slaves.



MEDIA

Click image to the left or use the URL below.

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(ISN) Interactive Student Notebook Assignments

1.

(ISN) Discussion and Study Questions

1.

(ISN) Tech Activities

Vocabulary**Quizlet Flashcard Vocabulary for River Valley Civilizations****TABLE 1.5:**

Code of Hammurabi	a law code enacted by a Babylonian king, with scaled punishments depending on social status, including "an eye for an eye, a tooth for a tooth."
cuneiform	a system of writing with wedge-shaped symbols, invented by the Sumerians around 3000 B.C..
dynasty	a ruling family that passes its authority and power down through many generations.
hieroglyphics	an ancient Egyptian writing system in which pictures were used to represent ideas and sounds.
Mesopotamia	"land between two rivers" - the region located between the Tigris and Euphrates rivers in present-day Iraq.
monarchy	a government in which power is in the hands of a single person.
monotheism	a belief in a single, all powerful god.
polytheism	a belief in many gods.
Sumerians	A people of Mesopotamia that created the first large, complex society in human history
Theocracy	a government controlled by religious leaders; a form of government in which the ruler is viewed as a divine figure.
Tigris & Euphrates Rivers	Major rivers that flow through Mesopotamia. They were critical to the development of Mesopotamian civilization.
Ziggurat	a religious, stepped-pyramid built by the Mesopotamians

1.6 The Nile River Valley

1.6 The Nile River Valley

Student Learning Objectives

At the end of this section students will be able to:

1. identify the major causes and describe the major effects of the following events from 8000 BC to 500 BC: the development of agriculture and the development of the river valley civilizations.
2. summarize the impact of the development of farming (Neolithic Revolution) on the creation of river valley civilizations.
3. identify the characteristics of a civilization and apply them to ancient Egypt.
4. explain how major river valley civilizations influenced the development of the classical civilizations.
5. analyze the influence of human and physical geographic factors on major events in world history, including the development of river valley civilizations, trade in the Indian Ocean, and the opening of the Panama and Suez canals.

Ancient Egypt

Hieroglyphics, pyramids, mummies, the Sphinx of Giza, King Tut, and Cleopatra.

The sands of the Nile River Valley hold many clues about one of the most mysterious, progressive, and artistic ancient civilizations. A great deal of evidence survives about how the ancient Egyptians lived, but questions remain. Even the wise sphinx would have trouble answering some of them. How were the pyramids built? Who came up with the idea for mummies and why? What was a typical day like for a pharaoh?

In De-Nile

In 3,000 B.C.E., Egypt looked similar geographically to the way it looks today. The country was mostly covered by desert. But along the Nile River was a fertile swath that proved — and still proves — a life source for many Egyptians.

The Nile is the longest river in the world; it flows northward for nearly 4,200 miles. In ancient times, crops could be grown only along a narrow, 12-mile stretch of land that borders the river. Early Egyptians grew crops such as beans, wheat, and cotton. Despite the lack of many natural resources, such as forests or an abundance of land for farming, a great society emerged.

Egyptians artisans smelted copper and gold for artistic, architectural, and even military purposes.

Earlier in history, Neolithic (late Stone Age) people thrived in the Nile Valley. The remains that have been uncovered date back to about 6,000 B.C.E. But it wasn't until 3,800 B.C.E. that the valley's inhabitants began to form a cohesive civilization.

The road to civilization required more organization and increased efficiency. Farmers began producing surplus crops that allowed others not only to concentrate on farming but also to pursue other trades, such as mercantilism or skilled craftwork.

Egyptian artisans created copper tools such as chisels and needles — all new inventions — which allowed them to fabricate ornamental jewelry. Artisans also discovered how to make bronze by mixing copper and tin, which marked the beginning of the Bronze Age.

Evidence suggests that ancient Egyptians invented the potter's wheel. This tool made it easier to create pots and jars



FIGURE 1.22

The Nile Valley was the seat of an ancient Egyptian civilization that spanned over 4,000 years.



FIGURE 1.23

for storage, cooking, religious needs, and decoration.

Pharaohs and the Legacy of Ancient Egypt

The pharaohs who ruled Egypt for about 3,000 years were by and large capable administrators, strong military leaders, sophisticated traders, and overseers of great building projects.

A Brief Timeline of Ancient Egypt

Foundation to Demise

Ancient Egypt's great civilization spanned thousands of years, from c. 3000 B.C. until the annexation by Rome in 30 B.C.E.

TABLE 1.6:

DATE (B.C.E.)
6000

EVENT
First inhabitants settle along the Nile Delta.

TABLE 1.6: (continued)

2900	King Menes unites Upper and Lower Egypt.
2772	365-day calendar is invented.
2750	The Old Kingdom is established with its capital in Memphis.
2560	King Khufu (Cheops) builds the Great Pyramids of Giza.
2181	Instability and corruption weaken the empire.
2050	The Middle Kingdom is established and the capital moves to Thebes.
1750	The Hyksos, a group of Semitic-Asiatics, invade and rule Egypt.
1550	The Hyksos are expelled and the New Kingdom established.
1500	Queen Hatshepsut expands the empire south (Nubia) and east (Palestine).
1380	Amenhotep IV ("Akhenaton") supports worship of only one god, the sun-disk god Aton.
1336	Tutankhamun ("King Tut") revives polytheism and returns to the capital to Thebes.
1290	Ramses II ("The Great") begins a 67-year reign and completes Temple of Luxor.
1283	Egyptians and Hittites sign the first recorded peace treaty.
712	Egypt is invaded from the south by the Nubian Empire, which starts an "Ethiopian Dynasty."
670	Assyrians conquer Egypt.
525	The Persian Empire conquers Egypt.
343	Nectanebo II, the last Egyptian-born pharaoh, dies.
332	Alexander the Great of Macedonia invades Egypt.
331	The city of Alexandria is established and the Macedonian general Ptolemy begins new dynasty.
51	The Ptolemaic queen Cleopatra VII rules Egypt, assisted by Julius Caesar.
30	Cleopatra commits suicide, and Egypt is annexed by the Roman Empire.



FIGURE 1.24

The Book of the Dead was written using special cursive pictograms that link hieroglyphics to the hieratic form used in later Egyptian religious writings.

Writing also set the Egyptians apart from some of their neighbors. Egyptians used hieroglyphics or pictures to represent words or sounds. This early form of writing was discovered by the Western world after Napoleon's army invaded Egypt in 1798. The Rosetta Stone, a black tablet containing inscriptions, was deciphered and became crucial in unlocking the mystery of hieroglyphics and understanding Egyptian history.

Ancient Egyptian civilization lasted for several thousand years. Many of its discoveries and practices have survived an even greater test of time.

In fact, one of the ancient Egyptians' inventions, the calendar, has helped define time itself.

Life Along the Nile

None of the achievements of the remarkable ancient Egyptian civilization would have been possible without the Nile River. There is always a connection between landscape and how a people develop. It does not take the wisdom of a sphinx to understand why.

Archaeologists and historians don't know exactly how Egyptian civilization evolved. It is believed that humans started living along the Nile's banks starting in about 6,000 B.C.E. For the earliest inhabitants of the Nile Valley food was not easy to find. There were no McTut's selling burgers, and, though there were a lot of crocodiles, those critters were pretty hard to catch.

Food for Thought

Over time, however, despite being in the midst of desert surroundings, people discovered that the Nile River provided many sources of food. Along the river were fruit trees, and fish swam in the Nile in great numbers.

Perhaps most importantly, they discovered that, at the same time each year, the Nile flooded for about six months. As the river receded, it deposited a rich, brown layer of silt that was suitable for growing wheat, beans, barley, or even cotton. Farmers learned to dig short canals leading to fields near the Nile, thus providing fresh water for year-round irrigation. Planting immediately after a flood yielded harvests before the next year's flood.

Prime Time

In order to know when to plant, the Egyptians needed to track days. They developed a calendar based on the flooding of the Nile that proved remarkably accurate. It contained a year of 365 days divided into 12 months of 30 days each. The five extra days fell at the end of the year.

Here's a problem that the sphinx might have trouble answering: how did the ancient Egyptians make their calendars? What material did they use? Remember, there was no paper. Need a clue? Take a dip in the Nile.

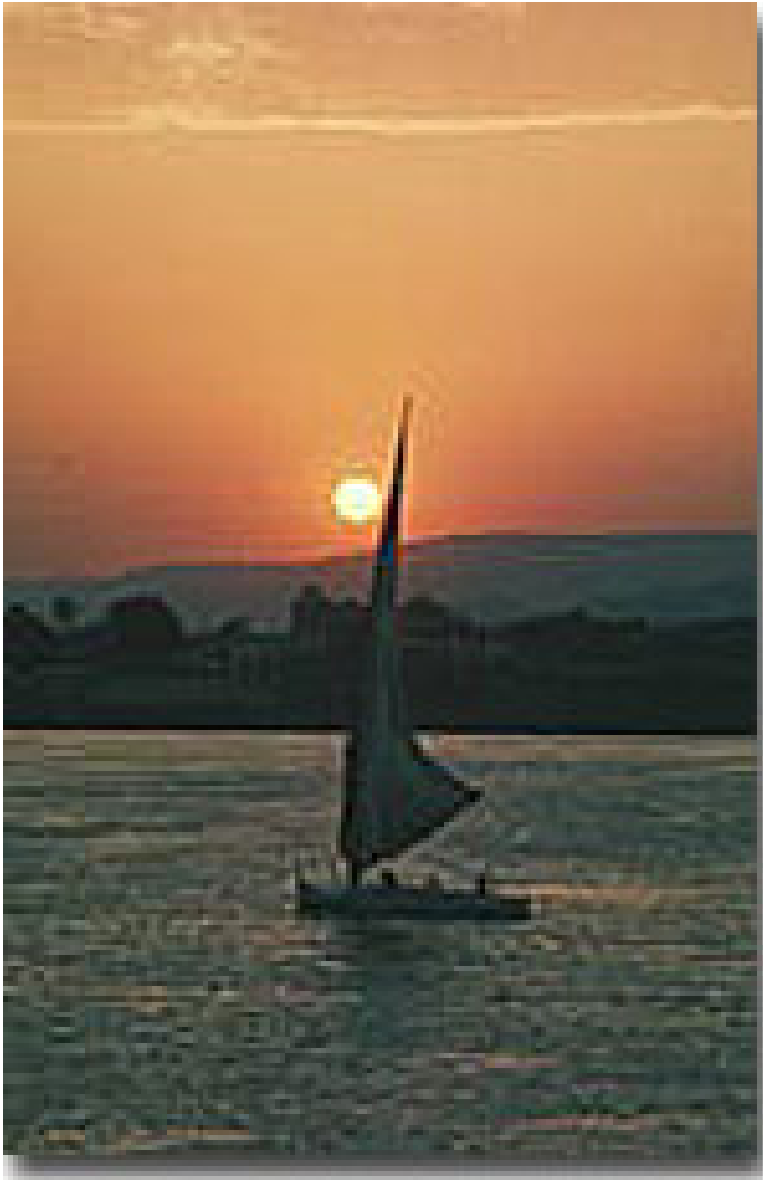
Large reeds called papyrus grew wild along the Nile. The Egyptians developed a process that turned these reeds into flattened material that could be written on (also called papyrus). In fact, the English word "paper" has its root in the ancient Greek word "papyrus." Among the first things written on papyrus were calendars that tracked time.

Papyrus had many other uses. Boats were constructed by binding the reeds together in bundles. Baskets, mats, rope, and sandals were also fashioned from this multipurpose material.

Sand, Land, and Civilization

The Sahara, the world's largest desert, encroaches on the western shore of the Nile River. Other deserts lie to the Nile's east. Egypt's location within the world's driest region helped protect it from invaders throughout the centuries.

Even today, the world around the Nile is quite barren. Outside of the narrow swath of greenery next to the river, there is sand as far as the eye can see. To the Nile's west exists the giant Sahara Desert, the largest desert in the world.

**FIGURE 1.25**

The Nile — the longest river in the world at 4,187 miles — defines Egypt's landscape and culture. A common Egyptian blessing is "May you always drink from the Nile."

From north to south, the Sahara is between 800 and 1,200 miles wide; it stretches over 3,000 miles from east to west. The total area of the Sahara is more than 3,500,000 square miles. It's the world's biggest sandbox.

And, as if there weren't enough sand in the Sahara, east of the Nile are other deserts.

Although sand had limited uses, these deserts presented one tremendous strategic advantage: few invaders could ever cross the sands to attack Egypt — the deserts proved too great a natural barrier.

After learning to take advantage of the Nile's floods — and not having to fear foreign attacks — the Egyptians concentrated on improving farming techniques. As the years passed, Egyptians discovered that wheat could be baked into bread, that barley could be turned into soup (or even beer), and that cotton could be spun into clothing.

With many of life's necessities provided, the Egyptians started thinking about other things, such as art, government, religion, and philosophy — some of the basics needed to create a civilization. Eventually, pyramids, mummies, Cleopatra, and the Sphinx of Giza became touchstones of this flourishing culture.



FIGURE 1.26

The Sahara, the world's largest desert, encroaches on the western shore of the Nile River. Other deserts lie to the Nile's east. Egypt's location within the world's driest region helped protect it from invaders throughout the centuries.

Egyptian Social Structure

Egyptian society was structured like a pyramid. At the top were the gods, such as Ra, Osiris, and Isis. Egyptians believed that the gods controlled the universe. Therefore, it was important to keep them happy. They could make the Nile overflow, cause famine, or even bring death.



FIGURE 1.27

In the social pyramid of ancient Egypt the pharaoh and those associated with divinity were at the top, and servants and slaves made up the bottom.

The Egyptians also elevated some human beings to gods. Their leaders, called pharaohs, were believed to be gods in human form. They had absolute power over their subjects. After pharaohs died, huge stone pyramids were built as their tombs. Pharaohs were buried in chambers within the pyramids.

Because the people of Egypt believed that their pharaohs were gods, they entrusted their rulers with many responsibilities. Protection was at the top of the list. The pharaoh directed the army in case of a foreign threat or an internal conflict. All laws were enacted at the discretion of the pharaoh. Each farmer paid taxes in the form of grain, which were stored in the pharaoh's warehouses. This grain was used to feed the people in the event of a famine.

The Chain of Command

Ancient Egyptian royalty, nobility, and clergy enjoyed lives of wealth and comfort while farmers and slaves struggled to subsist.

No single person could manage all these duties without assistance. The pharaoh appointed a chief minister called a

**FIGURE 1.28**

Ancient Egyptian royalty, nobility, and clergy enjoyed lives of wealth and comfort while farmers and slaves struggled to subsist.

vizier as a supervisor. The vizier ensured that taxes were collected.

Working with the vizier were scribes who kept government records. These high-level employees had mastered a rare skill in ancient Egypt — they could read and write.

Noble Aims

Right below the pharaoh in status were powerful nobles and priests. Only nobles could hold government posts; in these positions they profited from tributes paid to the pharaoh. Priests were responsible for pleasing the gods.

**FIGURE 1.29**

Religion was a central theme in ancient Egyptian culture and each town had its own deity. Initially, these deities were animals; later, they took on human appearances and behaviors. Seated here is Thoth, the god of learning and wisdom, carrying a scepter symbolizing magical power.

Nobles enjoyed great status and also grew wealthy from donations to the gods. All Egyptians — from pharaohs to farmers — gave gifts to the gods.

Soldier On

Soldiers fought in wars or quelled domestic uprisings. During long periods of peace, soldiers also supervised the peasants, farmers, and slaves who were involved in building such structures as pyramids and palaces.

Skilled workers such as physicians and craftspersons made up the middle class. Craftspersons made and sold jewelry, pottery, papyrus products, tools, and other useful things.

Naturally, there were people needed to buy goods from artisans and traders. These were the merchants and storekeepers who sold these goods to the public.

The Bottom of the Heap

At the bottom of the social structure were slaves and farmers. Slavery became the fate of those captured as prisoners of war. In addition to being forced to work on building projects, slaves toiled at the discretion of the pharaoh or nobles.

Farmers tended the fields, raised animals, kept canals and reservoirs in good order, worked in the stone quarries, and built the royal monuments. Farmers paid taxes that could be as much as 60 percent of their yearly harvest — that's a lot of hay!

Social mobility was not impossible. A small number of peasants and farmers moved up the economic ladder. Families saved money to send their sons to village schools to learn trades. These schools were run by priests or by artisans. Boys who learned to read and write could become scribes, then go on to gain employment in the government. It was possible for a boy born on a farm to work his way up into the higher ranks of the government. Bureaucracy proved lucrative.

Dynasties

What's a dynasty?

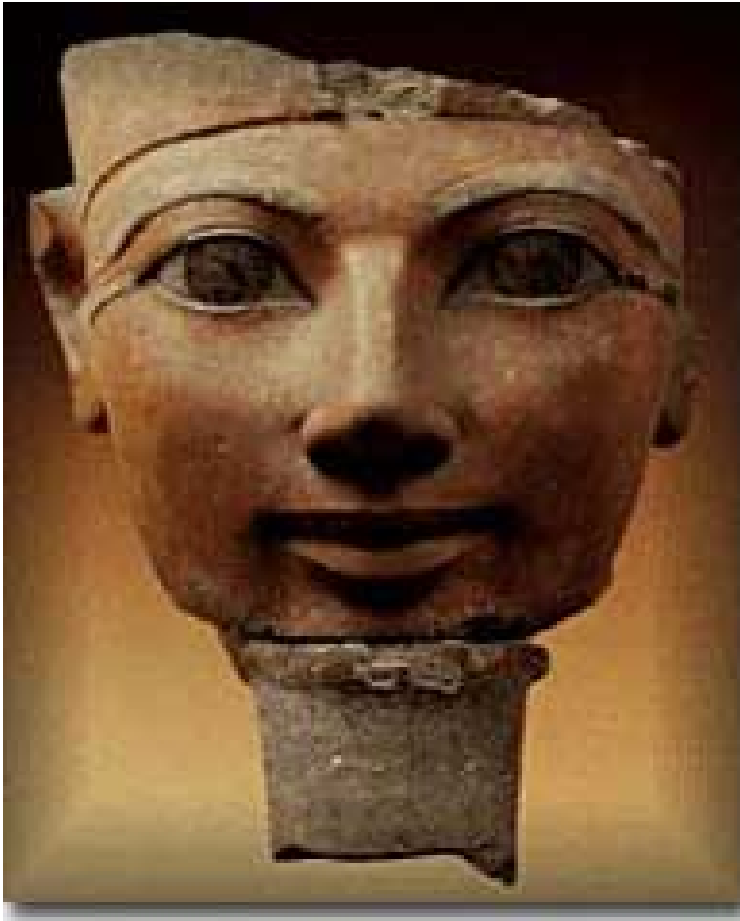
It's a powerful group or family that maintains its position for a number of years. The New York Yankees baseball team of the 1920s is considered a dynasty because they went to the World Series almost every year and had great leaders, such as Babe Ruth and Lou Gehrig.

Ancient Egypt, also had dynasties. They were families who often ruled for a considerable number of years and did impressive things — such as building pyramids — during their rule.

The history of ancient Egypt is divided into three main periods: the Old Kingdom (about 2,700-2,200 B.C.E.), the Middle Kingdom (2,050-1,800 B.C.E.), and the New Kingdom (about 1,550-1,100 B.C.E.). The New Kingdom was followed by a period called the Late New Kingdom, which lasted to about 343 B.C.E. (Intermediate kingdoms — those without strong ruling families — filled the gaps of time in between the Old, Middle, and New Kingdoms.)

During these periods, power passed from one dynasty to another. A dynasty ruled until it was overthrown or there were no heirs left to rule. Each kingdom ended in turmoil either after a period of infighting or after being invaded.

There were more than 30 dynasties in Egyptian history. Dynasties helped keep Egypt united, which was no easy task. Leaders faced periods of chaos, ambitious rivals, and also foreigners who wanted to conquer the region.

**FIGURE 1.30**

All pharaohs wore beards — even female rulers, as shown by this bust of Hatshepsut.

The Earliest Dynasties

Beginning in about 4,000 B.C.E., all of Egyptian society existed in two kingdoms, Upper Egypt and Lower Egypt. Around 3,100 B.C.E., Menes, the king of Upper Egypt, started the long string of dynasties by conquering Lower Egypt. He unified the regions and built his capital city at Memphis, near the border of these two kingdoms. Because Memphis was located on an island in the Nile, it was easy to defend.

So began the first dynasty, an age appropriately called the Early Dynastic Period. Little is known of the pharaohs (rulers) of the early dynasties. The Egyptian word "pharaoh" literally means "great house."

Pharaohs were more than just rulers. They were considered gods and were believed to possess the secrets of heaven and earth. Pharaohs led the government and the army and wielded unlimited power.

The step pyramid of Netjerikhet in Saqqara (left) believed to have been the first pyramid constructed in Egypt, was completed in the 27th century B.C.E. during the Third Dynasty. Pyramid building progressed through the dynasties, culminating in the Pyramids of Giza (right).

The Old Kingdom

About 300 years after Menes united Egypt, its rulers formed a central government in which they held supreme power. This was the beginning of the Old Kingdom. (Kings tend to rule from a central place, which is why the early dynastic period is not considered a kingdom.) Photo courtesy of State Hermitage Museum



FIGURE 1.31

The step pyramid of Netjerikhet in Saqqara (left) believed to have been the first pyramid constructed in Egypt, was completed in the 27th century B.C.E. during the Third Dynasty. Pyramid building progressed through the dynasties, culminating in the Pyramids of Giza (right).

Amenemhat III was one of the great rulers of the Middle Kingdom. During his time as pharaoh, the Pyramid of Hawara was built.

During the Old Kingdom, pyramid building flourished. Cheops had the six-million-ton Great Pyramid of Giza constructed as his tomb. Under Chephren, a Fourth Dynasty ruler, the Great Sphinx was built.

The end of the Old Kingdom was marked by civil wars between pharaohs and nobles.

The Middle Kingdom

Montuhotep II (2,007-1,956 B.C.E.), an Eleventh dynasty pharaoh, was the last ruler of the Old Kingdom and the first ruler of the Middle Kingdom. He and his successors restored political order.

The Middle Kingdom is remembered as a time of flourishing arts, particularly in jewelry making. Egypt became a great trading power during this period and continued massive construction projects. Eventually, the long reign of prosperity gave way to old problems: crop failures, economic woes, dynastic power struggles, and foreign invaders.

Amenemhet III (1817-1772 B.C.E.), of the Twelfth Dynasty, was responsible for the construction of two great projects. He completed the building of the giant waterwheels of the Faiyum region that diverted the floodwaters of the Nile. Amenemhet also constructed the Pyramid of Hawara, which became known as the Labyrinth. It contained about 3,000 rooms.

Trouble struck when a group of foreigners, the Hyksos, a Semitic-Asiatic group, invaded the Nile Delta region. These advanced warriors used new tools for war: bronze weapons and horse-drawn chariots. They defeated the Egyptians, who fought on foot with copper-and-stone weapons.

The New Kingdom

Early pharaohs of the New Kingdom evicted the Hyksos. The New Kingdom is remembered as a time of renaissance in artistic creation, but also as the end of dynastic rule. This period was also marred by corrupt priests and tomb-robbing by government officials.

A famed pharaoh of the new period was Amenhotep IV, who triggered a religious revolution. Before Amenhotep's rule, Egypt was a polytheistic society that believed in many gods, the most important named Amon. But, Amenhotep believed only in Aton, the sun god. Belief in only one god (monotheism) was a radical notion. To show his devotion to Aton, the pharaoh changed his name to Akenhaton ("he who is loyal to Aton"). Akenhaton moved his capital from Thebes, where Amon was worshipped, to Tell el Amarna.

Naturally, the priests who represented the other gods did not like this change one bit. Many Egyptians also did not like the pharaoh discrediting their gods. After the death of Akenhaton, the powerful priests forced the new capital to be moved back to Thebes .



FIGURE 1.32

Photo courtesy of State Hermitage Museum



FIGURE 1.33

Tutankhamun may be the most famous of Egypt's pharaohs because of the discovery of his untouched tomb in 1922. The tombs of more prominent pharaohs had been pillaged, but Tut's resting place and its golden treasures had escaped the hands of looters.

Tut-Tut

The pharaoh who moved the capital back to Thebes was a boy-king. He ruled for nine years, attempted to pacify the priests, and was responsible for some modest building projects. He began his reign at the age of 10 but died of a head injury at 19.

But, his name is famous: Tutankhamun, or more familiarly, King Tut. Tut is mostly remembered because of his beautiful tomb — one of the very few that was not pillaged by grave robbers.

Ramses II, or Ramses the Great, was another important ruler during this period. He reigned for 67 years and died in about 1,213 B.C.E. at age 96. His nearly 200 wives and concubines bore 96 sons and 60 daughters. Not only did Ramesses build a great family, he also built two temples at Abu Simbel, a covered hall of giant pillars at Karnak, additions at the Luxor Temple, and the Ramesseum, a compound consisting of two temples and a palace.

After Ramses' rule, Egypt fell into steady decline. Today, his 3,000-year-old mummy lies in a display case on the second floor of the Egyptian Museum in Cairo, Egypt's capital.

Over the course of the next nine centuries, the Nubians, the Assyrians, and the Persians bounded into Egypt and ravaged the area. When Pharaoh Nectanebo II retreated to Memphis to avoid death at the hands of oncoming Persian invaders in 343 B.C.E., he became the last Egyptian-born pharaoh, ending over 2,500 years of Egyptian self-rule.

Pyramids

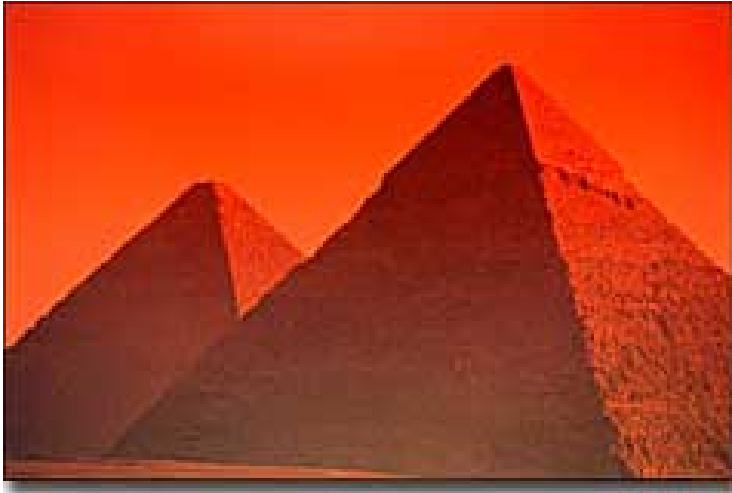


FIGURE 1.34

Built in 30 years, the Pyramid at Giza was the tallest building in the world until the beginning of the 20th century. It remains as the last of the Seven Wonders of the Ancient World.

For centuries, they were the tallest structures on the planet. The Pyramids of Giza, built over 4,000 years ago, still stand atop an otherwise flat, sandy landscape.

One of the Seven Wonders of the World, the pyramids defy 21st-century humans to explain their greatest secrets. How could a civilization that lacked bulldozers, forklifts, and trucks build such massive structures? Why would anyone have spent the time and energy to attempt such a task? What treasures were placed inside these monuments?

Only a powerful pharaoh could marshal the necessary human resources to build giant pyramids. During the flood seasons, farmers became builders. Huge stone blocks averaging over two tons in weight were mined in quarries and transported to the pyramid site.

Egyptologists theorize that the workers used either rollers or slippery clay to drag the blocks from the quarries to their eventual placement on the pyramid. Construction of the larger pyramids took decades.

Why Pyramids?

Pyramids were built for religious purposes. The Egyptians were one of the first civilizations to believe in an afterlife. They believed that a second self called the *ka* lived within every human being. When the physical body expired, the *ka* enjoyed eternal life. Those fortunate enough to pass the test of Osiris wanted to be comfortable in their lives beyond earth. The Great Pyramids were simply grand tombs of powerful pharaohs.

Three pyramids were built at Giza, and many smaller pyramids were constructed around the Nile Valley. The tallest of the Great Pyramids reaches nearly 500 feet into the sky and spans an area greater than 13 acres. The Great Sphinx was sculpted nearby to stand watch over the pyramids. It stands 65 feet tall and consists of a human head atop the body of a lion.

Many believe that the Sphinx was a portrait of King Chephren (Khafret), who was placed in the middle Pyramid. The lion symbolized immortality.



FIGURE 1.35

Accompanying the Pyramids of Giza is, the Sphinx, a gigantic figure of a lion with the head of a pharaoh.

You Take It with You

Egyptians who ranked high in status often wanted to take their most prized possessions with them in death, so the ka could enjoy them in its next life. Gold, silver, and bronze artifacts were loaded into the interiors of the great tombs. Fine linens and artwork adorned the secret chambers.

In the early days, dead nobles were often interned with their living slaves and animals. Because this practice eventually proved too costly, artists instead depicted scenes of human activity on the inside walls. Some pyramids were even equipped with a rest room for the pharaoh.

Inside pyramids such as this one for King Pepi I, passageways lead to a main burial chamber. Designs varied for each pyramid.

Great precautions were taken to protect the tombs from looters. Egyptians believed that a defiler of a pharaoh's resting place would be cursed for eternity. The entrance to the inner chambers was carefully hidden. The pharaoh's mummy was placed in a huge coffin called a sarcophagus, which was made of the hardest known stone blocks. But despite such warnings and precautions, tombs were raided over the years by grave robbers.

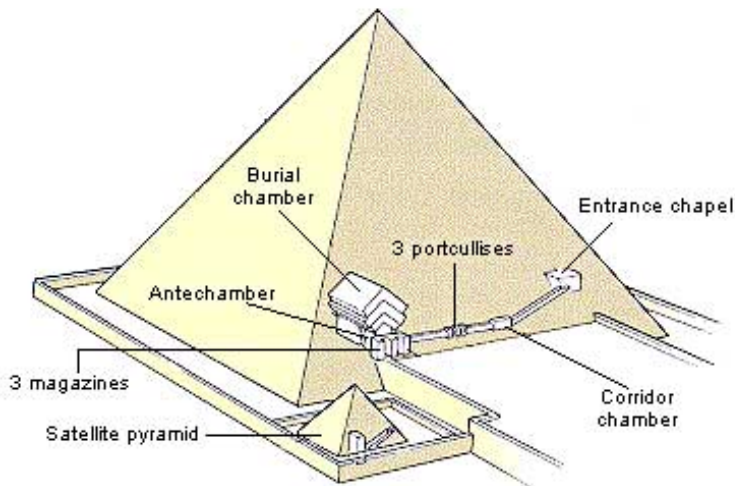


FIGURE 1.36

Inside pyramids such as this one for King Pepi I, passageways lead to a main burial chamber. Designs varied for each pyramid.

The pyramids, however, have stood the test of time. Although their outer limestone layers have long since been stripped or passed into dust, the pyramids still stand. About 80 dot the horizons of modern Egypt. They remain as time capsules cast forward by a once-great civilization.

(ISN) Interactive Student Notebook Assignments

(ISN) Discussion and Study Questions

1. What were the major accomplishments of the Nile River Valley civilization?
2. What types of government were common in River Valley civilizations?
3. What are the characteristics of a civilization that apply to the Nile River?
4. How do civilizations develop from a village to a city/civilization?

(ISN) Tech Activities

Vocabulary

[Quizlet Flashcard Vocabulary for 2.4 Nile River Valley Civilization](#)

TABLE 1.7:

Hieroglyphics	An ancient Egyptian writing system in which pictures were used to represent ideas and sounds.
Nile River	A major north-flowing river in northeastern Africa, generally regarded as the longest river in the world. It was critical to the development of Egyptian civilization.
Pharaohs	Kings of ancient Egypt, considered to be gods as well as a political and military leaders
Pyramid	Large, triangular stoned tombs built by the Egyptians intended for the burial of their pharaohs.

- An **archaeologist** is a scientist who studies human history by digging up human remains and artifacts. **Anthropologists** are people that practice anthropology, which is the study of humanity. Basically they want to figure out what makes humans human. An anthropologist might be interested in everything from the traditions of a tribe on a remote island to the culture of an urban community and everything in between. A **historian** is a person who writes or studies history, they usually specialize in a certain area or region often they are seen as an authority on it. A **geographer** is person who specializes in geographical research, delineation, and study.

- **Periodization** is a tool used by historians to chronologically organize history into eras or time periods. Common examples are Foundations, Classical, Post-Classical to name a few. Eras share common themes.

complex systems of writing, laws, and commerce. The first cities developed around 3500 BCE.

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CHAPTER

2

Chapter Two: The Rise of Agriculture and River Valley Civilizations

Chapter Outline

- 2.1 NEOLITHIC REVOLUTION (HUMANS TRY AND CONTROL NATURE) AND THE RISE OF RIVER VALLEY CIVILIZATIONS
 - 2.2 THE FERTILE CRESCENT: MESOPOTAMIA, SUMER AND UR
 - 2.3 TIGRIS AND EUPHRATES RIVER VALLEY, MESOPOTAMIA
 - 2.4 EGYPT AND THE NILE DELTA: GEOGRAPHY APPLICATION WORKSHEET
 - 2.5 THE NILE RIVER VALLEY
 - 2.6 REFERENCES
-

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2.1 Neolithic Revolution (Humans Try and Control Nature) and the Rise of River Valley Civilizations

Neolithic Revolution [WHS.14, WHS.2A, WHS.17A, WHS.17B, WHS.24A, WHS.29F, WHS.30A, WHS.30B, WHS.30C, WHS.30D]

2.1 The Neolithic Revolution (Humans Try and Control Nature)

Student Learning Objectives

At the end of this section students will be able to:

- identify major causes and describe the major effects of the following events from 8000 BC to 500 BC: the development of agriculture.

The term *Neolithic Revolution* was coined in 1923 by V. Gordon Childe to describe the first in a series of agricultural revolutions in Middle Eastern history. The period is described as a "revolution" to denote its importance, and the great significance and degree of change affecting the communities in which new agricultural practices were gradually adopted and refined.

The beginning of this process in different regions has been dated from 10,000 to 8,000 BC in the Fertile Crescent and perhaps 8000 BC in the Kuk Early Agricultural Site of Melanesia to 2500 BC in Subsaharan Africa, with some considering the developments of 9000–7000 BC in the Fertile Crescent to be the most important. This transition everywhere seems associated with a change from a largely nomadic hunter-gatherer way of life to a more settled, agrarian-based one, with the inception of the domestication of various plant and animal species—depending on the species locally available, and probably also influenced by local culture. Recent archaeological research suggests that in some regions such as the Southeast Asian peninsula, the transition from hunter-gatherer to agriculturalist was not linear, but region-specific.

A **civilization** (or **civilisation** in British English) is any complex state society characterized by urban development, social stratification, symbolic communication forms (typically, writing systems), and a perceived separation from and domination over the natural environment. Civilizations are intimately associated with and often further defined by other socio-politico-economic characteristics, including centralization, the domestication of both humans and other organisms, specialization of labor, culturally ingrained ideologies of progress and supremacism, monumental architecture, taxation, societal dependence upon agriculture, and expansionism. Historically, a *civilization* was an "advanced" culture in contrast to more supposedly barbarian, savage, or primitive cultures. In this broad sense, a civilization contrasts with non-centralized feudal or tribal societies, including the cultures of nomadic pastoralists or hunter-gatherers. As an uncountable noun, *civilizational* also refers to the process of a society developing into a centralized, urbanized, stratified structure.

Civilizations are organized in densely populated settlements divided into hierarchical social classes with a ruling elite and subordinate urban and rural populations, which, by the engagement in intensive agriculture, mining, small-scale manufacture and trade. Civilization concentrates power, extending human control over the rest of nature, including over other human beings.



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Think fire wasn't a big deal? Think again. Read this article about how the origin of cooking affected our brains. [Article Link](#)



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(ISN) Interactive Student Notebook Assignment

(ISN) Discussion and Study Questions

1. Describe the techniques and methods used to develop farming and herding.
2. Explain the new challenges which sedentary societies faced that they would not as a nomadic society?
3. How did daily life change due to the shift from a nomadic lifestyle to a sedentary one?
4. How did the roles of women and the family change after the Neolithic Revolution?
5. What groups or institutions were formed to help develop and sustain an agricultural society?
6. What is "surplus" and how did it lead to the development of civilization?

(ISN) Tech Activities

Vocabulary

Quizlet Flashcard Vocabulary for Neolithic Revolution and the Rise of Agriculture

TABLE 2.1:

civilization	complex societies characterized by cities, specialized workers, complex institutions, record keeping, and advanced technology.
culture	the customary beliefs, social forms, and material traits of a society.
domestication	to take animals out of the wild and breed them for food production.
hunter-gatherer	a member of a culture in which food is obtained by hunting, fishing, and foraging rather than by agriculture or the domestication of animals.
Neolithic Revolution	the major change in human life caused by the beginnings of farming when people shifted from being hunters and gatherers to becoming food producers.
nomads	people who have no fixed residence but move from place to place in order to obtain food.
Paleolithic	of or relating to the earliest period of the Stone Age, ending about 15,000 years ago.

2.2 The Fertile Crescent: Mesopotamia, Sumer and Ur

2.2 The Fertile Crescent Student Learning Objectives

At the end of this section the student will be able to:

- identify the major causes and describe the major effects of the events from 8000BC to 500 BC: the development of the river valley civilizations.
- summarize the impact of the development of farming (Neolithic Revolution) on the creation of river valley civilizations.
- identify the characteristics of a civilization.
- describe the major political, religious/philosophical, and cultural influences of Persia, India, China, Israel, Greece, and Rome, including the development of monotheism, Judaism, and Christianity.

Throughout the centuries, historians have used these powerful words to describe the Middle East.

In the ancient Middle East, many great civilizations rose and fell. The religions of Judaism, Christianity, and Islam each trace their origins back to this part of the world.

All of these civilizations arose in the area known as the Fertile Crescent. The Fertile Crescent stretches from the Mediterranean Sea in the west to the Zagros Mountains in the east. It is bordered in the north by the Taurus Mountains and in the south by the Persian Gulf and the Arabian Desert. Its shape resembles a crescent moon.

One area within the Fertile Crescent gave rise to the region's most powerful empires and grandest cities. This area was Mesopotamia, the land between the Tigris and Euphrates Rivers. **From Farming to Empires**



FIGURE 2.1

Many great civilizations arose from the first farming cultures of the Fertile Crescent.

The Fertile Crescent is the region in which humans first began farming and herding around 8,000 B.C.E. This dramatic change from nomadic hunting and gathering allowed early humans to settle into permanent villages and to begin accumulating a surplus of food.

With such a surplus, early villagers could begin to focus on developing the skills associated with civilization. Some of them became priests, scribes, merchants, artists, teachers, and government officials. They began to build cities,

and before long, they were establishing empires. The Sumerians, Babylonians, Assyrians, Persians, and Phoenicians all built great empires, each of which rose to glory in the Middle East.

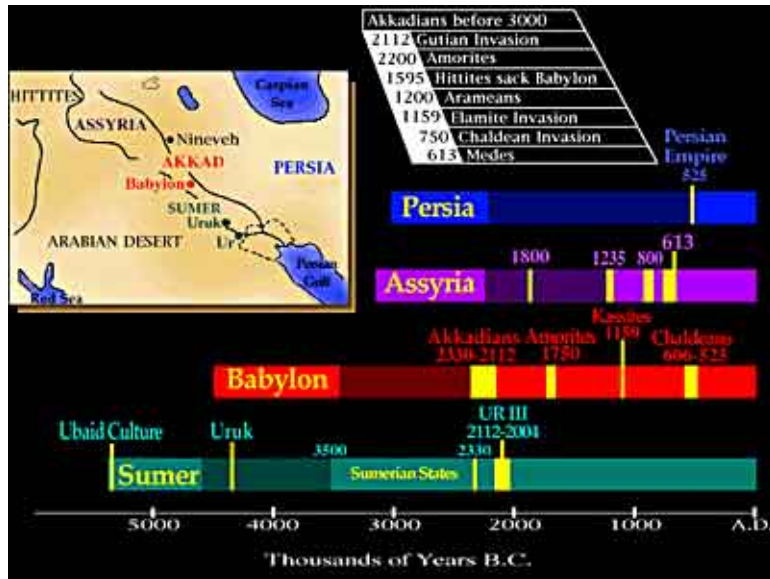


FIGURE 2.2

A timeline of Mesopotamia history, from the founding of Sumer to the beginning of the Common Era

Because they were constantly interacting through war and trade, the societies in the Middle East borrowed from each other. They modified newly acquired ideas and technologies to suit their own needs. Often, these changes were improvements. Over time, many aspects of various societies throughout the ancient Middle East began to resemble each other.

The Middle East is also the crossroads of the ancient world. It is located at the merging point of three continents: Europe, Africa, and Asia. Many travelers who journeyed from one continent to the next passed through the Middle East, absorbing its culture and introducing new ideas to the region. Throughout the centuries, its prized location became the source of conflict. Its goods became the source of envy.

And its ideas became the source of faith. **Life in Sumer**

The first writing system. The plow. The sailboat. The first lunar calendar.

These accomplishments and more were the products of the city-states of Sumer, which arose on the flood plains of the Tigris and Euphrates Rivers in what is now modern-day Iraq. The Sumerians began to build their walled cities and make significant advances beginning around 3500 B.C.E.

Their domination of this region lasted until around 2000 B.C.E, when the Babylonians took control. Sumerian culture and technology did not disappear but were adopted by its conquerors.

Located in what the ancient Greeks called Mesopotamia, which literally means "the land between the rivers," Sumer was a collection of city-states that occupied the southernmost portion of Mesopotamia. Most were situated along the Tigris and Euphrates Rivers, lying just north of the Persian Gulf.

The physical environment there has remained relatively the same since about 8000 B.C.E. The landscape is flat and marshy. The ground is primarily made up of sand and silt, with no rock. The climate is very dry, with only about 16.9 centimeters of rain falling per year. Natural vegetation is sparse, and no trees other than palm trees grow there. The rivers overflow their banks in the spring, sometimes violently and destructively. During this process, they deposit a rich layer of silt on the surrounding floodplain. **The Cradle of Civilization**



FIGURE 2.3

This beautiful artifact, called by archaeologists "Ram in the Thicket," was squashed for 4,500 years or so before Sir Leonard Woolley excavated it from the Royal Cemetery at Ur in Mesopotamia. How did he know how to piece it together?



FIGURE 2.4

Bordered by the Tigris and Euphrates Rivers, ancient Sumer was located in southern Mesopotamia. Mesopotamia is a Greek word meaning "between two rivers."

Considering the harsh and forbidding natural environment, how did the first civilization arise in Sumer? Surprisingly, the environment was part of what made civilization possible.

The silt carried by the rivers down from the northern mountains provided rich fertilizer for growing crops when the rivers overflowed. The constant sunshine was also good for crops. But without water, they would have easily dried up and died. Through the leadership of priest-kings, Sumerians organized farmers in each city-state to build extensive irrigation systems of canals and dams. Before long, the desert was blooming with a surplus of barley, dates, and other crops.

This surplus allowed many people to pursue occupations other than farming, while still being able to meet their basic needs. These people became artisans, merchants, and craftspeople. They helped build the cities and increase the wealth of the city-states through trade with neighboring societies.

Sumerians also developed high-quality crafts, evidence of which was found in the royal tombs of Ur, excavated by Sir Leonard Woolley in the 1920s. Trade also helped the Sumerians to secure vital items such as timber from Lebanon and luxury goods such as the semiprecious stone lapis lazuli from the Indus River Valley. **Gettin' Ziggy with It**

Because of the surplus grain, the government could grow in size to support numerous officials and priests. It could also pay thousands of workers with barley while they were building canals, city walls, and ziggurats or while they were fighting to defend their city-state or extend its influence over the region. The barley was collected as a tax from the farmers. Farmers were also required to give some time to the government to work on projects. Slaves and hired workers also contributed.

As the government and economy grew in size and complexity, officials and merchants required a sophisticated writing system to record transactions. First came number markings and simple pictograms, the writing system began to incorporate pictures representing a physical object or idea (such as a picture of the sun to represent the sun).

As trade and government activity increased, the writing system began to incorporate more abstract pictograms and phonograms, or symbols representing sounds. These new forms provided greater flexibility and speed in writing. They were adopted by other cultures (such as the Assyrians) who did not even speak Sumerian. **Sumerian Wisdom**

The Sumerians wrote on clay tablets, using a reed pen called a stylus. Once dried, these tablets became hard and, fortunately for today's researchers, endured for millennia in the hot, dry climate.

Thousands of these tablets have been unearthed. Some libraries have even been discovered with over 10,000 of these clay tablets. And although the vast majority of these tablets contain records of goods collected and distributed by the governments and trade transactions, some contain myths, stories, and letters. These documents have provided much information about the culture and history of the Sumerian people.

With their ingenuity, the Sumerian people developed complex irrigation system and a written language. They were the first people to use the plow to lift the silt-laden soil of their crop fields and they invented the sailboat. They were the first people to design a calendar based on the phase of the moon and they developed a numerical system, based on the number 60, that is still used to measure seconds and minutes. **Gilgamesh**
Gilgamesh was likely an actual king of Uruk in Babylonia who lived about 2700 B.C.E.

Sumerians recorded stories and myths about Gilgamesh, which were written on clay tablets. The stories were combined into an epic tale. Versions of this tale were translated into other languages including Akkadian, which was spoken by the Babylonians.

The fullest surviving version is derived from twelve stone tablets, in the Akkadian language, which were found stored in the famous library at Nineveh of Assyrian King Assurbanipal.

The epic relates the heroic deeds of Gilgamesh, who is the king of Uruk. His father is mortal and his mother is a goddess. Since Gilgamesh is part mortal, he knows he must die one day. However, he longs for immortality,



FIGURE 2.5

This clay plaque (c. 17th century B.C.E.) depicts what some archaeologists believe is the Sumerian goddess Inanna, patron deity of fertility. Makes you wonder who'll find those Barbie dolls you buried in the backyard.

whether through doing great deeds or discovering the secret of eternal life. He roams the earth on this quest and meets Utnapishtim, the only human granted eternal life by the gods. He tells Gilgamesh many stories, including one of a great flood that covered the Earth.

What happens to Gilgamest? Read the tale and find out. The following is an excerpt from Gilgamesh.

O man of Shuruppak, son of Ubartutu: Tear down the house and build a boat! Abandon wealth and seek living beings! Spurn possessions and keep alive living beings! Make all living beings go up into the boat. The boat which you are to build, its dimensions must measure equal to each other: its length must correspond to its width. Roof it over like the Apsu. From Tablet XI — translation by Maureen Gallery Kovacs, 1998

A culture of many firsts, the Sumerians led the way for other societies that followed them.

Babylonia



FIGURE 2.6

Ancient Babylonia left behind some wonderful artifacts.

The Babylonians used the innovations of the Sumerians, added to them, and built an empire that gave the world, among other things, codified laws, a tower that soared above the earth, and one of the Seven Wonders of the World.

Geographically, the empire of Babylonia occupied the middle and southern part of Mesopotamia. Situated between the Tigris and Euphrates Rivers, it stretched from the present-day city of Baghdad south to the Persian Gulf.

The late Babylonian Empire controlled the Fertile Crescent, including most of modern-day Iraq, Syria, Lebanon, and Israel.

The first written mention of Babylonia's famous capital city, Babylon, dates to about 3800 B.C.E. During that time, most of Mesopotamia was made up of Sumerian city-states. The king of Babylonia Sargon I, however, was of Semitic background. During his reign, Semitic literature, art, and architecture flourished. He ruled from Susa and conquered lands as far away as Syria. **The First Empire**



FIGURE 2.7

The late Babylonian Empire controlled the Fertile Crescent, including most of modern-day Iraq, Syria, Lebanon, and Israel.



FIGURE 2.8

Sargon I, known as Sargon the Great, was a Semitic king who ruled the earliest Babylonian Empire.

Over the next 1,500 years, the Mesopotamia city-states vied with each other for power and influence. It was not until Hammurabi (ruled 1792-1750 B.C.E.) united most of this area after a triumphant military campaign that the city of Babylon reached its first great glory. In the years during and following Hammurabi's reign (known as the First Empire), Babylonian rulers constructed temples, roads, and an extensive canal system. They also codified laws.

The rule of the Babylonian kings contrasts favorably with the rule of the Assyrian kings who destroyed the first Babylonian Empire and left a legacy of war and destruction. After Assyrian dominance in Mesopotamia, which lasted from approximately 1400-600 B.C.E., the Babylonians established a second great Empire.

King Nabopolassar, a Chaldean, (Chaldea was a region of southern Mesopotamia), helped to conquer the Assyrian capital of Nineveh in 606 B.C.E. and used the opportunity to establish his own kingdom in Babylon.

Nabopolassar's son, Nebuchadnezzar, succeeded his father in 604 B.C.E. During Nebuchadnezzar's reign, the Tower of Babel reached its apex, the Hanging Gardens of Babylon were constructed, Babylonians destroyed the Great Temple in Jerusalem and 7,000 Jews were brought back to Babylonia in captivity.



FIGURE 2.9

According to legend, the magnificent ziggurat known as the Tower of Babel needed constant maintenance to keep the baked bricks from eroding away in the rain. When King Xerxes of Persia took over Babylon in 478 B.C.E., the tower began its descent into history as a pile of debris and broken bricks on the ground.

The Tower of Babel

The Tower of Babel was a ziggurat, a pyramid-shaped temple built to a local god. The most important god of Babylon was Marduk, who outshone all other gods in the Babylonian pantheon.

Construction on the Tower of Babel had begun about 1100 B.C.E., and when Nebuchadnezzar finished it, the tower reached a height of 91 meters (295 feet). According to a tablet left by the king, the tower was made of "baked brick enameled in brilliant blue." **The Hanging Gardens**

Nebuchadnezzar built the Hanging Gardens of Babylon, one of the Seven Wonders of the World, for his wife who missed her lush homeland.

The gardens did not "hang" literally — that is, its plants or trees didn't dangle from ropes. "Hanging" refers to the garden's terraces which *overhung* one another.

But what makes a terraced garden special enough to be one of the Seven Wonders of the World?

Babylon received little rain, and stone slabs needed to hold terraces in place were almost nonexistent in the region.

Ingenious engineers devised a chain pump that brought water from the nearby Euphrates River to irrigate the gardens. Specially designed bricks kept the flora in place.

The result was a green oasis that today's scholars believe rose between 80 and 300 feet into the air. The gardens were a lush mountain of foliage in the middle of a flat, dry desert.

Ultimately, the Hanging Gardens of Babylon disappeared, and the Tower of Babel and the Babylonian Empire were destroyed by the Persians around the year 478 B.C.E.



















PICTOGRAPHIC SIGN c. 3100 BC						
INTERPRETATION	Star	Stream	Barley	Bull's head	Bowl	Head and bowl
EARLY CUNEIFORM SIGN c. 2400 BC						
LATER CUNEIFORM SIGN c. 700 BC						
MEANING	God, sky	Water, seed, son	Barley	Ox	Food, bread	To eat

FIGURE 2.10

Babylonian language evolved from pictographs to cuneiforms throughout the life of the civilization.

Babylonian language evolved from pictographs to cuneiforms throughout the life of the civilization.

But the sands of time cannot hide the magnificent accomplishments in engineering, law, art, and architecture that the Babylonians left as their legacy to the world.

Hammurabi's Code: An Eye for an Eye

FIGURE 2.11

"Hammurabi, the king of righteousness, on whom Shamash has conferred the law, am I."

"An eye for an eye, and a tooth for a tooth."

This phrase, along with the idea of written laws, goes back to ancient Mesopotamian culture that prospered long before the Bible was written or the civilizations of the Greeks or Romans flowered.

"An eye for an eye ..." is a paraphrase of Hammurabi's Code, a collection of 282 laws inscribed on an upright stone pillar. The code was found by French archaeologists in 1901 while excavating the ancient city of Susa, which is in modern-day Iran.

Hammurabi is the best known and most celebrated of all Mesopotamian kings. He ruled the Babylonian Empire from 1792-50 B.C.E. Although he was concerned with keeping order in his kingdom, this was not his only reason for compiling the list of laws. When he began ruling the city-state of Babylon, he had control of no more than 50 square miles of territory. As he conquered other city-states and his empire grew, he saw the need to unify the various groups he controlled. **A Need for Justice**

Hammurabi keenly understood that, to achieve this goal, he needed one universal set of laws for all of the diverse peoples he conquered. Therefore, he sent legal experts throughout his kingdom to gather existing laws. These laws were reviewed and some were changed or eliminated before compiling his final list of 282 laws. Despite what many people believe, this code of laws was not the first. **Oldest Code Known**

The oldest known evidence of a law code are tablets from the ancient city Ebla (Tell Mardikh in modern-day Syria). They date to about 2400 B.C.E. — approximately 600 years before Hammurabi put together his famous code.

The prologue or introduction to the list of laws is very enlightening. Here, Hammurabi states that he wants "to make justice visible in the land, to destroy the wicked person and the evil-doer, that the strong might not injure the weak." The laws themselves support this compassionate claim, and protect widows, orphans and others from being harmed or exploited.

The phrase "an eye for an eye" represents what many people view as a harsh sense of justice based on revenge. But, the entire code is much more complex than that one phrase. The code distinguishes among punishments for wealthy or noble persons, lower-class persons or commoners, and slaves. **The Laws**

IMAGE NOT AVAILABLE

FIGURE 2.12

IMAGE NOT AVAILABLE

FIGURE 2.13

Hammurabi's Law Code



FIGURE 2.14

Don't mess with the serpent-headed, scorpion-tailed mythical dragon of the god Marduk!

"Anu and Bel called by name me, Hammurabi, the exalted prince, who feared God, to bring about the rule of righteousness in the land, to destroy the wicked and the evil-doers; so that the strong should not harm the weak; so that I should rule over the black-headed people like Shamash, and enlighten the land, to further the well-being of mankind ..."

So begins the Law Code of Hammurabi, a list of nearly 300 laws etched into a two and one-half meter high black

diorite pillar, discovered in 1902 but dating back to the time of Hammurabi himself (1792-1750 B.C.E). Some laws were quite brutal, others rather progressive. Members of the upper-class often received harsher punishments than commoners, and women had quite a few important rights.

Most of the nearly 300 laws written on the pillar pertain to property rights of landowners, slavemasters, merchants, and builders.

Here are some of the more unusual laws that seem very foreign to a modern society:

If any one finds runaway male or female slaves in the open country and bring them to their masters, the master of the slaves shall pay him two shekels of silver.

If any one is committing a robbery and is caught, then he shall be put to death.

If a tavern-keeper (feminine) does not accept corn according to gross weight in payment of a drink, but takes money, and the price of the drink is less than that of the corn, she shall be convicted and thrown into the water.

If a son of a paramour or a prostitute say to his adoptive father or mother: "You are not my father, or my mother," his tongue shall be cut off.

If a son strike his father, his hands shall be hewn off.

If a man knock out the teeth of his equal, his teeth shall be knocked out.

If a man strike a free-born woman so that she lose her unborn child, he shall pay ten shekels for her loss.

If a barber, without the knowledge of his master, cut the sign of a slave on a slave not to be sold, the hands of this barber shall be cut off.

If a slave says to his master: "You are not my master," if they convict him his master shall cut off his ear.

Hammurabi's own words illustrate this point: "If a man has destroyed the eye of a man of the gentleman class, they shall destroy his eye If he has destroyed the eye of a commoner ... he shall pay one mina of silver. If he has destroyed the eye of a gentleman's slave ... he shall pay half the slave's price." The Babylonians clearly did not live under a social system that treated all people equally.

The code deals with many topics of concern other than assault. It outlines rules for witnesses and those making accusations of crimes. For example, "If any one bring an accusation of any crime before the elders, and does not prove what he has charged, he shall, if it be a capital offense charged, be put to death." It details how theft or destruction of property should be handled and gives guidelines for dealing with trade and business problems.

In some cases, these rules are quite reasonable and fair: "If any one owe a debt for a loan, and a storm prostrates (kills) the grain, or the harvest fail, or the grain does not grow for lack of water, in that year he need not give his creditor any grain; he washes his debt-tablet in water and pays no rent for this year."

The code also gives rules for family matters, such as marriage, divorce, incest, and adoption. Payment amounts for the work of doctors and other professionals are outlined. Although the pay for doctors was good, they suffered severe punishments for fatal errors. The code states that "if a physician make a large incision with the operating knife, and kill him, ... his hands shall be cut off." (Talk about a need for malpractice insurance!)

The Code covers all types of issues related to farming and herding animals, and it also lays out rules on the ownership and sale of slaves. **Go Jump in a River!**

Hammurabi's Code may not seem very different from more recent laws and precedents that guide the processes of a trial. But, there are a few major differences between ancient Babylonians and today's laws. Hammurabi's Code required accusers to bring the accused into court by themselves.

A number of the laws refer to jumping in the Euphrates River as a method of demonstrating one's guilt or innocence. If the accused returned to shore safely, they were deemed innocent; if they drowned, they were guilty. This practice follows the Babylonians's belief that their fates were controlled by their gods.

From the code, it is evident that the Babylonians did not believe all people were equal. The code treated slaves, commoners, and nobles differently. Women had a number of rights, including the ability to buy and sell property and to obtain a divorce. The Babylonians understood the need for honesty by all parties in a trial and for court officers to be free of corruption so that the justice system could function effectively.

Hammarabi's Code serves as a window into the prevailing values of ancient Babylon.

Assyrians: Cavalry and Conquests



FIGURE 2.15

Although Assyrian is like most Middle Eastern languages, part of the Semitic language family, the Assyrian people are ethnically distinct from other members of this Semitic group.

Much of Assyria's history is closely tied to its southern neighbor, Babylonia. The two Mesopotamian empires spoke similar languages and worshipped most of the same gods. They were often rivals on the battlefield for influence in the ancient Middle East.

The history of Assyria spans mainly from about 2000 B.C.E., when the cities of Nineveh and Calah were founded, to the destruction of Nineveh in 606 B.C.E.

Whereas Babylonia is best remembered for its contributions in literature, architecture, and the law, Assyria is chiefly remembered for its military prowess, advances in weaponry, and meticulously recorded conquests.

Geographically, Assyria occupied the middle and northern part of Mesopotamia. It was situated between the Euphrates and Tigris Rivers, and its major cities were Calah, Zab, Ashur, and the capital, Nineveh.

The Power and the Glory

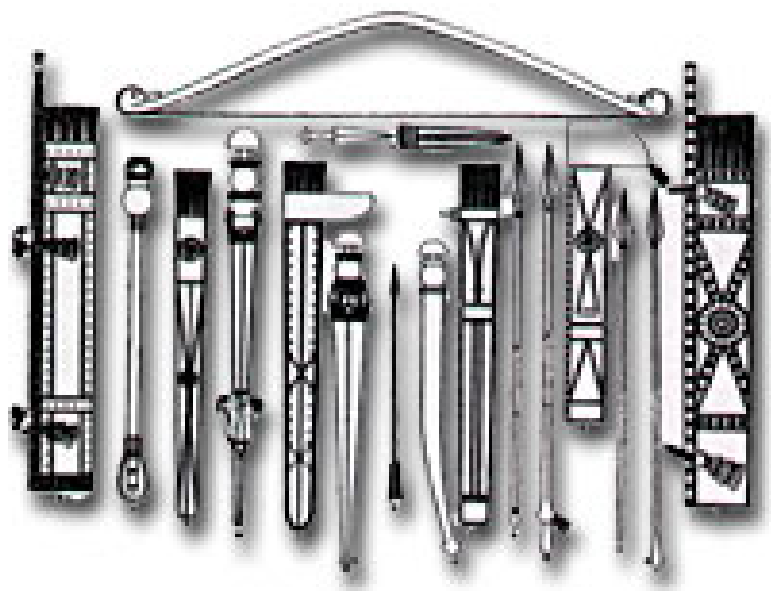


FIGURE 2.16

They wielded swords, scepters, axes, pikes, blades, daggers, and spears. The Assyrians didn't mess around.

"I am powerful, I am all-powerful I am without equal among all kings."

This was the boast of King Esarhaddon (680-669 B.C.E.), who expanded the Assyrian empire to its greatest extent. At the height of his great power, in 671 B.C.E., he conquered Egypt in less than a month.

The Egyptian kingdom was considered one of the most impenetrable in the Middle East. The Egyptians had ruled over their own land virtually undisturbed for 2,500 years.

Once Egypt was captured, Esarhaddon and his successor, Assurbanipal (680-626 B.C.E.), ruled an empire that stretched over 1,000 miles from the Nile River to the Caucasus Mountains. In its time, the Assyrian Empire was the greatest the world had ever seen. The center of the empire was located in what is now northern Iraq, and its capital was called Nineveh.

Tiglath-pileser I

Tiglath-pileser I was an early Assyrian king who began his reign in about 1100 B.C.E. He mounted several successful military campaigns against the Babylonians, Syrians, and many others.

He claims to have conquered 42 kings and peoples and wrote, "I carried away their possessions, burned their cities with fire, demanded from their hostages tribute and contributions, and laid on them the heavy yoke of my rule."

**FIGURE 2.17**

Few could stand in the way of the Assyrian expansion. After toppling the Babylonian Empire, the Assyrians conquered the Israelites, the Phoenicians, and even parts of the mighty Egyptian Empire.

The Assyrian ruler also claimed great expertise as a hunter who on one expedition killed over 900 lions and captured several elephants alive.

**FIGURE 2.18**

This guardian (notice the 5th leg) protected an Assyrian citadel gate in Khorsabad.

In the city of Asshur he kept a hunting park in which to prey on animals. At Nineveh, he started a botanical garden in which he planted trees and fauna gathered during his military campaigns.

How did the Assyrians establish such a large empire over such formidable foes? Their armies were highly trained and professional. And their troops had a great deal of experience in battle. They were well organized into various units of charioteers, cavalry, bowmen, and lancers.

Assyrian armies also had a corps of engineers who employed movable towers and iron-headed battering rams for sieges on walled towns.

Soldiers used iron weapons, which were much stronger than the bronze weapons of some of their foes. The Assyrians

also built roads for the quick and easy movement of troops, so that conquered rebelling kingdoms could easily be brought back under control.

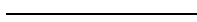
Fear was another tool used by the Assyrians. Although all wars are cruel, the Assyrians were notorious for their widespread use of torture. The words of an early Assyrian king, Assurnarsipal, reveal just how cruel the Assyrians could be:

TABLE 2.2:

figure*

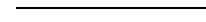


figure*



I built a pillar over against his gate, and I flayed all the chief men ... and I covered the pillar with their skins ... some I impaled upon the pillar on stakes. Many captives ... I burned with fire ... From some I cut off their hands and their fingers, and from others I cut off their noses, their ears ... of many I put out the eyes. Assurnarsipal (c.875 B.C.E.)

figure*



figure*



This ugal (head-dress) once worn by an Assyrian queen was recovered from the tomb of Nimrud.



The Spoils of Victory

In ancient times, kings usually led their troops into battle and were highly skilled soldiers themselves. It was the custom of Assyrian kings to record their victories on the walls of their immense and extravagant palaces. The relief sculptures on the walls of King Assurbanipal’s palace in Nineveh are some of the most elaborate. These sculptures, along with an important collection of cuneiform clay tablets — 25,000 of them — were discovered by Austen Henry Layard and his colleagues in the 1840s.

Empires meant power. This power led to extravagant wealth for the victors, who forced the conquered peoples into paying them tribute or taxes. The Assyrian kings had no end of such wealth.

Paying Tribute

The Assyrian king Sennacherib (704-681 B.C.E.) describes the tribute he exacted from the Hebrew king Hezekiah. Hezekiah withstood the Assyrians’ siege in the capital city of Jerusalem in an event that is also recounted in the Bible. But the Hebrews still had to give enormous tribute and presents to the Assyrians.

Sennacherib explains in his own words on a tablet that was discovered by archaeologists: "He sent [a convoy] after me to Nineveh, my royal city with 30 talents of gold, 800 talents of silver, jewels, antimony ... couches of ivory, easy chairs inlaid with ivory, elephants’ hides, elephants’ tusks ... all kinds of valuable treasures, and his daughters, his harem, and male and female singers."

More than Warriors

With the wealth they obtained from war and tribute, the Assyrian kings built the well-fortified and beautiful cities of Nineveh, Calah, (present-day Nimrud).

In these cities, they placed their grand palaces, some of which spanned several acres. In these places, Assyrian kings showed their more cultured side.

The first glassmaking, the invention of backgammon, the ancestor of the lock and key, even therapeutic massage, are thought by many scholars to be Assyrian inventions.

But the Assyrian Empire's grandeur did not last. Just as it reached its peak, it began to crumble. Fighting between King Assurbanipal and his brother weakened the empire and opening it up to foreign invaders. The Assyrian Empire was eventually destroyed in 612 B.C.E. by the Medes from the Iranian Plateau and the Chaldeans of Babylonia.

It never rose again.



MEDIA

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(ISN) Interactive Student Notebook Assignments

1.

(ISN) Discussion and Study Questions

1.

(ISN) Tech Activities

Vocabulary

Quizlet Flashcard Vocabulary for Rivervalley Civilizations

TABLE 2.3:

Code of Hammurabi	a law code enacted by a Babylonian king, with scaled punishments depending on social status, including "an eye for an eye, a tooth for a tooth."
cuneiform	a system of writing with wedge-shaped symbols, invented by the Sumerians around 3000 B.C..
dynasty	a ruling family that passes its authority and power down through many generations.
hieroglyphics	an ancient Egyptian writing system in which pictures were used to represent ideas and sounds.
Mesopotamia	"land between two rivers" - the region located between the Tigris and Euphrates rivers in present-day Iraq.
monarchy	a government in which power is in the hands of a single person.
monotheism	a belief in a single, all powerful god.
polytheism	a belief in many gods.
Sumerians	A people of Mesopotamia that created the first large, complex society in human history

TABLE 2.3: (continued)

Theocracy	a government controlled by religious leaders; a form of government in which the ruler is viewed as a divine figure.
Tigris & Euphrates Rivers	Major rivers that flow through Mesopotamia. They were critical to the development of Mesopotamian civilization.
Ziggurat	a religious, stepped-pyramid built by the Mesopotamians

fertile crescent silt2. (Mesopotamia, 2

2.3 Tigris and Euphrates River Valley, Mesopotamia

Mesopotamia literally means "(Land) between rivers" in ancient Greek. The oldest known occurrence of the name Mesopotamia dates to the 4th century BC, when it was used to designate the land east of the Euphrates in north Syria. Later it was more generally applied to all the lands between the Euphrates and the Tigris, thereby incorporating not only parts of Syria but also almost all of Iraq and southeastern Turkey. The neighbouring steppes to the west of the Euphrates and the western part of the Zagros Mountains are also often included under the wider term Mesopotamia. A further distinction is usually made between Upper or Northern Mesopotamia and Lower or Southern Mesopotamia. Upper Mesopotamia, also known as the Jezirah, is the area between the Euphrates and the Tigris from their sources down to Baghdad. Lower Mesopotamia is the area from Baghdad to the Persian Gulf. In modern scientific usage, the term Mesopotamia often also has a chronological connotation. It is usually used to designate the area until the Arab Muslim conquests in the 7th century CE, with Arabic names like Syria, Jezirah and Iraq being used to describe the region after that date.



FIGURE 2.19

Map showing the extent of Mesopotamia

The Sumerians were firmly established in Mesopotamia by the middle of the 4th millennium BCE, in the archaeological Uruk period, although scholars dispute when they arrived. It is hard to tell where the Sumerians might have come from because the Sumerian language is a language isolate, unrelated to any other known language. Their mythology includes many references to the area of Mesopotamia but little clue regarding their place of origin, perhaps indicating that they had been there for a long time. The Sumerian language is identifiable from its initially logographic script which arose last half of the 4th millennium BCE.

By the 3rd millennium BCE, these urban centers had developed into increasingly complex societies. Irrigation and other means of exploiting food sources were being used to amass large surpluses. Huge building projects were being undertaken by rulers, and political organization was becoming ever more sophisticated. Throughout the millennium, the various city-states Kish, Uruk, Ur and Lagash vied for power and gained hegemony at various times. Nippur and Girsu were important religious centers, as was Eridu at this point. This was also the time of Gilgamesh, a semi-historical king of Uruk, and the subject of the famous *Epic of Gilgamesh*. By 2600 BCE, the logographic script had developed into a decipherable cuneiform syllabic script.

The chronology of this era is particularly uncertain due to difficulties in our understanding of the text, our under-

standing of the material culture of the Early Dynastic period and a general lack of radiocarbon dates for sites in Iraq. Also, the multitude of city-states made for a confusing situation, as each had its own history. The Sumerian king list is one record of the political history of the period. It starts with mythological figures with improbably long reigns, but later rulers have been authenticated with archaeological evidence. The first of these is Enmebaragesi of Kish, c. 2600 BC, said by the king list to have subjected neighboring Elam. However, one complication of the Sumerian king list is that although dynasties are listed in sequential order, some of them actually ruled at the same time over different areas.

Enshakushanna of Uruk conquered all of Sumer, Akkad, and Hamazi, followed by Eannatum of Lagash who also conquered Sumer. His methods were force and intimidation (see the Stele of the Vultures), and soon after his death, the cities rebelled and the empire again fell apart. Some time later, Lugal-Anne-Mundu of Adab created the first, if short-lived, empire to extend west of Mesopotamia, at least according to historical accounts dated centuries later. The last native Sumerian to rule over most of Sumer before Sargon of Akkad established supremacy was Lugal-Zage-Si.

During the 3rd millennium BCE, there developed a very intimate cultural symbiosis between the Sumerians and the Akkadians which included widespread bilingualism. The influence of Sumerian on Akkadian (and vice versa) is evident in all areas, from lexical borrowing on a massive scale, to syntactic, morphological, and phonological convergence. This has prompted scholars to refer to Sumerian and Akkadian in the 3rd millennium as a *sprachbund*.

Akkadian gradually replaced Sumerian as the spoken language of Mesopotamia somewhere around the turn of the 3rd and the 2nd millennium BCE (the exact dating being a matter of debate), but Sumerian continued to be used as a sacred, ceremonial, literary and scientific language in Mesopotamia until the 1st century CE.



FIGURE 2.20

More details The reconstructed facade of the Neo-Sumerian Great Ziggurat of Ur, near Nasiriyah, Iraq

Hammurabi and Hammurabi's Code

Hammurabi ruled for nearly 42 years, c. 1792 to 1750 BC according to the Middle chronology. In the preface to the law, he states, "Anu and Bel called by name me, Hammurabi, the exalted prince, who feared Marduk, the patron god of Babylon (The Human Record, Andrea & Overfield 2005), to bring about the rule in the land." On the stone slab there are 44 columns and 28 paragraphs that contained 282 laws.

The stele was probably erected at Sippar, city of the sun god Shamash, god of justice, who is depicted handing authority to the king in the image at the top of the stele.

In 1901, Egyptologist Gustave Jéquier, a member of an expedition headed by Jacques de Morgan, found the stele containing the Code of Hammurabi in what is now Khūzestān, Iran (ancient Susa, Elam), where it had been taken as

plunder by the Elamite king Shutruk-Nahhunte in the 12th century BC.

The Code of Hammurabi was one of several sets of laws in the ancient Near East. The code of laws was arranged in orderly groups, so that everyone who read the laws would know what was required of them. Earlier collections of laws include the Code of Ur-Nammu, king of Ur (c. 2050 BC), the Laws of Eshnunna (c. 1930 BC) and the codex of Lipit-Ishtar of Isin (c. 1870 BC), while later ones include the Hittite laws, the Assyrian laws, and Mosaic Law. These codes come from similar cultures in a relatively small geographical area, and they have passages which resemble each other.

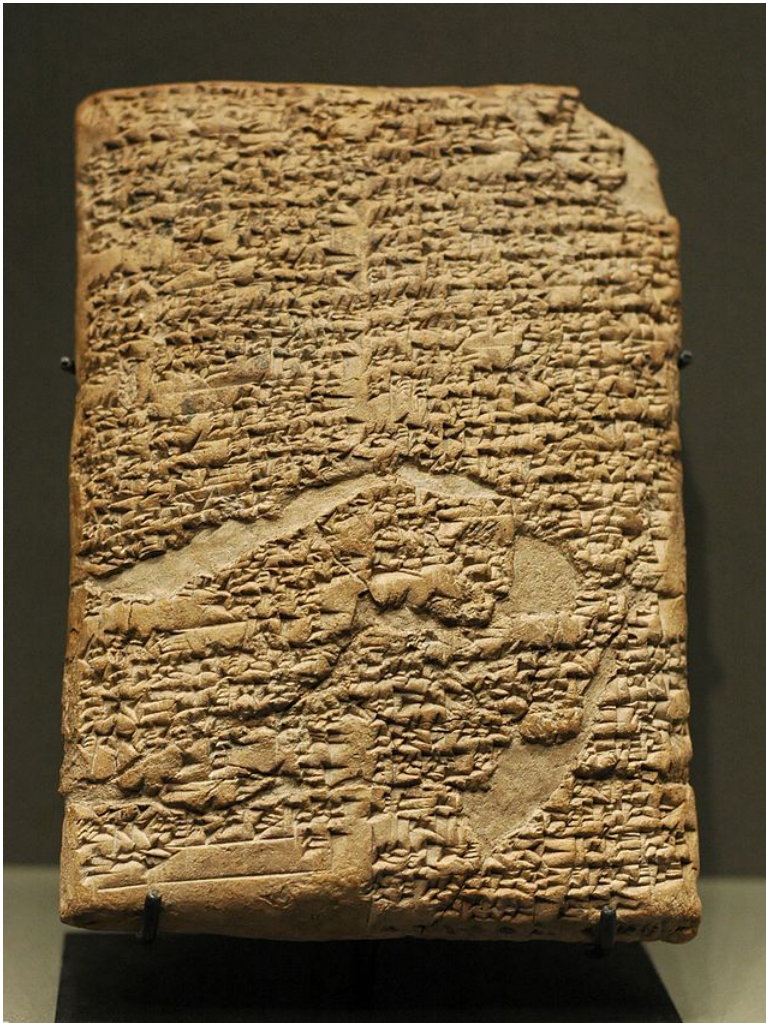


FIGURE 2.21

Code on clay tablet

The Code of Hammurabi is the longest surviving text from the Old Babylonian period. The code has been seen as an early example of a fundamental law regulating a government — i.e., a primitive constitution. The code is also one of the earliest examples of the idea of presumption of innocence, and it also suggests that both the accused and accuser have the opportunity to provide evidence. The occasional nature of many provisions suggests that the Code may be better understood as a codification of Hammurabi's supplementary judicial decisions, and that, by memorializing his wisdom and justice, its purpose may have been the self-glorification of Hammurabi rather than a modern legal code or constitution. However, its copying in subsequent generations indicates that it was used as a model of legal and judicial reasoning.



MEDIA

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2.4 Egypt and the Nile Delta: Geography application worksheet

Worksheet for students to apply their knowledge of geography and ability to read using the Nile and Egyptian history.

2.5 The Nile River Valley

2.4 The Nile River Valley

Student Learning Objectives

At the end of this section students will be able to:

1. identify the major causes and describe the major effects of the following events from 8000 BC to 500 BC: the development of agriculture and the development of the river valley civilizations.
2. summarize the impact of the development of farming (Neolithic Revolution) on the creation of river valley civilizations.
3. identify the characteristics of a civilization and apply them to ancient Egypt.
4. explain how major river valley civilizations influenced the development of the classical civilizations.
5. analyze the influence of human and physical geographic factors on major events in world history, including the development of river valley civilizations, trade in the Indian Ocean, and the opening of the Panama and Suez canals.

Ancient Egypt

Hieroglyphics, pyramids, mummies, the Sphinx of Giza, King Tut, and Cleopatra.

The sands of the Nile River Valley hold many clues about one of the most mysterious, progressive, and artistic ancient civilizations. A great deal of evidence survives about how the ancient Egyptians lived, but questions remain. Even the wise sphinx would have trouble answering some of them. How were the pyramids built? Who came up with the idea for mummies and why? What was a typical day like for a pharaoh?

In De-Nile

In 3,000 B.C.E., Egypt looked similar geographically to the way it looks today. The country was mostly covered by desert. But along the Nile River was a fertile swath that proved — and still proves — a life source for many Egyptians.

The Nile is the longest river in the world; it flows northward for nearly 4,200 miles. In ancient times, crops could be grown only along a narrow, 12-mile stretch of land that borders the river. Early Egyptians grew crops such as beans, wheat, and cotton. Despite the lack of many natural resources, such as forests or an abundance of land for farming, a great society emerged.

Egyptians artisans smelted copper and gold for artistic, architectural, and even military purposes.

Earlier in history, Neolithic (late Stone Age) people thrived in the Nile Valley. The remains that have been uncovered date back to about 6,000 B.C.E. But it wasn't until 3,800 B.C.E. that the valley's inhabitants began to form a cohesive civilization.

The road to civilization required more organization and increased efficiency. Farmers began producing surplus crops that allowed others not only to concentrate on farming but also to pursue other trades, such as mercantilism or skilled craftwork.

Egyptian artisans created copper tools such as chisels and needles — all new inventions — which allowed them to fabricate ornamental jewelry. Artisans also discovered how to make bronze by mixing copper and tin, which marked the beginning of the Bronze Age.

Evidence suggests that ancient Egyptians invented the potter's wheel. This tool made it easier to create pots and jars



FIGURE 2.22

The Nile Valley was the seat of an ancient Egyptian civilization that spanned over 4,000 years.



FIGURE 2.23

for storage, cooking, religious needs, and decoration.

Pharaohs and the Legacy of Ancient Egypt

The pharaohs who ruled Egypt for about 3,000 years were by and large capable administrators, strong military leaders, sophisticated traders, and overseers of great building projects.

A Brief Timeline of Ancient Egypt

Foundation to Demise

Ancient Egypt's great civilization spanned thousands of years, from c. 3000 B.C. until the annexation by Rome in 30 B.C.E.

TABLE 2.4:

DATE (B.C.E.)
6000

EVENT
First inhabitants settle along the Nile Delta.

TABLE 2.4: (continued)

2900	King Menes unites Upper and Lower Egypt.
2772	365-day calendar is invented.
2750	The Old Kingdom is established with its capital in Memphis.
2560	King Khufu (Cheops) builds the Great Pyramids of Giza.
2181	Instability and corruption weaken the empire.
2050	The Middle Kingdom is established and the capital moves to Thebes.
1750	The Hyksos, a group of Semitic-Asiatics, invade and rule Egypt.
1550	The Hyksos are expelled and the New Kingdom established.
1500	Queen Hatshepsut expands the empire south (Nubia) and east (Palestine).
1380	Amenhotep IV ("Akhenaton") supports worship of only one god, the sun-disk god Aton.
1336	Tutankhamun ("King Tut") revives polytheism and returns to the capital to Thebes.
1290	Ramses II ("The Great") begins a 67-year reign and completes Temple of Luxor.
1283	Egyptians and Hittites sign the first recorded peace treaty.
712	Egypt is invaded from the south by the Nubian Empire, which starts an "Ethiopian Dynasty."
670	Assyrians conquer Egypt.
525	The Persian Empire conquers Egypt.
343	Nectanebo II, the last Egyptian-born pharaoh, dies.
332	Alexander the Great of Macedonia invades Egypt.
331	The city of Alexandria is established and the Macedonian general Ptolemy begins new dynasty.
51	The Ptolemaic queen Cleopatra VII rules Egypt, assisted by Julius Caesar.
30	Cleopatra commits suicide, and Egypt is annexed by the Roman Empire.



FIGURE 2.24

The Book of the Dead was written using special cursive pictograms that link hieroglyphics to the hieratic form used in later Egyptian religious writings.

Writing also set the Egyptians apart from some of their neighbors. Egyptians used hieroglyphics or pictures to represent words or sounds. This early form of writing was discovered by the Western world after Napoleon's army invaded Egypt in 1798. The Rosetta Stone, a black tablet containing inscriptions, was deciphered and became crucial in unlocking the mystery of hieroglyphics and understanding Egyptian history.

Ancient Egyptian civilization lasted for several thousand years. Many of its discoveries and practices have survived an even greater test of time.

In fact, one of the ancient Egyptians' inventions, the calendar, has helped define time itself.

Life Along the Nile

None of the achievements of the remarkable ancient Egyptian civilization would have been possible without the Nile River. There is always a connection between landscape and how a people develop. It does not take the wisdom of a sphinx to understand why.

Archaeologists and historians don't know exactly how Egyptian civilization evolved. It is believed that humans started living along the Nile's banks starting in about 6,000 B.C.E. For the earliest inhabitants of the Nile Valley food was not easy to find. There were no McTut's selling burgers, and, though there were a lot of crocodiles, those critters were pretty hard to catch.

Food for Thought

Over time, however, despite being in the midst of desert surroundings, people discovered that the Nile River provided many sources of food. Along the river were fruit trees, and fish swam in the Nile in great numbers.

Perhaps most importantly, they discovered that, at the same time each year, the Nile flooded for about six months. As the river receded, it deposited a rich, brown layer of silt that was suitable for growing wheat, beans, barley, or even cotton. Farmers learned to dig short canals leading to fields near the Nile, thus providing fresh water for year-round irrigation. Planting immediately after a flood yielded harvests before the next year's flood.

Prime Time

In order to know when to plant, the Egyptians needed to track days. They developed a calendar based on the flooding of the Nile that proved remarkably accurate. It contained a year of 365 days divided into 12 months of 30 days each. The five extra days fell at the end of the year.

Here's a problem that the sphinx might have trouble answering: how did the ancient Egyptians make their calendars? What material did they use? Remember, there was no paper. Need a clue? Take a dip in the Nile.

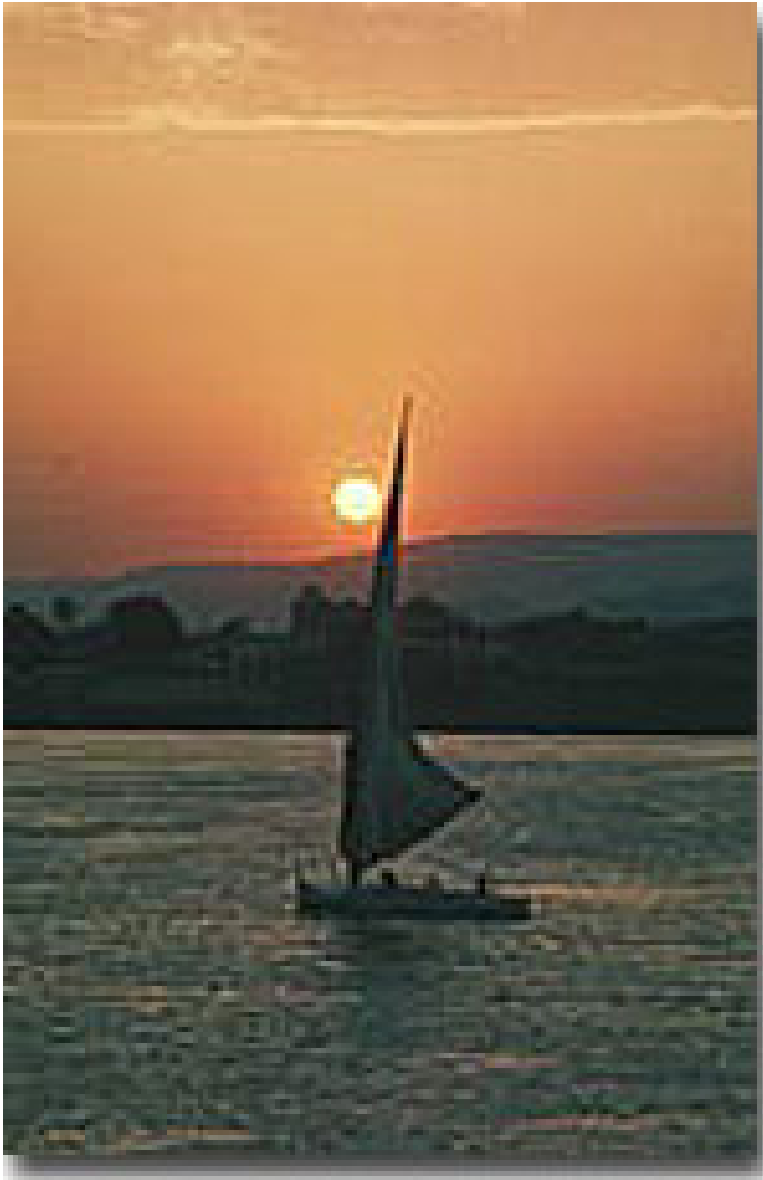
Large reeds called papyrus grew wild along the Nile. The Egyptians developed a process that turned these reeds into flattened material that could be written on (also called papyrus). In fact, the English word "paper" has its root in the ancient Greek word "papyrus." Among the first things written on papyrus were calendars that tracked time.

Papyrus had many other uses. Boats were constructed by binding the reeds together in bundles. Baskets, mats, rope, and sandals were also fashioned from this multipurpose material.

Sand, Land, and Civilization

The Sahara, the world's largest desert, encroaches on the western shore of the Nile River. Other deserts lie to the Nile's east. Egypt's location within the world's driest region helped protect it from invaders throughout the centuries.

Even today, the world around the Nile is quite barren. Outside of the narrow swath of greenery next to the river, there is sand as far as the eye can see. To the Nile's west exists the giant Sahara Desert, the largest desert in the world.

**FIGURE 2.25**

The Nile — the longest river in the world at 4,187 miles — defines Egypt's landscape and culture. A common Egyptian blessing is "May you always drink from the Nile."

From north to south, the Sahara is between 800 and 1,200 miles wide; it stretches over 3,000 miles from east to west. The total area of the Sahara is more than 3,500,000 square miles. It's the world's biggest sandbox.

And, as if there weren't enough sand in the Sahara, east of the Nile are other deserts.

Although sand had limited uses, these deserts presented one tremendous strategic advantage: few invaders could ever cross the sands to attack Egypt — the deserts proved too great a natural barrier.

After learning to take advantage of the Nile's floods — and not having to fear foreign attacks — the Egyptians concentrated on improving farming techniques. As the years passed, Egyptians discovered that wheat could be baked into bread, that barley could be turned into soup (or even beer), and that cotton could be spun into clothing.

With many of life's necessities provided, the Egyptians started thinking about other things, such as art, government, religion, and philosophy — some of the basics needed to create a civilization. Eventually, pyramids, mummies, Cleopatra, and the Sphinx of Giza became touchstones of this flourishing culture.

**FIGURE 2.26**

The Sahara, the world's largest desert, encroaches on the western shore of the Nile River. Other deserts lie to the Nile's east. Egypt's location within the world's driest region helped protect it from invaders throughout the centuries.

Egyptian Social Structure

Egyptian society was structured like a pyramid. At the top were the gods, such as Ra, Osiris, and Isis. Egyptians believed that the gods controlled the universe. Therefore, it was important to keep them happy. They could make the Nile overflow, cause famine, or even bring death.

**FIGURE 2.27**

In the social pyramid of ancient Egypt the pharaoh and those associated with divinity were at the top, and servants and slaves made up the bottom.

The Egyptians also elevated some human beings to gods. Their leaders, called pharaohs, were believed to be gods in human form. They had absolute power over their subjects. After pharaohs died, huge stone pyramids were built as their tombs. Pharaohs were buried in chambers within the pyramids.

Because the people of Egypt believed that their pharaohs were gods, they entrusted their rulers with many responsibilities. Protection was at the top of the list. The pharaoh directed the army in case of a foreign threat or an internal conflict. All laws were enacted at the discretion of the pharaoh. Each farmer paid taxes in the form of grain, which were stored in the pharaoh's warehouses. This grain was used to feed the people in the event of a famine.

The Chain of Command

Ancient Egyptian royalty, nobility, and clergy enjoyed lives of wealth and comfort while farmers and slaves struggled to subsist.

No single person could manage all these duties without assistance. The pharaoh appointed a chief minister called a

**FIGURE 2.28**

Ancient Egyptian royalty, nobility, and clergy enjoyed lives of wealth and comfort while farmers and slaves struggled to subsist.

vizier as a supervisor. The vizier ensured that taxes were collected.

Working with the vizier were scribes who kept government records. These high-level employees had mastered a rare skill in ancient Egypt — they could read and write.

Noble Aims

Right below the pharaoh in status were powerful nobles and priests. Only nobles could hold government posts; in these positions they profited from tributes paid to the pharaoh. Priests were responsible for pleasing the gods.

**FIGURE 2.29**

Religion was a central theme in ancient Egyptian culture and each town had its own deity. Initially, these deities were animals; later, they took on human appearances and behaviors. Seated here is Thoth, the god of learning and wisdom, carrying a scepter symbolizing magical power.

Nobles enjoyed great status and also grew wealthy from donations to the gods. All Egyptians — from pharaohs to farmers — gave gifts to the gods.

Soldier On

Soldiers fought in wars or quelled domestic uprisings. During long periods of peace, soldiers also supervised the peasants, farmers, and slaves who were involved in building such structures as pyramids and palaces.

Skilled workers such as physicians and craftsmen made up the middle class. Craftsmen made and sold jewelry, pottery, papyrus products, tools, and other useful things.

Naturally, there were people needed to buy goods from artisans and traders. These were the merchants and storekeepers who sold these goods to the public.

The Bottom of the Heap

At the bottom of the social structure were slaves and farmers. Slavery became the fate of those captured as prisoners of war. In addition to being forced to work on building projects, slaves toiled at the discretion of the pharaoh or nobles.

Farmers tended the fields, raised animals, kept canals and reservoirs in good order, worked in the stone quarries, and built the royal monuments. Farmers paid taxes that could be as much as 60 percent of their yearly harvest — that's a lot of hay!

Social mobility was not impossible. A small number of peasants and farmers moved up the economic ladder. Families saved money to send their sons to village schools to learn trades. These schools were run by priests or by artisans. Boys who learned to read and write could become scribes, then go on to gain employment in the government. It was possible for a boy born on a farm to work his way up into the higher ranks of the government. Bureaucracy proved lucrative.

Dynasties

What's a dynasty?

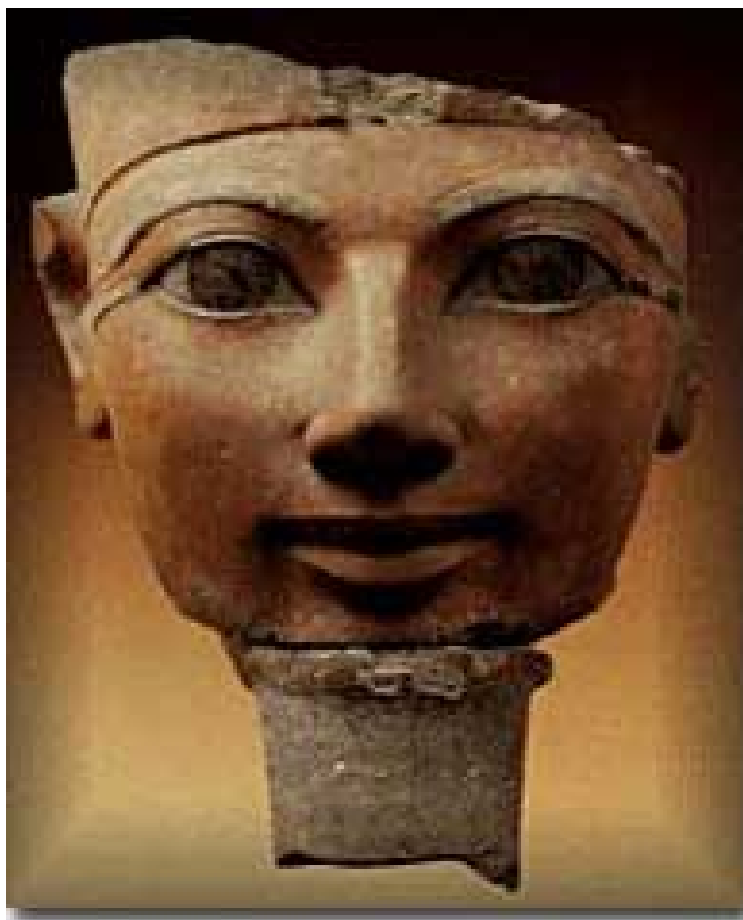
It's a powerful group or family that maintains its position for a number of years. The New York Yankees baseball team of the 1920s is considered a dynasty because they went to the World Series almost every year and had great leaders, such as Babe Ruth and Lou Gehrig.

Ancient Egypt, also had dynasties. They were families who often ruled for a considerable number of years and did impressive things — such as building pyramids — during their rule.

The history of ancient Egypt is divided into three main periods: the Old Kingdom (about 2,700-2,200 B.C.E.), the Middle Kingdom (2,050-1,800 B.C.E.), and the New Kingdom (about 1,550-1,100 B.C.E.). The New Kingdom was followed by a period called the Late New Kingdom, which lasted to about 343 B.C.E. (Intermediate kingdoms — those without strong ruling families — filled the gaps of time in between the Old, Middle, and New Kingdoms.)

During these periods, power passed from one dynasty to another. A dynasty ruled until it was overthrown or there were no heirs left to rule. Each kingdom ended in turmoil either after a period of infighting or after being invaded.

There were more than 30 dynasties in Egyptian history. Dynasties helped keep Egypt united, which was no easy task. Leaders faced periods of chaos, ambitious rivals, and also foreigners who wanted to conquer the region.

**FIGURE 2.30**

All pharaohs wore beards — even female rulers, as shown by this bust of Hatshepsut.

The Earliest Dynasties

Beginning in about 4,000 B.C.E., all of Egyptian society existed in two kingdoms, Upper Egypt and Lower Egypt. Around 3,100 B.C.E., Menes, the king of Upper Egypt, started the long string of dynasties by conquering Lower Egypt. He unified the regions and built his capital city at Memphis, near the border of these two kingdoms. Because Memphis was located on an island in the Nile, it was easy to defend.

So began the first dynasty, an age appropriately called the Early Dynastic Period. Little is known of the pharaohs (rulers) of the early dynasties. The Egyptian word "pharaoh" literally means "great house."

Pharaohs were more than just rulers. They were considered gods and were believed to possess the secrets of heaven and earth. Pharaohs led the government and the army and wielded unlimited power.

The step pyramid of Netjerikhet in Saqqara (left) believed to have been the first pyramid constructed in Egypt, was completed in the 27th century B.C.E. during the Third Dynasty. Pyramid building progressed through the dynasties, culminating in the Pyramids of Giza (right).

The Old Kingdom

About 300 years after Menes united Egypt, its rulers formed a central government in which they held supreme power. This was the beginning of the Old Kingdom. (Kings tend to rule from a central place, which is why the early dynastic period is not considered a kingdom.) Photo courtesy of State Hermitage Museum

**FIGURE 2.31**

The step pyramid of Netjerikhet in Saqqara (left) believed to have been the first pyramid constructed in Egypt, was completed in the 27th century B.C.E. during the Third Dynasty. Pyramid building progressed through the dynasties, culminating in the Pyramids of Giza (right).

Amenemhat III was one of the great rulers of the Middle Kingdom. During his time as pharaoh, the Pyramid of Hawara was built.

During the Old Kingdom, pyramid building flourished. Cheops had the six-million-ton Great Pyramid of Giza constructed as his tomb. Under Chephren, a Fourth Dynasty ruler, the Great Sphinx was built.

The end of the Old Kingdom was marked by civil wars between pharaohs and nobles.

The Middle Kingdom

Montuhotep II (2,007-1,956 B.C.E.), an Eleventh dynasty pharaoh, was the last ruler of the Old Kingdom and the first ruler of the Middle Kingdom. He and his successors restored political order.

The Middle Kingdom is remembered as a time of flourishing arts, particularly in jewelry making. Egypt became a great trading power during this period and continued massive construction projects. Eventually, the long reign of prosperity gave way to old problems: crop failures, economic woes, dynastic power struggles, and foreign invaders.

Amenemhet III (1817-1772 B.C.E.), of the Twelfth Dynasty, was responsible for the construction of two great projects. He completed the building of the giant waterwheels of the Faiyum region that diverted the floodwaters of the Nile. Amenemhet also constructed the Pyramid of Hawara, which became known as the Labyrinth. It contained about 3,000 rooms.

Trouble struck when a group of foreigners, the Hyksos, a Semitic-Asiatic group, invaded the Nile Delta region. These advanced warriors used new tools for war: bronze weapons and horse-drawn chariots. They defeated the Egyptians, who fought on foot with copper-and-stone weapons.

The New Kingdom

Early pharaohs of the New Kingdom evicted the Hyksos. The New Kingdom is remembered as a time of renaissance in artistic creation, but also as the end of dynastic rule. This period was also marred by corrupt priests and tomb-robbing by government officials.

A famed pharaoh of the new period was Amenhotep IV, who triggered a religious revolution. Before Amenhotep's rule, Egypt was a polytheistic society that believed in many gods, the most important named Amon. But, Amenhotep believed only in Aton, the sun god. Belief in only one god (monotheism) was a radical notion. To show his devotion to Aton, the pharaoh changed his name to Akenhaton ("he who is loyal to Aton"). Akenhaton moved his capital from Thebes, where Amon was worshipped, to Tell el Amarna.

Naturally, the priests who represented the other gods did not like this change one bit. Many Egyptians also did not like the pharaoh discrediting their gods. After the death of Akenhaton, the powerful priests forced the new capital to be moved back to Thebes .



FIGURE 2.32

Photo courtesy of State Hermitage Museum

**FIGURE 2.33**

Tutankhamun may be the most famous of Egypt's pharaohs because of the discovery of his untouched tomb in 1922. The tombs of more prominent pharaohs had been pillaged, but Tut's resting place and its golden treasures had escaped the hands of looters.

Tut-Tut

The pharaoh who moved the capital back to Thebes was a boy-king. He ruled for nine years, attempted to pacify the priests, and was responsible for some modest building projects. He began his reign at the age of 10 but died of a head injury at 19.

But, his name is famous: Tutankhamun, or more familiarly, King Tut. Tut is mostly remembered because of his beautiful tomb — one of the very few that was not pillaged by grave robbers.

Ramses II, or Ramses the Great, was another important ruler during this period. He reigned for 67 years and died in about 1,213 B.C.E. at age 96. His nearly 200 wives and concubines bore 96 sons and 60 daughters. Not only did Ramesses build a great family, he also built two temples at Abu Simbel, a covered hall of giant pillars at Karnak, additions at the Luxor Temple, and the Ramesseum, a compound consisting of two temples and a palace.

After Ramses' rule, Egypt fell into steady decline. Today, his 3,000-year-old mummy lies in a display case on the second floor of the Egyptian Museum in Cairo, Egypt's capital.

Over the course of the next nine centuries, the Nubians, the Assyrians, and the Persians bounded into Egypt and ravaged the area. When Pharaoh Nectanebo II retreated to Memphis to avoid death at the hands of oncoming Persian invaders in 343 B.C.E., he became the last Egyptian-born pharaoh, ending over 2,500 years of Egyptian self-rule.

Pyramids



FIGURE 2.34

Built in 30 years, the Pyramid at Giza was the tallest building in the world until the beginning of the 20th century. It remains as the last of the Seven Wonders of the Ancient World.

For centuries, they were the tallest structures on the planet. The Pyramids of Giza, built over 4,000 years ago, still stand atop an otherwise flat, sandy landscape.

One of the Seven Wonders of the World, the pyramids defy 21st-century humans to explain their greatest secrets. How could a civilization that lacked bulldozers, forklifts, and trucks build such massive structures? Why would anyone have spent the time and energy to attempt such a task? What treasures were placed inside these monuments?

Only a powerful pharaoh could marshal the necessary human resources to build giant pyramids. During the flood seasons, farmers became builders. Huge stone blocks averaging over two tons in weight were mined in quarries and transported to the pyramid site.

Egyptologists theorize that the workers used either rollers or slippery clay to drag the blocks from the quarries to their eventual placement on the pyramid. Construction of the larger pyramids took decades.

Why Pyramids?

Pyramids were built for religious purposes. The Egyptians were one of the first civilizations to believe in an afterlife. They believed that a second self called the *ka* lived within every human being. When the physical body expired, the *ka* enjoyed eternal life. Those fortunate enough to pass the test of Osiris wanted to be comfortable in their lives beyond earth. The Great Pyramids were simply grand tombs of powerful pharaohs.

Three pyramids were built at Giza, and many smaller pyramids were constructed around the Nile Valley. The tallest of the Great Pyramids reaches nearly 500 feet into the sky and spans an area greater than 13 acres. The Great Sphinx was sculpted nearby to stand watch over the pyramids. It stands 65 feet tall and consists of a human head atop the body of a lion.

Many believe that the Sphinx was a portrait of King Chephren (Khafret), who was placed in the middle Pyramid. The lion symbolized immortality.

**FIGURE 2.35**

Accompanying the Pyramids of Giza is, the Sphinx, a gigantic figure of a lion with the head of a pharaoh.

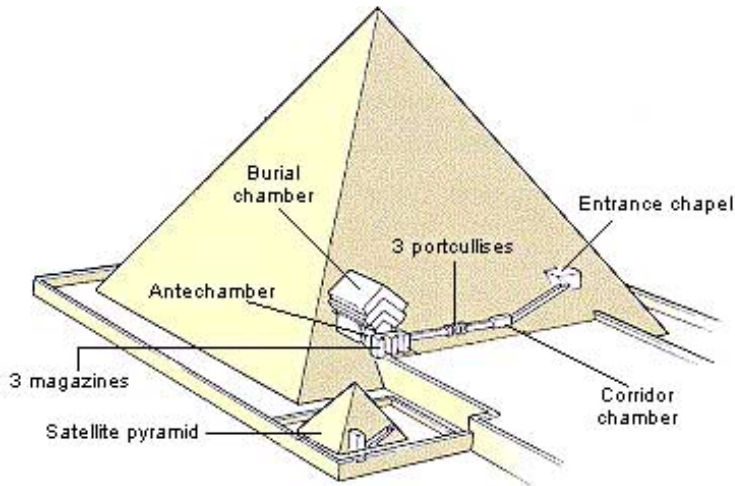
You Take It with You

Egyptians who ranked high in status often wanted to take their most prized possessions with them in death, so the ka could enjoy them in its next life. Gold, silver, and bronze artifacts were loaded into the interiors of the great tombs. Fine linens and artwork adorned the secret chambers.

In the early days, dead nobles were often interned with their living slaves and animals. Because this practice eventually proved too costly, artists instead depicted scenes of human activity on the inside walls. Some pyramids were even equipped with a rest room for the pharaoh.

Inside pyramids such as this one for King Pepi I, passageways lead to a main burial chamber. Designs varied for each pyramid.

Great precautions were taken to protect the tombs from looters. Egyptians believed that a defiler of a pharaoh's resting place would be cursed for eternity. The entrance to the inner chambers was carefully hidden. The pharaoh's mummy was placed in a huge coffin called a sarcophagus, which was made of the hardest known stone blocks. But despite such warnings and precautions, tombs were raided over the years by grave robbers.

**FIGURE 2.36**

Inside pyramids such as this one for King Pepi I, passageways lead to a main burial chamber. Designs varied for each pyramid.

The pyramids, however, have stood the test of time. Although their outer limestone layers have long since been stripped or passed into dust, the pyramids still stand. About 80 dot the horizons of modern Egypt. They remain as time capsules cast forward by a once-great civilization.

(ISN) Interactive Student Notebook Assignments

(ISN) Discussion and Study Questions

1. What were the major accomplishments of the Nile River Valley civilization?
2. What types of government were common in River Valley civilizations?
3. What are the characteristics of a civilization that apply to the Nile River?
4. How do civilizations develop from a village to a city/civilization?

(ISN) Tech Activities

Vocabulary

Quizlet Flashcard Vocabulary for 2.4 Nile River Valley Civilization

TABLE 2.5:

Hieroglyphics	An ancient Egyptian writing system in which pictures were used to represent ideas and sounds.
Nile River	A major north-flowing river in northeastern Africa, generally regarded as the longest river in the world. It was critical to the development of Egyptian civilization.
Pharaohs	Kings of ancient Egypt, considered to be gods as well as a political and military leaders
Pyramid	Large, triangular stoned tombs built by the Egyptians intended for the burial of their pharaohs.



MEDIA

Click image to the left or use the URL below.

URL: <http://www.ck12.org/flx/render/embeddedobject/149810>

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Chapter Outline

- 3.1 CLASSICAL INDIA**
 - 3.2 CLASSICAL CHINA**
 - 3.3 REFERENCES**
-

Classical India has its origins in the first civilizations of Mohenjo-Dara and Harrappan. These were river valley civilizations similar to those of chapter one. Their achievements include plumbing, baths with running water, and these cities were laid out on a grid-system. During this time period the religion of Hinduism began to flourish and blend as invaders from the north brought their ideas and belief systems. Later, the religion of Buddhism would challenge the caste system and Brahman teachings. These two beliefs spread throughout the region and have influenced societies by trade and conversion.

Maurayan Dynasty was the larger of the two Classical India Empires, while the Gupta Empire was know for many of India's accomplishments. Most intriguing person of India was Ashoka or Asoka, a conquering ruler, that converted to Buddhism and spread its values and beliefs along the silk road to China.

Traditional Chinese Beliefs have developed over centuries dating back to the river valley civilizations of the Huang He. In this era philosophies such as Daoism/Taoism, Legalism, and Confucianism were born, spread, and adopted by the people of East Asia. China had not found its central identity.

During Zhou Dynasty, the concept of "The Mandate of Heaven" was adopted by rulers of China and it helps explain the rationale for the rise and fall of dynasties. Under the reign of the Zhou, China was still several kingdoms until Shi Huangti came to power and started the Qin dynasty was the idea of Qina (China) born. Strict and relentless, Shi Huangti united China under centralized authority and measures of standard. He was know for being brutal, burning books, and levying heavy taxes on his subjects.

The Han dynasty rises out of the oppression of the Qin Dynasty. The Han emperor justified rule by claiming to be the Son of Heaven, he centralized power, and the Han rules for over three hundred years. Confucianism offered solutions for emperors, communities, and families to interact with each other. It's goal was social order. Trade along the silk road flourished, defenses such as the Grand Canal and the Great Wall of China were improved and rebuilt. Nonetheless nomads from the north pressured the Han and when the Han finally fell a time period of division and feudalism will rule China.

3.1 Classical India

2.1 Classical India

Student Learning Objectives At the end of this section the student will be able to:

- identify major causes and describe the major effects of the following events from 500BCE to 600 CE: the development of the classical civilizations of India and the development of major world religions.[WHS.1B]
- summarize the impact of the development of farming (Neolithic Revolution) on the creation of river valley civilizations.[WHS.2A]
- identify the characteristics of civilization as they apply to Classical India.[WHS.2B]
- explain how major river valley civilizations influenced the development of the classical civilizations.[WHS.2C]
- analyze the influence of human and physical geographic factors on major events in world history, including the development of river valley civilizations, [WHS.16B]
- describe the historical origins, central ideas, and spread of major religious and philosophical traditions, including Buddhism and Hinduism.[WHS.23A]
- identify examples of religious influence on various events referenced in the major eras of world history.[WHS.23B]
- identify significant examples of art and architecture that demonstrate an artistic ideal or visual principle from selected cultures.[WHS.26A]
- identify the origin and diffusion of major ideas in mathematics, science and technology that occurred in river valley civilizations and classical India.[WHS.27A]

South Asia and Beyond



FIGURE 3.1

The coins of India's Gupta period reflect the people and beliefs of the era. They show ancient rulers, gods and goddesses, and symbols. Their weight and composition even give evidence of trade with other ancient civilizations.

Peaceful coexistence of diverse ethnic, religious, and linguistic groups has historically been a hallmark of South Asian cultures. For this reason, many have referred to the region as a "salad bowl" of culture: a hodgepodge of different peoples, beliefs, and behaviors.

In South Asia — which includes the land that makes up the modern-day nations of India, Pakistan, Bangladesh, Bhutan, Nepal, and Sri Lanka — colorful distinctions are apparent and even celebrated.

Under the layers of diversity lies a solid core of South Asian tradition. Traditions have endured for over 5,000 years — from the earliest known Indian civilization to the present day.

The Indus Valley civilization dates back to about 3000 B.C.E. The archaeological evidence from this period provides exemplary evidence that many aspects of South Asian culture have endured through changing times.

Remnants of ancient bathhouses and sophisticated sanitation systems point to the long history of South Asian culture



FIGURE 3.2

When India crashed into Asia 50 million years ago, the collision created the Himalayan Mountains and made India a subcontinent.

— admiration of purity and cleanliness, and abhorrence of all things polluted. Ancient statues representing the god Shiva are proof that the religious traditions of today's South Asia, too, have been around for millennia.

The Soul of South Asia

To understand the history and cultures of ancient South Asia, it is essential to consider the development of Hinduism and Buddhism. These two religions encompassed far more than spirituality. They became the lifeblood of the people and the backbone of social, political, and economic structures. These religions pervaded all aspects of life and shaped the evolution of the region.

Some have called Hinduism the "soul of India." One of the most powerful and influential developments of ancient Hinduism was the institution of the caste system. The caste system became deeply incorporated into Hindu tradition and created an enduring framework of ascribed social status.

Buddhism emerged as a rejection of the injustices created by caste system sanctioned by Hinduism. It was a response to discontentment and a search for new answers to the mysterious and complex questions that define human experience.

Organized power structures arose from the conflict and confusion that followed the growth of new religions and the challenging of social structures. These power structures led to the formation of state systems and even triggered the development of vast empires.

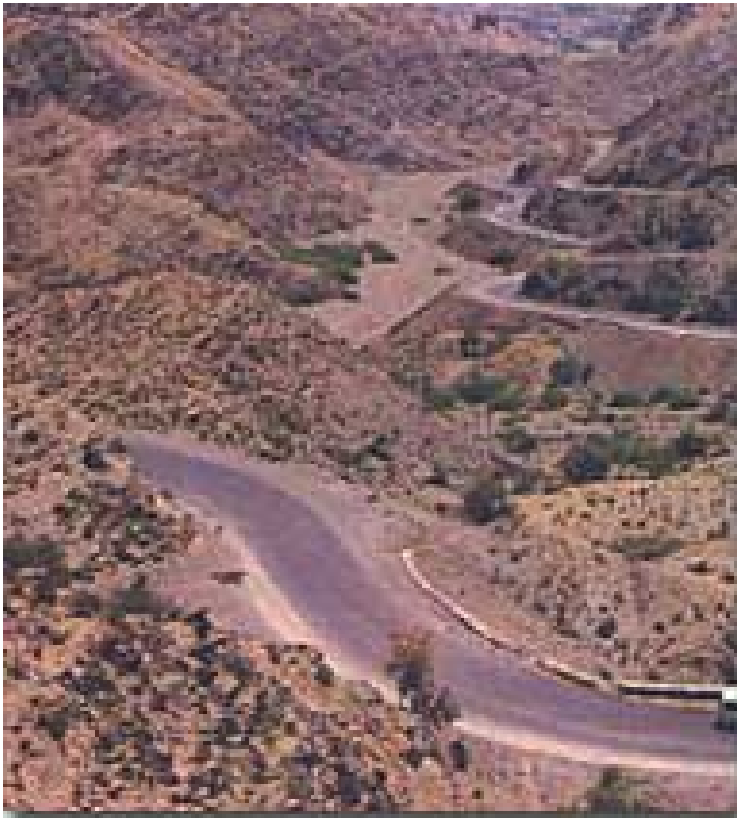
Few regions in the world have histories as ancient and diverse as South Asia's. And few people realize that South Asia's roots can be traced to the beginnings of human civilization. Marked by integration, intellectualism, and spirituality, South Asia's ancient history begs to be explored.

Early Civilization in the Indus Valley

The phrase "early civilizations usually conjures up images of Egypt and Mesopotamia, and their pyramids, mummies, and gold

**FIGURE 3.3**

The ancient Indians built religious monuments dedicated to many faiths. Many are visited by pilgrims today, such as this Buddhist temple in Nalanda.

**FIGURE 3.4**

Aryans probably used the Khyber Pass to cross the mountains during their Indian invasion. Located in present day Pakistan, the pass is about 16 yards wide at its narrowest point.

But in the 1920s, a huge discovery in South Asia proved that Egypt and Mesopotamia were not the only "early civilizations." In the vast Indus River plains (located in what is today Pakistan and western India), under layers of land and mounds of dirt, archaeologists discovered the remains of a 4,600 year-old city. A thriving, urban civilization

had existed at the same time as Egyptian and Mesopotamian states — in an area twice each of their sizes.

The people of this Indus Valley civilization did not build massive monuments like their contemporaries, nor did they bury riches among their dead in golden tombs. There were no mummies, no emperors, and no violent wars or bloody battles in their territory.

Remarkably, the lack of all these is what makes the Indus Valley civilization so exciting and unique. While others civilizations were devoting huge amounts of time and resources to the rich, the supernatural, and the dead, Indus Valley inhabitants were taking a practical approach to supporting the common, secular, living people. Sure, they believed in an afterlife and employed a system of social divisions. But they also believed resources were more valuable in circulation among the living than on display or buried underground.



FIGURE 3.5

The "Great Bath" of Mohenjo-Daro is the earliest known public water tank of the ancient world. Most scholars believe that this tank would have been used in conjunction with religious ceremonies.

Amazingly, the Indus Valley civilization appears to have been a peaceful one. Very few weapons have been found and no evidence of an army has been discovered.

Excavated human bones reveal no signs of violence, and building remains show no indication of battle. All evidence points to a preference for peace and success in achieving it.

So how did such a practical and peaceful civilization become so successful?

The Twin Cities

The ruins of two ancient cities, Harappa and Mohenjo-Daro (both in modern-day Pakistan), and the remnants of many other settlements, have revealed great clues to this mystery. Harappa was, in fact, such a rich discovery that the Indus Valley Civilization is also called the Harappan civilization.

The first artifact uncovered in Harappa was a unique stone seal carved with a unicorn and an inscription. Similar seals with different animal symbols and writings have since been found throughout the region. Although the writing has not yet been deciphered, the evidence suggests they belonged to the same language system. Apparently, Mesopotamia's cuneiform system had some competition in the race for the world's first script.

The discovery of the seals prompted archaeologists to dig further. Amazing urban architecture was soon uncovered across the valley and into the western plains. The findings clearly show that Harappan societies were well organized and very sanitary.

For protection from seasonal floods and polluted waters, the settlements were built on giant platforms and elevated grounds. Upon these foundations, networks of streets were laid out in neat patterns of straight lines and right angles. The buildings along the roads were all constructed of bricks that were uniform in size.



FIGURE 3.6

Seals such as these were used by merchants in the Harappan civilization. Many experts believe that they signified names.

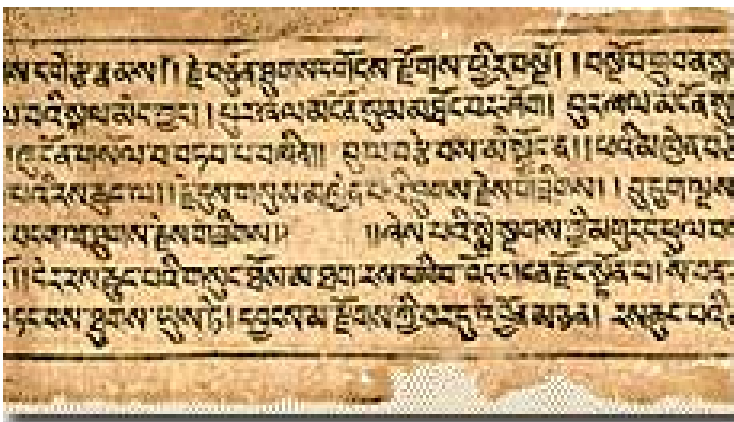


FIGURE 3.7

This copy of the Rig Veda was written after the Vedic Age. The Aryans had no form of writing at the time they invaded India. Instead, these religious scripts would have been memorized and passed down orally by Brahman priests.

The brick houses of all city dwellers were equipped with bathing areas supplied with water from neighborhood wells. Sophisticated drainage systems throughout the city carried dirty water and sewage outside of living spaces. Even the smallest houses on the edges of the towns were connected to the systems — cleanliness was obviously of utmost importance.

The Fall of Harappan Culture

No doubt, these cities were engineering masterpieces of their time. The remains of their walls yield clues about the culture that thrived in the Indus Valley. Clay figurines of goddesses, for example, are proof that religion was important. Toys and games show that even in 3000 B.C.E., kids — and maybe even adults — liked to play. Pottery, textiles, and beads are evidence of skilled craftsmanship and thriving trade.



FIGURE 3.8

Swastika

The swastika was a sacred symbol for the Aryans signifying prosperity. The word comes from the Sanskrit for "good fortune." Hitler borrowed the symbol, changed the angle and direction of the arms, and used it to represent the Nazis.

It was this intensive devotion to craftsmanship and trade that allowed the Harappan culture to spread widely and prosper greatly. Each time goods were traded or neighbors entered the gates of the cities to barter, Indus culture was spread.

Eventually, though, around 1900 B.C.E, this prosperity came to an end. The integrated cultural network collapsed, and the civilization became fragmented into smaller regional cultures. Trade, writing, and seals all but disappeared from the area.

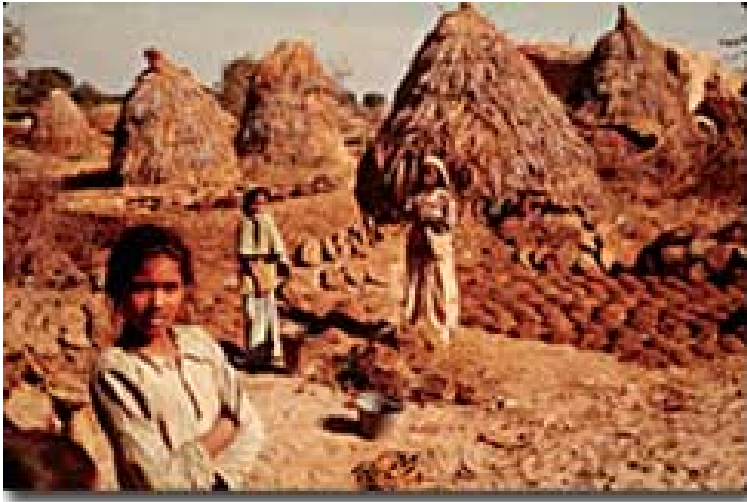
Many believe that the decline of the Harappan civilization was a result of Aryan invasions from the north. This theory seems logical because the Aryans came to power in the Ganges Valley shortly after the Indus demise of the Indus Valley Civilization. Because there is little evidence of any type of invasion though, numerous historians claim that it was an environmental disaster that led to the civilization's demise. They argue that changing river patterns disrupted the farming and trading systems and eventually led to irreparable flooding.

Although the intricate details of the early Indus Valley culture might never be fully known, many pieces of the ancient puzzle have been discovered. The remains of the Indus Valley cities continue to be unearthed and interpreted today. With each new artifact, the history of early Indian civilization is strengthened and the legacy of this ingenious and diverse metropolis is made richer.

The Caste System

Photo courtesy of Carolyn Brown Heinz

These girls, who belong to the Untouchable caste, make dung patties which are used for fuel and heat by members of all the castes. This job was considered so unclean that other castes did not associate with the members of society that performed it.

**FIGURE 3.9**

Harijan girls

If a Hindu person were asked to explain the nature of the caste system, he or she might start to tell the story of Brahma — the four-headed, four-handed deity worshipped as the creator of the universe.

According to an ancient text known as the Rigveda, the division of Indian society was based on Brahma's divine manifestation of four groups.

Priests and teachers were cast from his mouth, rulers and warriors from his arms, merchants and traders from his thighs, and workers and peasants from his feet.

What does "Caste" Mean?

Even today, most Indian languages use the term "*jati*" for the system of hereditary social structures in South Asia. When Portuguese travelers to 16th-century India first encountered what appeared to them to be race-based social stratification, they used the Portuguese term "*casta*" — which means "race" — to describe what they saw. Today, the term "caste" is used to describe stratified societies based on hereditary groups not only in South Asia but throughout the world.

Although born into the Kshatriya caste, Mahatma Gandhi spent much of his life working to bring the Untouchables equality. It was Gandhi who first named the Untouchables "Harijans," meaning "children of God."

Others might present a biological explanation of India's stratification system, based on the notion that all living things inherit a particular set of qualities. Some inherit wisdom and intelligence, some get pride and passion, and others are stuck with less fortunate traits. Proponents of this theory attribute all aspects of one's lifestyle — social status, occupation, and even diet — to these inherent qualities and thus use them to explain the foundation of the caste system.

The Origins of the Caste System

According to one long-held theory about the origins of South Asia's caste system, Aryans from central Asia invaded South Asia and introduced the caste system as a means of controlling the local populations. The Aryans defined key roles in society, then assigned groups of people to them. Individuals were born into, worked, married, ate, and died within those groups. There was no social mobility.

The Aryan Myth

The idea of an "Aryan" group of people was not proposed until the 19th century. After identifying a language called Aryan from which Indo-European languages are descended, several European linguists claimed that the speakers of this language (named Aryans by the linguists) had come from the north — from Europe.



FIGURE 3.10

Mahatma Gandhi

Thus, according to this theory, European languages and cultures came first and were therefore superior to others. This idea was later widely promoted by Adolf Hitler in his attempts to assert the "racial superiority" of so-called light-skinned people from Europe over so-called dark-skinned people from the rest of the world — and thus provide justification for genocide.

But 20th-century scholarship has thoroughly disproved this theory. Most scholars believe that there was no Aryan invasion from the north. In fact, some even believe that the Aryans — if they did exist — actually originated in South Asia and spread from there to Europe. Regardless of who the Aryans were or where they lived, it is generally agreed that they did not single-handedly create South Asia's caste system.

Thus, it has been impossible to determine the exact origins of the caste system in South Asia. In the midst of the debate, only one thing is certain: South Asia's caste system has been around for several millennia and, until the second half of the 20th century, has changed very little during all of that time.

Time for Class

In ancient India, the ranked occupational groups were referred to as *varnas*, and the hereditary occupational groups within the *varnas* were known as *jatis*. Many have immediately assumed that ascribed social groups and rules prohibiting intermarriage among the groups signify the existence of a racist culture. But this assumption is false. *Var-nas* are not racial groups but rather classes.

Four *varna* categories were constructed to organize society along economic and occupational lines. Spiritual leaders and teachers were called Brahmins. Warriors and nobility were called Kshatriyas. Merchants and producers were called Vaishyas. Laborers were called Sudras.

The Untouchables

In addition to the *varnas*, there is a fifth class in Hinduism. It encompassed outcasts who, literally, did all the dirty work. They were referred to as "untouchables" because they carried out the miserable tasks associated with disease and pollution, such as cleaning up after funerals, dealing with sewage, and working with animal skin.

Brahmins were considered the embodiment of purity, and untouchables the embodiment of pollution. Physical contact between the two groups was absolutely prohibited. Brahmins adhered so strongly to this rule that they felt obliged to bathe if even the shadow of an untouchable fell across them.

Struggling against Tradition

Although the political and social force of the caste system has not disappeared completely, the Indian government has officially outlawed caste discrimination and made widespread reforms. Particularly through the efforts of Indian nationalists such as Mohandas Gandhi, rules preventing social mobility and cross-caste mingling have been loosened.

Gandhi renamed the untouchables *Harijans*, which means "the people of God." Adopted in 1949, the Indian Constitution provided a legal framework for the emancipation of untouchables and for the equality of all citizens.

In recent years, the Untouchables have become a politically active group and have adopted for themselves the name Dalits, which means "those who have been broken."

The Rise of Hinduism

Each of the three main Hindu deities represents a part of the life cycle: Brahma the creator, Vishnu the preserver, and Shiva the destroyer. Upon destruction, Hindus believe that the cycle of creation, preservation, and destruction begins again.

Dharma. Karma. Reincarnation.

Brahma. Shiva. Vishnu.

Not many things have endured without interruption or major transformation for over 5,000 years. Hindu traditions such as these are great exceptions. Arguably, Hinduism is the oldest religion on Earth.

To understand how Hinduism has withstood the tests of time, it is important to know the principles upon which it is grounded. And to understand the principles, it is necessary to know their historical foundations.

Archaeologists have determined that highly developed civilizations flourished throughout the Indus Valley between 4000 and 1500 B.C.E. But for still unknown reasons, the valley's inhabitants appear to have moved out rather suddenly. They resettled among new neighbors in northwestern India and encountered a group of people from central Asia who brought with them warrior ethics and a religion called Vedism.

Within the ruins of the ancient Indus Valley civilization, archaeologists have discovered many artifacts of modern Hinduism that were not found in any Vedic civilizations. These include statues and amulets of gods and goddesses, huge temple tanks for bathing, and sculptures of people in yoga postures.

Based on this evidence, it seems that when the people from central Asia settled in India, their Vedic beliefs were mingled with the beliefs of indigenous Indians. Thus, it is likely that the Indus Valley tradition and Vedic gods and beliefs combined to form the foundations of Hinduism.

There is a trinity for Hindu goddesses as well as for gods. Laxmi, the second goddess of the trinity (shown here) is the goddess of wealth. The consort of Vishnu, she was incarnated on earth as the wife of each one of his avatars, exemplifying the devotion of a Hindu wife.

One Faith, Many Paths

Hinduism stands apart from all other religions for several reasons. It has no single founder, no single book of



FIGURE 3.11

Hindu Trinity

theological law and truth, no central religious organization, and no definition of absolute beginning and end.

Hinduism is a code of life — a collection of attitudes, personal experiences, and spiritual practices. It is, in essence, defined by behaviors rather than beliefs.

According to Hindu philosophy, there is one divine reality, and all religions are simply various interpretations of it. Because of this, Hinduism allows and even encourages individuals to choose a religious path that best suits their social, intellectual, emotional, and spiritual needs.

One Hindu devotee might worship well-known gods such as Vishnu and Shiva in a large, public temple, whereas another might worship less common deities in a private shrine within his or her own home. Yet they would both be considered good Hindus, provided that they honored each other's choices.

This tolerance makes Hinduism difficult to understand and define, but it does explain why so many gods, goddesses, and rituals are described in the numerous Hindu scriptures.

The Vedas and the Upanishads

The *Ramayana*, a classic epic in the Hindu religion, tells the story of Rama and the 7th avatar (incarnation) of



FIGURE 3.12

Laxmi

Vishnu, the preserver of life. This picture shows Rama breaking the bow of Shiva, winning a contest as well as his wife Sita's hand in marriage.

Despite the fact that Hindus characteristically believe and do different things, several concepts and traditions bind them together. Many of these beliefs were compiled in a set of scriptures written around 1300 B.C.E. known as the Vedas. It is believed that the Vedas are the eternal truths that were heard, then written down by holy seers.

According to the Vedas, time and life are cyclical. After death, one's soul leaves the body and is reborn, or reincarnated, into a new form.

The constant cycle of birth and rebirth is known as *samsara* and the measurement by which the quality of new birth is determined is known as karma. Karma, the accumulated result of one's actions in various lives, can be good or bad. Righteous and moral conduct, known as dharma, is the road to good karma.

Examples of traditional good conduct included marrying within one's caste, revering upper castes, doing good deeds, and abstaining from meat, particularly that of cows.

The writings known as the Upanishads appeared six to eight hundred years after the Vedas and focus mostly on how to escape the cycle of rebirth. The Upanishads explain how to leave Samsara through a release and ultimate enlightenment known as *moksha*. The appearance of the Upanishads marked the beginning of a period known as the Vedantic Age.

The End of the Vedas?



FIGURE 3.13

Rama breaking Shiva's bow

Literally, 'Vedantic' means "end of the Vedas." But the Vedic beliefs never really disappeared. Gods of the Vedic tradition became less commonly worshipped, but the Vedic philosophies recorded in the books were surely not forgotten. The principles of karma and dharma were too popular (especially among members of the lower castes) to fade away.

Scholars continue to debate over the beginning of Hinduism, but most agree that during the Vedantic Age (between 800 and 400 B.C.E.) there was a shift to the widespread worship of the gods Vishnu and Shiva. They also agree that this shift coincided with the emergence of new religions in India that sought enlightenment, such as Buddhism and Jainism.

In the years to come, Hinduism became divided into many sects. But true to the foundations of Hinduism, the new sects' beliefs and practices were accepted. Because of such tolerance, Hinduism thrives today, millennia after it began.

The Birth and Spread of Buddhism

The Buddha preached his first sermon at Sarnath, shown here. He believed that freedom from desires set people free from the cycle of rebirth.

What is humanity's place within the universe?

For millennia, people around the world have asked this question. In 6th-century South Asia, this question stirred up a small revolution.

**FIGURE 3.14**

The Buddha preached his first sermon at Sarnath, shown here. He believed that freedom from desires set people free from the cycle of rebirth.

The answers provided by traditional Hindu teachings and practices made Indian philosophers and religious sages increasingly upset. Many members of the Vaishya class spoke against the injustices of the Hindu caste system and the overwhelming power of the priestly class, known as the Brahmins.

Many Brahmin priests were considered corrupt because they performed animal sacrifices and practiced other Vedic rituals. Resentment of such rituals and continued anger about unbalanced social power prompted the development of new intellectual teachings and philosophies. These new ideas maintained that some aspects of Hindu tradition and ritual had merit. They never directly challenged Vedic gods or beliefs.

But Siddhartha Gautama did.

Buddha: Spiritual Revelation

Siddhartha was born about 563 B.C.E. in the foothills of the Himalayas. A prince, he lived a sheltered life amid luxury, wealth, and comfort. But at age 29, Siddhartha fled from his palace and discovered something new.

For the first time, he saw poverty, misery, and illness. At home, he soon felt discontented with his materialistic life and the conditions that surrounded him. In response to the emotions triggered by his experience outside the palace, he gave away all his belongings and searched for enlightenment through the abandonment of basic needs.

Siddhartha began his quest with a period of starvation. According to legend, he grew so thin during this time that he could feel his hands if he placed one on the small of his back and the other on his stomach. These methods of self-denial eventually led him to a revelation.

Siddhartha Gautama was a prince in a kingdom near the present day border of India and Nepal. Upon his enlightenment, his followers began to call him Buddha, which means, "Enlightened One".

Siddhartha discovered that he needed to find another way — something in between his rich and impoverished lifestyles. He resolved to follow the Middle Path.

Siddhartha sought enlightenment through concentration. He sat under a pipal tree, practiced intense meditation, and fought off all worldly temptations. After 40 days, he reached the ultimate goal — nirvana.

He came to understand his previous lives and finally gained release from the cycle of suffering. When he attained Enlightenment he became known by the title of Buddha, or "Awakened One."

The Buddha set out to share his experience and to teach others to follow the Middle Path. He traveled throughout northeastern India for several decades, spreading his philosophy to anyone who was interested, regardless of gender or caste. Even Brahmins and members of the nobility were converted.

**FIGURE 3.15**

Siddhartha Gautama was a prince in a kingdom near the present day border of India and Nepal. Upon his enlightenment, his followers began to call him Buddha, which means, "Enlightened One".

The Buddha died in 483 B.C.E., after 45 years of traveling and teaching. Upon his death, the Buddha passed into a state of nirvana, the ultimate release from suffering in which the self no longer exists and salvation is achieved. Included in his last breaths were four words of inspiration: "Strive on with awareness." And his followers did.

Buddhism: Spiritual Revolution

Small communities of monks and nuns, known as *bhikkus*, sprung up along the roads that Buddha traveled. Devoted to his teachings, they dressed in yellow robes and wandered the countryside to meditate quietly. For almost 200 years, these humble disciples were overshadowed by the dominant Hindu believers. But the rise of a great empire changed all that.

In the 3rd century B.C.E., several ambitious leaders built the expansive Mauryan empire and fought many bloody battles to extend its boundaries of control. One king, named Ashoka, was so troubled by the effects of the conquests on humanity that he converted to Buddhism. Adopting a code of nonviolence, he renounced all warfare and incorporated principles of Buddhism in his ruling practices.

Ashoka promoted Buddhist expansion by sending monks to surrounding territories to share the teachings of the Buddha. A wave of conversion began, and Buddhism spread not only through India, but also internationally. Ceylon, Burma, Nepal, Tibet, central Asia, China, and Japan are just some of the regions where the Middle Path was widely accepted.

With the great spread of Buddhism, its traditional practices and philosophies became redefined and regionally distinct.

Only a small minority practiced the earliest forms of Buddhism, and Buddhist influence as a whole began to fade within India. Some scholars believe that many Buddhist practices were simply absorbed into the tolerant Hindu faith.

Today there are approximately 350 million Buddhists in the world.

Chandragupta Maurya: c.321 BC

The plains of north India are in a politically unsettled state when Alexander the Great marches into the subcontinent in 327 BC. But it is the dissatisfaction of his own soldiers, rather than any defeat at Indian hands, which turns him back. And for the next twenty years northwest India remains under Greek control.

Soon after the conqueror's departure, one of India's greatest dynasties is established by Chandragupta Maurya. In about 321 he seizes the throne of Magadha (now Patna). By 305 he is strong enough to force the withdrawal of Alexander's successor in the region, Seleucus. The Greek retreat through the Khyber Pass is sweetened by a gift from Chandragupta of 500 elephants.

The Mauryan kingdom is the first in India's history to deserve the broader title of empire. It reaches its greatest extent under Chandragupta's grandson, Asoka, who defeats his brothers in a battle for the throne in about 272 BC. According to later Buddhist chronicles he murders them all, but this may be a pious legend. A great sinner is the most welcome of converts.

More certain is that Asoka brings the eastern coast of India under his control in a campaign of considerable savagery. According to his own inscriptions, disgust at what he sees on this campaign causes him to adopt the Buddhist principle of non-violence. (Asoka's dates, like the dates of Buddha himself, are uncertain and controversial.)

Asoka puts up pillars and rock inscriptions throughout his empire (and particularly round the borders), referring to himself under the title Piyadassi, meaning 'of benevolent aspect'. Most of our knowledge of his reign comes from these inscriptions, which emphasize his care for the welfare of his people.

Official inscriptions by kings on the subject of their own benevolence should be taken with a pinch of salt. Asoka does, nevertheless, preside over a vast empire largely in a state of peace. But benevolence is perhaps not a valid long-term policy in imperial matters. On his death in about 232 BC, after a reign of nearly half a century, the Mauryan empire begins to crumble.

Incursions from Bactria: 2nd century BC - 2nd century AD

The Mauryan dynasty ends in about 185 BC. The last king is assassinated by one of his own military commanders, who seizes the throne.

During the next four centuries India suffers a series of invasions from the northwest. The first intruders are Greeks from Bactria, a distant outpost of Greek culture ever since Alexander's conquest of Persia. The Greeks sometimes penetrate as far down the Ganges as Patna, but for the most part they are confined to the northwest corner of the subcontinent. It is possible that the Greek influence on this region, seen in its sculpture, begins this early. But a more lasting link between India and the west is introduced in the 2nd century AD by the Kushans.

The Kushan dynasty, founded in Bactria by one of the chiefs of a nomadic tribe, presses southeast into India from the end of the first century AD. Its greatest successes are achieved in about AD 120 by the third king in the line,

Kanishka.

His capital is at Peshawar, roughly at the centre of a realm which stretches from Bukhara to beyond Varanasi on the Ganges. This empire straddles the Silk Road, the trade route from China to the Mediterranean - a fact of great significance for Buddhism. The religion finds favour with Kanishka, and his active support (he is a great patron of architects, sculptors and scholars) contributes largely to the spread of Buddhism from India to China.

The Gupta Period of India



FIGURE 3.16

The Ajanta and Ellora caves were created during the Golden Age. They were decorated with paintings of religious figures; some Hindu and some Buddhist.

The Gupta Period of India was not characterized by enormous material wealth or by elaborate trade activity.

It was defined by creativity. Flourishing arts, fabulous literature, and stupendous scholars are just a few of the things that marked the period.

In 185 B.C.E., the Mauryan empire collapsed when the last of the Mauryan kings was assassinated. In its place, small kingdoms arose throughout India.

For nearly 500 years, the various states warred with each other. In the northern territories, a new empire arose when a ruler named Chandragupta I ascended the throne in 320 C.E. He revived many principles of Mauryan government and paved the way for his son, Samudragupta, to develop an extensive empire.

Victory at Any Cost

Samudragupta was a great warrior and conquest was his passion. He sought to unite all of India under his rule and quickly set out to achieve this goal by waging wars across much of the Indian subcontinent.

Hoping for mercy, many potential victims offered tribute and presents to Samudragupta as he swept through the territories. But little mercy was granted. One by one, he defeated nine kings in the north and twelve in the south. In addition to the human devastation countless horses were slaughtered to celebrate his victories.

The Gupta territories expanded so greatly under Samudragupta's reign that he has often been compared to great conquerors such as Alexander the Great and Napoleon. But of course he did not achieve military success single-handedly. Local squads — which each consisted of one elephant, one chariot, three armed cavalymen, and five foot soldiers — protected Gupta villages from raids and revolts. In times of war, the squads joined together to form a powerful royal army.

Gupta Achievements

But Samudragupta was more than a fighter; he was also a lover of the arts. Engraved coins and inscribed pillars from the time of his reign provide evidence of both his artistic talent and his patronage. He set the stage for the emergence of classical art, which occurred under the rule of his son and successor Chandragupta II.

Chandragupta II gave great support to the arts. Artists were so highly valued under his rule that they were paid for their work — a rare phenomenon in ancient civilizations. Perhaps it is due to this monetary compensation that such considerable progress was made in literature and science during the period.



FIGURE 3.17

Nalanda University was founded during India's Golden Age. This center of Buddhist learning was built in a place that the Buddha himself had visited a number of times, and was patronized by the Gupta kings

Nalanda University was founded during India's Golden Age. This center of Buddhist learning was built in a place that the Buddha himself had visited a number of times, and was patronized by the Gupta kings.

Much of the literature produced during the Gupta dynasty was poetry and drama. Narrative histories, religious and meditative writing, and lyric poetry emerged to enrich, educate, and entertain the people. Formal essays were composed on subjects ranging from grammar and medicine to math and astronomy. The best-known essay of the period is the *Kamasutra*, which provides rules about the art of love and marriage according to Hindu laws.

Two of the most famous scholars of the era were Kalidasa and Aryabhata. Kalidasa, the greatest writer of the empire, brought plays to new heights by filling them with humor and epic heroism. Aryabhata, a scientist ahead of his time, went out on a limb and proposed that earth was a rotating sphere centuries before Columbus made his famous voyage. Aryabhata also calculated the length of the solar year as 365.358 days — only three hours over the figure calculated by modern scientists.

Alongside these scholarly achievements, magnificent architecture, sculpture, and painting also developed. Among the greatest paintings of this period are those that were found on the walls of the Ajanta Caves in the plains of southern India. The paintings illustrate the various lives of the Buddha. An 18-foot statue of the Hindu god Shiva was also found within a Gupta-dynasty rock temple near Bombay.

A Lasting Inspiration

Although the Gupta rulers practiced Hindu rituals and traditions, it is clear from these discoveries that the empire was characterized by religious freedom. Evidence of a Buddhist university within the region is further proof of the peaceful coexistence between Hindus and Buddhists.

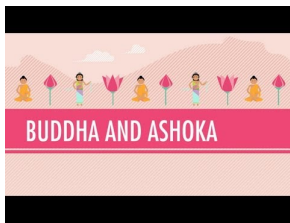
The Gupta dynasty flourished immensely under Chandragupta II, but rapidly weakened during the reign of his two successors. A wave of invasions launched by the Huns, a nomadic group from central Asia, started in 480 C.E. Two decades later, Gupta kings had little territory left under their control. Around 550 C.E., the empire perished completely.

Though India was not truly unified again until the coming of the Muslims, the classical culture of the Guptas did not disappear. The flourishing arts of the region, which were unrivaled in their time, left more than a legacy. They left descendants of the Guptas with continuous inspiration to create.

**MEDIA**

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**MEDIA**

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(ISN) Interactive Student Notebook Assignments

1. Explain two innovations that were specific to the Indus Valley Civilizations.
2. Name the twin cities of Ancient India.
3. Compare the conflicting theories on the decline of Harappan.
4. List the and explain the different social classes created by the Aryan Caste.
5. Explain who Siddhartha Gautama was and his idea of the "middle path"
6. Explain how Ashoka rose to power.
7. Analyze how Ashoka helped spread Buddhist beliefs outside of India.
8. Compare the Mauryan and Gupta Empires.

(ISN) Discussion and Study Questions

1. What were the key religious ideas that originated in India that continue to draw adherents in the present?
2. How did Buddhism address human suffering?
3. What were the Buddha's 4 Noble Truths and Eightfold Path?
4. How did the caste system operate to establish social order in India?
5. What were the innovations and accomplishments of the classical Indian Mauryan and Gupta empires?

Vocabulary**Quizlet Flashcards for Classical India****TABLE 3.1:**

Aryans	An Indo-European people who migrated into the Indian subcontinent around 1500 B.C. They introduced into Indian society a caste system and their sacred literature, the Vedas.
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TABLE 3.1: (continued)

Asoka	An Indian emperor of the Mauryan Dynasty who ruled nearly the entire Indian subcontinent in the 3rd century B.C. After a number of military conquests, he embraced Buddhism and non-violence.
Buddhism	A religion and philosophy indigenous to India encompassing a variety of beliefs and practices largely based on the teachings of Siddhartha Gautama.
caste system	In India, the permanent and rigid social positions a person was born into.
Eightfold Path	In Buddhism, the step by step process that must be learned and followed in order to attain the state of nirvana, or enlightenment. Also referred to as "the Middle Way."
Four Noble Truths	The four main ideas Buddha presented to his companions in his first sermon.
Gupta Empire	The second empire in India that established a "Golden Age of Hindu Culture," an era marked by peace, stability and advancements in math, astronomy, medicine, the arts, literature and education. Invasions by the Huns would bring about its disintegration.
Hinduism	The socio-religious system that developed in ancient India. It blended the Aryan concept of a caste system with other religious concepts such as polytheism, reincarnation, and karma.
Mauryan Empire	An Indian empire established by Chandragupta and his grandson Asoka. Its period of greatness lasted from 321 to 232 B.C. and it became the largest empire ever on the Indian subcontinent.
reincarnation	In Hinduism and Buddhism, the process whereby a soul is reborn again and again until it achieves perfect understanding.
untouchables	Persons considered so impure because of their work that they were considered to be outside of the social caste system of India. Their touch was believed to defile a higher-caste Hindu.

Internet Resources

TimeMaps.com Free interactive world history atlas. Where you can find over 1,500 maps, historical overviews, articles, and images.

[River Valley Civilizations](#) a website that discusses all four ancient valley civilizations. Provides map, images, and summaries of key ideas, effects, and events

3.2 Classical China

2.2 China

Student Learning Objectives

By the end of this section the student will be able to

- identify major causes and describe the major effects of the following events from 8000 BCE to 500 CE: the development of agriculture and the river valley civilizations.
- identify the major causes and describe the effects of the following events from 500 BCE to circa 600 CE: the development of classical civilization in China (Zhou, Qin and Han) and the development of major world religions.
- summarize the impact of the development of farming on the creation of river valley civilizations.
- identify the characteristics of civilization as they apply to classical China.
- explain how major river valley civilizations influenced the development of the classical civilizations.
- describe the major political, religious/philosophical, and cultural influences of China.
- analyze the influence of human and physical geographic factors on major events in world history, including the development of river valley civilizations.
- interpret maps, charts, and graphs to explain how geography has influenced people and events in the past.

China



FIGURE 3.18

When 13-year-old Qin Emperor Shi Huangdi came to power in 221 B.C.E., one of his first acts was to begin preparing for his death. In addition to his army of over 8,000 clay soldiers, his tomb was lined in bronze and contained a vast wealth of jewels and artifacts beyond imagination.

In 1974, researchers uncovered the tomb of Shi Huangdi, the legendary Ch'in (Qin) emperor who unified China and reigned from 221-207 B.C.E. Inside of the tomb were life-sized soldiers made of terracotta (Italian for "baked

earth"), lined up neatly in 38 rows. The soldiers were amazing in their detail, with each having different facial features, likely modeled after actual soldiers. They even carried real bronze weapons, with blades that remained razor sharp after 2,200 years.



FIGURE 3.19

To live forever. That was the goal of ancient Chinese Taoists. They pursued it through many different means including alchemy, diet, gymnastics, and breathing methods.

However, what truly left archaeologists and the rest of the world watching on TV in awe was this: There were over 8,000 soldiers lined up in the tomb! Infantrymen, chariots pulled by life-sized clay horses, crossbowmen, it was a complete army, armed and armored. Stretching 650 feet back into the chamber, these soldiers were created to guard the emperor in the afterlife. Ordered by the emperor at age 13, it took 36 years and 700,000 workers to complete construction of the massive tomb and its army.

A Lesson in Paradoxes

Welcome to the mystery and wonder that is ancient China. In the subsequent readings, you will learn that Chinese culture developed differently from any other ancient civilization. Chinese history is a lesson in paradoxes. Their past is full of natural disasters and wars; yet some of the most beautiful art, literature, and architecture have been created and preserved through the 13 dynastic periods, spanning 4,000 years into the 20th century. These trends are reflected by three of the most influential dynasties of China: the Shang, Han, and Tang.

Written language began in China with the oracle bones and tortoise shells of the Shang dynasty, and the beauty of their bronze work was unrivaled for hundreds of years. The Han dynasty will always be remembered for opening up to the Western world through its use of the Silk Road. Ideas such as Buddhism were exchanged as freely as silk and spices with lands as far west as India and the Roman Empire.



FIGURE 3.20

Red hair in China

A little over a decade ago, researchers found the perfectly preserved bodies of a band of travelers migrating through the bleak western deserts of China. What made this find startling was that the mummies were European, with pale faces and reddish hair. Could this signal the discovery of a new civilization?

China's most enduring landmark, the Great Wall, was built primarily during the Han period. Its earthen walls protected the Chinese people from foreign invasions throughout the centuries. It was during the Tang dynasty that the most beautiful poetry of dynastic China was written, as were the civil examinations that remained in use into the 20th century. China was, and is, truly a land of invention and discovery.

The major philosophies originating in China, Taoism and Confucianism, will be examined in the hope that we may learn from their vast wealth of knowledge. Brilliant thinkers such as Lao Tzu and Confucius molded the political and religious landscapes of dynastic China with their radical ideas about the nature of man.

TABLE 3.2:

DYNASTY	DATE	IMPORTANT FIGURES	INVENTIONS & DISCOVERIES
Xia (Hsia)	c.1994-c.1523 B.C.E.	Yu the Great, Huang Di	irrigation & farming, domesticated animals, writing
Shang (Yin)	c.1523-1111	Fuhao	bronze, oracle bones, calendar
Chou (Zhou)	1111-221	Confucius, Lao-tzu	iron, written laws, money, feudalism
Ch'in (Qin)	221-206	Shi Huangdi	bureaucracy, roads, canals, beginning of the Great Wall
Han	206 B.C.E.-220 C.E.	Wu Ti, Wang Mang	porcelain, paper, Buddhism, Silk Road, encyclopedia (Shiji)
Three Kingdoms	220-280		growth of Taoism
Jin (Tsin or Chin)	265-420		exploration into southeast Asia

TABLE 3.2: (continued)

Southern & Northern	420-588		wheelbarrow, advances in astronomy and medicine
Sui	581-617	Sui Wen-ti	central government, Great Wall restored, Great Canal built
Tang (T'ang)	618-907	Tai-tsung, Du Fu, Wang Wei	land expansion, civil exams, poetry, sculpture, painting
Five Dynasties	907-960		woodblock printing, printing of paper money
Song (Sung)	960-1279		tea, cotton, gunpowder, growth of Confucianism
Yuan (Yung)	1260-1368	Kublai Khan	playwriting, medical literature, playing cards
Ming	1368-1644		contact with West, architecture and literature flourish
Ch'ing (Qing or Manchu)	1644-1911		further land expansion, restoration of ancient text

The Middle Kingdom



FIGURE 3.21

Yu the Great

To prevent flooding of the north China plain by the Yellow River, Yu the Great organized large-scale projects in irrigation and dike-building. Yu then went on to found the first dynasty of China, the Xia.

From the misty veil of prehistory emerged the myths of ancient China. Heroes turned to gods, and men and beasts performed miraculous feats. Their myths explain the discoveries of the tools and practices used by the Chinese to the present-day.

Yet Chinese mythology has never contained any clear-cut creation stories. The people of China existed long before creation myths became popular. Instead, the earliest Chinese myths center on issues that everyday people had to face. One example involves a man named Yu.

The Legend of Yu

Flooding worried Emperor Shun. The Yellow River and its springs had overflowed, destroying farmland and putting people in danger. So the emperor consulted his advisors to find a way to stop the flooding. They all agreed that a man by the name of Yu, who could transform into a dragon or a bear, was the only one who could succeed where others had failed.

Yu's own father, Kun, had tried for ten years to build dams and dig ditches without success, the waters always overflowing any attempts to tame them. Upon the emperor's request, Yu came up with a plan. Yu knew that in Heaven there was a special "swelling soil" that multiplied when it touched water. He humbly asked the gods for the soil, and received it with their blessings. With the help of a winged dragon, Yu flew all over the land, using the soil to plug 250,000 springs, the sources of the water.

That problem solved, Yu turned his attention to the Yellow River and the flood waters that still remained. Amazingly, the solution came not from the mind of Yu, but in the form of a map on the back of a tortoise shell. Using the map, and later the help of the gods, Yu and his dragon were able to dig irrigation ditches that finally diverted the water off the farmland and saved the day. As a reward for his diligence, upon the death of Shun, Yu the Great became the first emperor of the Xia dynasty.



FIGURE 3.22

The Yellow River, said to be the "Mother of the Chinese People," gets its color from the huge amounts of silt pulled from its banks and riverbed.

The Real Xia

Although the myths of Yu and others made great stories, for centuries they had no archaeological evidence to support them. So what is actually known about ancient China? Until 1928 when archaeologists excavated a site at Anyang in the Henan Province of China, no one knew what parts, if any, of these ancient tales were true. However at Anyang, remnants of cities, bronze tools, and tombs were found in the same places spoken of in ancient Chinese myths. These sites and artifacts proved the existence of the first dynasty established by Yu.

The Xia were able to harvest silk for clothing and artwork, created pottery using the potter's wheel, and were very knowledgeable about farming practices such as irrigation. The Xia dynasty lasted approximately five hundred years, from the 21st to the 16th century B.C.E. It connected the Longshan people, who were the earliest culture of China known for their black-lacquered pottery, with the Shang dynasty that came much later.

An Impenetrable Land

The Chinese are the longest continuous civilization in the world, spanning 7,000 years of history. How could Chinese civilization survive when so many other cultures have come and gone? One possible answer lies in the physical geography of the region.



FIGURE 3.23

The legendary Yellow Emperor Huang Di

The Yellow Emperor, Huang Di, is supposed to have founded China in approximately 4000 B.C.E. There is no archaeological evidence to support that claim however, leaving Huang Di obscured through the veil of history and Chinese mythology as a part-real, part-legendary figure.

With vast mountain ranges including the Himalayas standing imposingly to the southwest, the Gobi Desert to the north, and the Pacific Ocean stretching out to the east, the Chinese were in relative isolation from the rest of the world until the 1800s. In fact, because they believed they were in the middle of the world, surrounded by natural barriers on all sides, the Chinese thought of themselves as "Zhong Guo" — the Middle Kingdom.

Foreign invaders had great difficulty reaching China, and many of the most important discoveries, inventions, and beliefs of the West remained unknown to the Middle Kingdom. In the early years of their civilization, the Chinese developed a unique writing system, began using bronze for both tools and art, and created folk religions that later evolved into the philosophies of Taoism and Confucianism. These discoveries enabled the Chinese to develop a culture unlike any other the world has ever known.

Shang Dynasty — China's First Recorded History

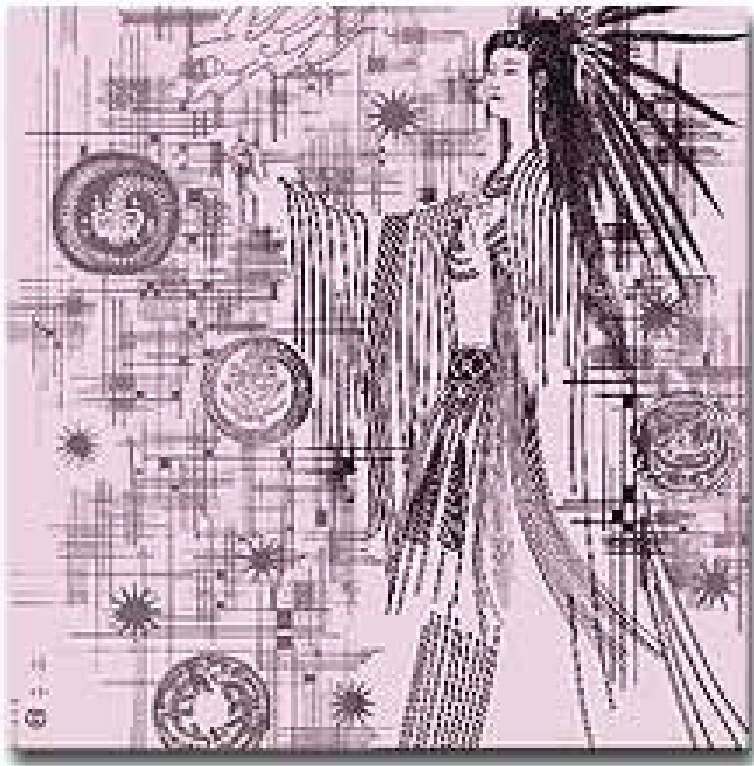


FIGURE 3.24

Fuhao

Lu Yanguang

Fuhao, the first woman to appear in Chinese written history, commanded an army of 10,000 soldiers during the Shang dynasty.

Recorded history in China begins with the Shang dynasty. Scholars today argue about when the dynasty began, with opinions ranging from the mid-18th to the mid-16th century B.C.E. Regardless of the dates, one event more than any other signaled the advent of the Shang dynasty — the Bronze Age.

It was during the Shang dynasty that bronze working became common. Thousands of artifacts from the ruins of Yin, the last capital of the Shang, were unearthed in the late 1920s and '30s. Bronze vessels for drinking were used in ritual ceremonies, while bronze chariots and axes were used in battle. As the metal was associated with royalty, the tombs of Shang kings contained hundreds of small bronze objects, even including hairpins.

One of the few undisturbed tombs was that of the legendary Fuhao, wife of Wu-ting. Her tomb by itself contained 468 works of bronze and 775 pieces of jade. Some of the bronze objects found contained the first Chinese characters ever written. Very simple in nature, these characters often represented the name of the object's owner.



FIGURE 3.25

Oracle bones

Oracles written on tortoise shells serve as the earliest evidence of the development of a writing system in China.

Them Bones

In addition to bronze, examples of the early Chinese writing system can be found on oracle bones, another type of artifact characteristic to the Shang dynasty. Ancient Chinese priests commonly used tortoise shells and cattle bones to answer questions about the future. They interpreted the cracks formed by holes punched in the bones. Oracle bones also served as a way for the priests to write down the history of the dynasty and the timeline of kings.

Today, over 150,000 oracle bones have been recovered. Unfortunately, many more artifacts containing early Chinese writing have been lost. Writing made on books of bamboo strips and silk could not survive centuries of burial in the earth. Many of those that did survive were burned by the first emperor of the Ch'in dynasty in approximately 100 B.C.E.

Shang Society

From what has survived archaeologists and historians have learned much of the Shang culture. The Shang were skilled workers in bone, jade, ceramics, stone, wood, shells, and bronze, as proven by the discovery of shops found on the outskirts of excavated palaces. The people of the Shang dynasty lived off of the land, and as time passed, settled permanently on farms instead of wandering as nomads.

**FIGURE 3.26**

The Shang dynasty 1700-1027 B.C.E.

The Shang dynasty emerged in the 17th century B.C.E. as the first true Chinese dynasty. Its boundaries are shown in gray.

To guard against flooding by the Yangtze and Yellow Rivers, the ancient Shang developed complex forms of irrigation and flood control. The farming of millet, wheat, rice, and barley crops provided the major sources of food, but hunting was not uncommon. Domesticated animals raised by the Shang included pigs, dogs, sheep, oxen, and even silkworms.

Like many other ancient cultures, the Shang created a social pyramid, with the king at the top, followed by the military nobility, priests, merchants, and farmers. Burials were one way in which the social classes were distinguished. The elite were buried in elaborate pit tombs with various objects of wealth for a possible use in the afterlife. Even an elephant was found among the ruins of an ancient tomb. The people who built these tombs were sometimes buried alive with the dead royalty. The lesser classes were buried in pits of varying size based on status, while people of the lowest classes were sometimes even tossed down wells.

Beginning to Believe

All of the classes however had one thing in common — religion. The major philosophies to later shape China — Taoism, Confucianism, and Buddhism — had not yet been formed. Folk religion during the Shang dynasty was polytheistic, meaning the people worshipped many gods.



FIGURE 3.27
Chinese Bronze Age artwork

This bronze sculpture of a human head with gold leaf is typical of the bronze artwork created during the Shang

dynasty.

Ancestor worship was also very important to the Shang. It was thought that the success of crops and the health and well being of people were based on the happiness of dead ancestors. If the ancestors of a family were pleased, life for that family would be prosperous. If the spirits were not pleased however, great tragedies could occur.

In addition, the god worshipped by everyone during the Shang dynasty was Shang Ti, the "lord on high." Shang Ti was believed to be the link between people and heavenly beings. The souls of ancestors, it was thought, visited with Shang Ti and received their instructions from him. It was therefore very important to make sure that Shang Ti was happy. This was done with various rituals and prayers, offerings, and sometimes even human sacrifices.

The last king of the Shang dynasty, Shang Chou, was a cruel man known for his methods of torture. The dynasty had been weakened by repeated battles with nomads and rivaling tribes within China. Shang Chou was ousted by the rebel leader Wu-wang in 1111 B.C.E.

Han Dynasty — Cultural Heights



FIGURE 3.28

The giant panda

The giant panda lived for centuries in China's bamboo forests, and were regarded as semi-divine during the Han dynasty. They are now an endangered species.

After the fall of the Shang dynasty in 1111 B.C.E., the succeeding dynasties of the Chou (1111-221 B.C.E.) and the Ch'in (221-206 B.C.E.) continued the great advances made by the early Chinese. Building techniques improved, and the use of iron became common. A system of hydraulics was used to dig riverbeds deeper, reducing the number of floods that destroyed farmland and endangered lives.

However, during these dynasties there were also times of great disunity. Feudalism became popular during the Chou dynasty, a practice in which the king shared his power with lords, who in turn paid the king for their lands and titles. As the Chou dynasty weakened, lords fought among themselves. This Warring States period (403-221 B.C.E.) only ended when all of northern China was united under the Ch'in regime.

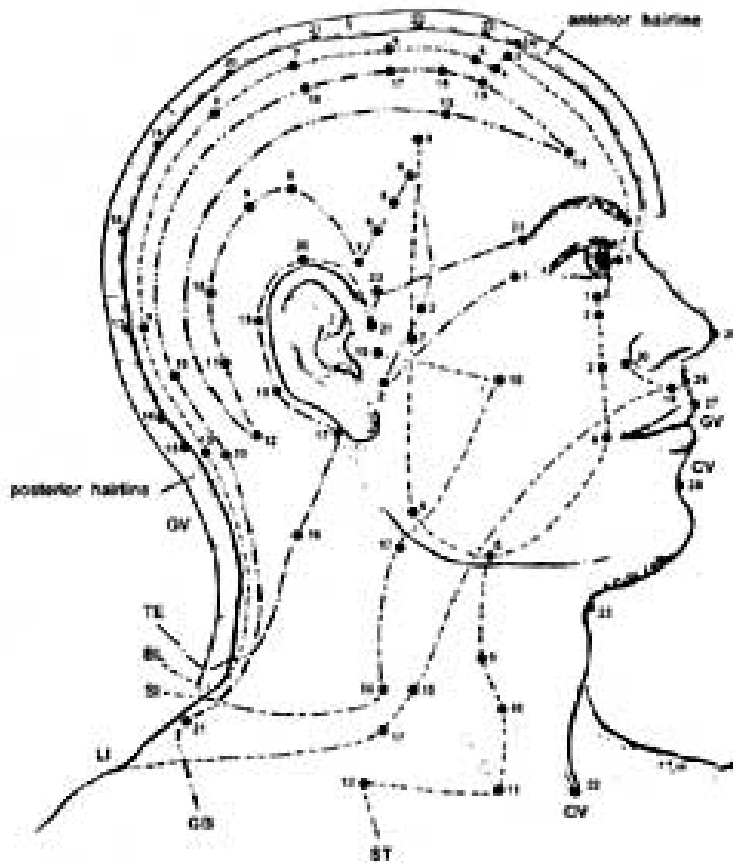


FIGURE 3.29

Chinese acupuncture diagrams

The ancient Chinese healing systems of acupuncture and acupressure use diagrams of points, called meridians, to direct energy flow throughout the body.

Although the Ch'in created needed change in China's government, they were harsh leaders. They supported the idea of Legalism, which taught that human nature could not be trusted, and only with strict laws and severe penalties could society be successful. After only fifteen years, the Ch'in dynasty collapsed, replaced by Liu Pang of the Han. It was he who gained control over the border states, and established one of the most successful periods in Chinese history, the Han dynasty, in 202 B.C.E.

The Rise of the Han

The Han dynasty immediately restored feudal lords to their positions of power. The Chinese people prospered in peace once again. Paper and porcelain were invented during the Han dynasty, as was the wheelbarrow. Legend states that paper was first created in 105 C.E., but archaeological evidence suggests that it was in use up to 200 years earlier. In comparison, paper was not widely circulated in the West until 1150 C.E., over one thousand years later.



FIGURE 3.30

The Silk Road trade route

Mike Dowling, "The Electronic Passport to the Silk Road."

The 7,000-mile Silk Road flourished during the Han dynasty, allowing trade between China and India.

The major achievements of the early Han dynasty revolve around the first emperor to reign under the Mandate of Heaven, Wu Ti. Emperors were under heaven's rule according to the mandate. Their success was based on the opinion of the gods. If the gods became unhappy with an emperor's rule, it was believed that signs would be sent to the Chinese people, usually in the form of natural disasters. In this event, the emperor lost the Heavenly Mandate, and was usually overthrown.

The gods must have looked upon Wu Ti favorably, as he reigned for 54 years from 140-87 B.C.E, expanding the borders of China into Vietnam in the south and Korea in the north. However, it was his westward expansion that most influenced what became the Han Empire.

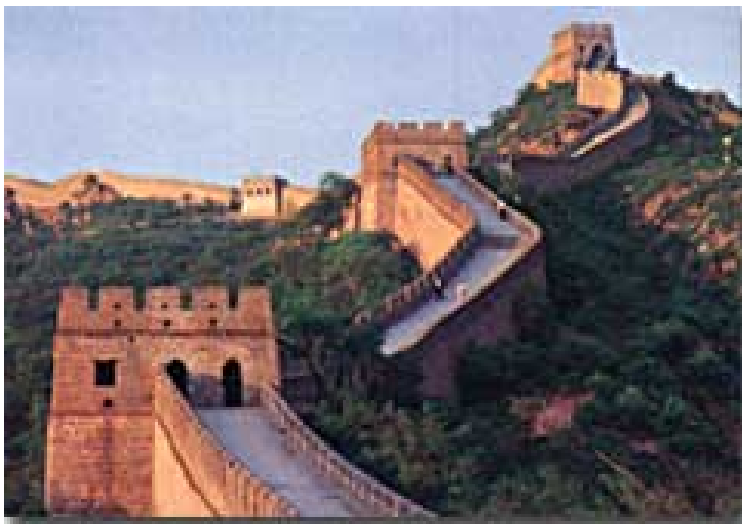


FIGURE 3.31

The Great Wall of China

Beijing: Glimpses of History published by Foreign Languages Press, Beijing, China.

The Great Wall of China runs 4,600 miles, and is said to be the only man-made structure visible from space.

Westward Ho!

Wu Ti had heard rumors of powerful and wealthy lands to the west. In 138 B.C.E. the emperor sent the explorer Chang Ch'ien with a party of 100 men to search the western frontier. Thirteen years later, Chang Ch'ien returned with only one of the original 100 men and told amazing stories of capture and imprisonment in central Asia. Although he did not succeed in reaching the lands of Persia, Arabia, or the Roman Empire, Chang Ch'ien did learn plenty about them.

Wu Ti sent Chang Ch'ien to central Asia again a few years later, this time to make alliances using gifts of cattle, gold, and silk. Wu Ti's chief historian, Ssu-ma Ch'ien, later kept a record of these journeys and much more in his work called the *Shiji* (Records of the Historian). The *Shiji* chronicles the history of China from the Xia dynasty up to the reign of Wu Ti.

Chang Ch'ien's journeys began the widespread use of the trade route known as the Silk Road. Reaching as far west as the Caspian Sea, goods such as ivory, glass, wool, tapestries, exotic fruits and vegetables, precious metals and stones, even animals such as elephants and lions were imported into China. In return, foreign traders received furs, spices, jade, iron, ceramic, and bronze objects, as well as the much sought after silk. By the 1st century C.E., silk clothing became the style and obsession of Roman citizens.

Another Brick in the Wall

Arguably the greatest achievement in all of Chinese history continued during the Han dynasty — the construction of the Great Wall of China. Originally begun during the Ch'in dynasty, Wu Ti restored the wall, and continued it another 300 miles into the Gobi Desert to protect against attacks from central Asia. The Gobi Desert section was made with stamped earth and reinforced with willow reeds.



FIGURE 3.32

The art of porcelain-making

Chinese artisans learned the secret of creating porcelain during the Han period. Europeans figured out the same

secret ... in 1709.

Yet the Great Wall has survived 2,000 years of invasion and erosion, spanning over 4,500 miles through northern China at the time of its completion. It is now regarded as one of the wonders of the world. The Great Wall came at a high price. At the height of its construction, one mile of wall was created each day, at an average cost of 10 lives per mile.

Highs and Lows

Acupuncture, the piercing of needles into the skin, became popular in the 2nd century C.E. along with herbal medicine as a treatment for common illnesses. The Han also studied in astronomical matters. They believed comets, eclipses, and other unusual celestial events were ominous signs that could be used to predict future disasters. They created atlases depicting the shapes of 29 different types of comets as well as the accurate positions of Venus, Jupiter, and Saturn. Sunspots and exploding stars called nova were also first discovered during the Han dynasty.

With only a short interruption by the reformer Wang Mang from 9-24 C.E., the Han dynasty lasted for well over 400 years. But by the beginning of the 3rd century C.E., the corruption in government that signaled the decline of nearly every Chinese dynasty had taken its toll. This corruption combined with political struggles and an increasing population, making a unified China impossible. The Han dynasty of China finally lost its Heavenly Mandate in 220 C.E., beginning nearly 400 years of political chaos.

Taoism and Confucianism — Ancient Philosophies

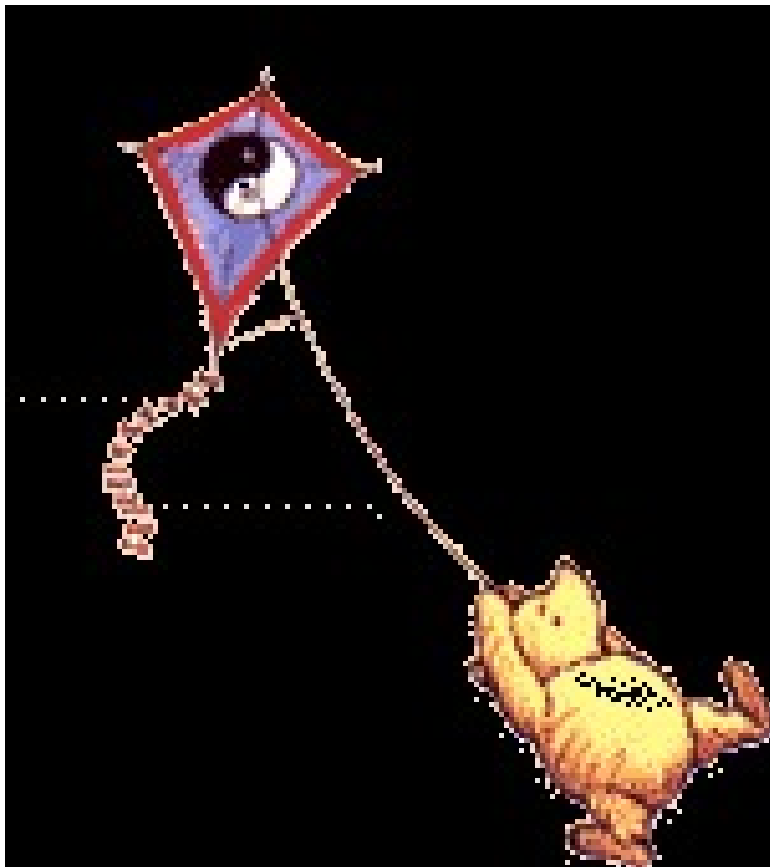


FIGURE 3.33

Pooh and the Tao

Although he is an animal with Very Little Brain, Winnie the Pooh understands better than most what it is to live

effortlessly and happily, two characteristics of the Taoist way.

"Those who know do not say; those who say do not know." -*Lao-tzu*

"The superior men are sparing in their words and profuse in their deeds." -*Confucius*

The 6th century B.C.E. was an amazing time of philosophical growth for ancient China. It was during that time that the two most influential spiritual leaders native to China, Confucius and Lao-tzu, are thought to have lived and taught. The philosophies that they practiced, Taoism and Confucianism, existed simultaneously in dynastic China, attracting countless numbers of followers over the past 2,500 years. The fascination of both the Eastern and Western worlds with these two legendary figures and the philosophies that they created remains strong.

The Old Master

Lao-tzu, translated as either "Old Master" or "Old Boy," is believed to be the author of Taoism. Very little is known of his life; he may not even have existed. According to myth, at his birth around 604 B.C.E., Lao-tzu came from the womb as an old man, white-haired and full of wisdom. He eventually took a position as head librarian of the Imperial Archives. Saddened by society's lack of goodness, Lao-tzu decided to leave his home in Luoyang to live out the rest of his life in quiet and solitude somewhere beyond the Great Wall of China, possibly near Tibet. As he passed through the city gates for the final time, the gatekeeper asked Lao-tzu to write down his parting thoughts. The "Old Master" agreed, and three days later returned with a small book. Lao-tzu then left civilization, never to return. His writings were titled the *Tao Te Ching*, and became the most important text of Taoism.



FIGURE 3.34

The Vinegar Tasters

Lao-tzu smiles while the Buddha and Confucius wince after they taste-test vinegar. The philosophies of ancient China are summarized in the faces of its three most colorful characters.

According to Taoism, the entire universe and everything in it flows with a mysterious, unknowable force called the Tao. Translated literally as "The Way," the Tao has many different meanings. It is the name that describes ultimate reality. The Tao also explains the powers that drive the universe and the wonder of human nature. Taoists believe that everything is one despite all appearances. Opinions of good and evil or true and false only happen when people forget that they are all one in the Tao. Therefore, it is the aim of Taoists not to forget, and if forgotten to remember that oneness. However, Lao-tzu reminds believers that the Tao is difficult to grasp: "*the Tao that can be spoken is not the true Tao.*"

Over time a Taoist religion evolved, becoming somewhat different from the philosophy of Taoism just described. While religious Taoism held some of the same beliefs, it also called for worship of many gods and ancestors, a practice that began during the Shang dynasty. Other religious practices included the cultivation of bodily energy called "chi," the creation of a system of morals, and use of alchemy in attempts to attain immortality. The folk religion of Taoism became popular after its adoption by China as the state religion in 440 C.E., and continues to be practiced even to the present-day.

Confucius and the *Annalects*

The other driving philosophy of dynastic China was created by a politician, musician, and philosopher named Confucius. Born in 551 B.C.E., Confucius wandered throughout China, first as a government employee, and later as a political advisor to the rulers of the Chou dynasty. In later life, Confucius left politics to teach a small group of students. After his death in 479 B.C.E., the ethics and moral teachings of Confucius were written down by his students to become the *Lun-yü*, or *Analects*. Many of his clever sayings are still followed today. "It is as hard to be poor without complaining as to be rich without becoming arrogant."



FIGURE 3.35

Lao-tzu the founder of Taoism

Lao-tzu, known as the "Old Master," wrote his parting thoughts on the Tao or The Way before he left civilization. The *Tao Te Ching*, as this writing came to be known, has influenced millions during the last 2,500 years.

Learning to be human was the goal of Confucianism. According to Confucius, each person should act with virtue in all social matters; family, community, state, and kingdom, to ensure order and unity. Man's virtue in all its forms is called "jen." "Jen" is all encompassing and unable to be defined, in some respects similar to the Tao. Confucian ceremonies contained many rituals based in the Five Classics, especially the *I Ching*, or *Book of Changes*. Procedures for birth, marriage, and death were rigid and specific. For example, according to Confucian funeral tradition, a willow branch is always carried behind the body of the deceased symbolizing the soul of that person.

However, by far the most influential aspect of Confucianism remains the *Analects*: "Not to teach a man who can be taught, is to waste a man; to teach a man who cannot be taught, is a waste of words. The wise will lose neither men

nor words." It was sayings such as this one that made Confucianism the social philosophy of China from the Han dynasty in 202 B.C.E. until the end of dynastic rule in 1911.

Rival Philosophies

Taoism and Confucianism have lived together in China for well over 2,000 years. Confucianism deals with social matters, while Taoism concerns itself with the search for meaning. They share common beliefs about man, society, and the universe, although these notions were around long before either philosophy. Both began as philosophies, each later taking on religious overtones. Legend states that Confucius and Lao-tzu did in fact meet to discuss the Imperial Archives. Lao-tzu was unimpressed by the beautiful robes worn by Confucius, and did not agree with looking back on the past. "Put away your polite airs and your vain display of fine robes. The wise man does not display his treasures to those he does not know. And he cannot learn justice from the Ancients."

Regardless of the disagreements between Lao-tzu and Confucius, both Taoism and Confucianism have served as guides. They have led China through the peaks and valleys of its vast history, the longest continuing story on the planet.



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(ISN) Interactive Student Notebook Assignments

1.

(ISN) Discussion and Study Questions

1. How did the **dynastic cycle** and the belief in the **Mandate of Heaven** provide legitimacy to the reigning dynasty in China?
2. How did the Mandate of Heaven aid in the overthrow of an ineffective or abusive dynasty?
3. After the civil wars in China, how did the philosophies of Confucianism and Daoism help restore order and answer essential questions of human existence?
4. Explain how Shih Huang-ti established himself as an absolute ruler of China.
5. How did the Han emperors strengthen their own power and weaken the power and independence of the nobles?
6. How did Confucianism influence the social stratification of Chinese civilization?
7. Explain how the subordination of female to male extended throughout a woman's life.
8. Describe the common factors that led to the eventual collapse of both Han China and the Roman Empire.

Vocabulary Quizlet Flashcards for Ancient China

TABLE 3.3:

Confucianism	A Chinese social philosophy that stressed social harmony organized around five basic relationships, each with an established code of conduct.
Daoism	A philosophy originated by Lao Tzu that focuses upon a universal force that guides all things. It strives to achieve an understanding and acceptance of nature, instead of attempting to construct a social order (such as with Confucianism).
filial piety	Respect shown by children to their parents and elders. A key concept stressed in Confucianism
Great Wall of China	A series of fortifications, generally built along an east-to-west line across the northern borders of China, for protection against invasions.
Han Dynasty	The dynasty that ruled over a unified China for about 400 years, beginning in 202 B.C. through A.D. 220. Key developments during the reign of this dynasty include the development of civil service exams, the invention of paper, and the establishment of the Silk Road.
Mandate of Heaven	In Chinese history, the divine approval thought to be the basis of royal authority.
Qin Dynasty	The first Imperial dynasty of China established by Shi Huangdi, that lasted from 221 to 206 B.C.
Shih Huangdi	Qin Emperor of China from 246 B.C. to 221 B.C. He was the first to be known as "Emperor" and, through extremely harsh rule, was the first to establish a unified China under centralized control. He is also noted for his persecution of Confucius scholars and the building of the Great Wall of China.
Zhou Dynasty	A Chinese dynasty lasting from 1027 B.C. to about 256 B.C. Notable developments during its reign include the emergence of the belief in the Mandate of Heaven and, towards the end of its reign, the emergence of Confucianism and Daoism as distinct philosophies.

- New ideas and the cultural diffusion of those ideas can lead to important changes in society
- Religion and philosophical belief systems serve to generate and re-enforce the social structure of a society.
- Scientific, mathematical, and technological discovery and invention affect the development of human societies.
- Civilizations are dynamic; they can move through periods of great stability and innovative growth, as well as periods of decline, decay, and even collapse.
- Establishing centralized control of a civilization is an immense task that is accomplished, some brutal and some benign.
- Systems of social stratification based on class, gender, race, or age place limits on certain members within a society.

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CHAPTER 4 Chapter Three: Classical Persia, Greece, Freedom Week and Rome

Chapter Outline

- 4.1 THE PERSIAN EMPIRE
- 4.2 ANCIENT GREECE
- 4.3 THE ROMAN REPUBLIC AND EMPIRE
- 4.4 FREEDOM WEEK
- 4.5 REFERENCES

TEKS

Concept: Classical Persia [WHS.1B, WHS.2C, WHS.3A, WHS.29F, WHS.30A, WHS.30B, WHS.30C, WHS.30D]

Concept: Ancient Greece [WHS.1B, WHS.3A, WHS.15A, WHS.15B, WHS.16B, WHS.16C, WHS.21B, WHS.22A, WHS.22B, WHS.24A, WHS.25B, WHS.26C, WHS.27E, WHS.29F, WHS.30A]

Concept: Classical Rome [WHS.1B, WHS.1C, WHS.3B, WHS.16B, WHS.21B, WHS.22A, WHS.22B, WHS.23A, WHS.24A, WHS.26C, WHS.27A, WHS.29F, WHS.30A, WHS.30B, WHS.30C, WHS.30D]

Further Reading

Persia

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Briant, Pierre. *From Cyrus to Alexander: a history of the Persian Empire*. Winona Lake, IN : Eisenbrauns, 2002. This book argues against the mainstream historiographical trend which argues that western Civilization starts with the Greeks and thus presents a picture of the Persian empire from a Greek perspective.

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4.1 The Persian Empire

3.1 The Persian Empire

Student Learning Objectives:

At the end of this section the student will be able to:

- identify major causes and describe the major effects of the following events from 500 BC to AD 600: the development of the classical civilizations of Greece, Rome, Persia, India (Maurya and Gupta), China (Zhou, Qin, and Han), and the development of major world religions.
- identify the characteristics of a civilization and how they apply to Persia.
- explain the influence of the river valley civilizations upon the development of Persia.
- describe the major political, religious/philosophical, and cultural influence of Persia and the development of monotheism, Judaism and Christianity.

Introduction

The **Achaemenid Empire** (550–330 BCE), or **First Persian Empire**, was an empire based in Western Asia in Iran, founded in the 6th century BCE by **Cyrus the Great**. The dynasty draws its name from King Achaemenes, who ruled Persia between 705 BCE and 675 BCE. The empire expanded to eventually rule over significant portions of the ancient world, which at around 500 BCE stretched from parts of the Balkans (Bulgaria) and Thrace-Macedonia in the west, to the Indus valley in the east. The Achaemenid Empire would eventually control Egypt as well. It was ruled by a series of monarchs who unified its disparate tribes and nationalities by constructing a complex network of roads.



FIGURE 4.1

The Achaemenid Empire at its greatest extent.

By the 600s BCE, the Persians (*Parsa*) had settled in the region in the southwestern portion of the Iranian plateau, in what came to be known as Persia ("city of Persians") bounded on the west by the Tigris River and on the south by the Persian Gulf; this region came to be their heartland. It was from this region that Cyrus the Great would advance to defeat the Kingdom of Media, the Kingdom of Lydia, and the Babylonian Empire, to form the Achaemenid Empire. At the height of its power after the conquest of ancient Egypt, the empire encompassed approximately 8 million

square kilometers spanning three continents: Asia, Europe and Africa. At its greatest extent, the empire included the modern territories of Iran, Turkey, Iraq, Kuwait, Syria, Jordan, Israel, Palestine, Lebanon, all significant population centers of ancient Egypt as far west as Libya, Thrace and the ancient kingdom of Macedonia, much of the Black Seacoastal regions, Armenia, Georgia, Azerbaijan, much of Central Asia, Afghanistan, China, northern Saudi Arabia, Pakistan, and parts of Oman and the UAE.



FIGURE 4.2

The tomb of Cyrus the Great, founder of the Achaemenid Empire

In 480 BCE, it is estimated that 50 million people lived in the **Achaemenid Empire**. According to Guinness World Records, the empire at its peak ruled over 44% of the world's population, the highest such figure for any empire in history. It is noted in Western history as the antagonist of the Greek city states during the Greco-Persian Wars, for emancipation of slaves including the Jewish exiles in Babylon, and for building infrastructure such as a postal system and road systems, and the use of an official language, Aramaic, throughout its territories. The empire had a centralised, bureaucratic administration under a king and a large professional army and civil services, inspiring similar systems in later empires.

The delegation of power to local governments is thought to have eventually weakened the king's authority, causing resources to be expended in attempts to subdue local rebellions, and leading to the disunity of the region at the time of Alexander the Great's invasion in 334 BCE. This viewpoint, however, is challenged by some modern scholars who argue that the Achaemenid Empire was not facing any such crisis around the time of Alexander, and that only internal succession struggles within the Achaemenid family ever came close to weakening the empire. Alexander, an avid admirer of Cyrus the Great, would eventually cause the collapse of the empire and its disintegration around 330 BC into what later became the Ptolemaic Kingdom and Seleucid Empire, in addition to other minor territories which gained independence at that time. However, the Persian population of the central plateau continued to thrive and eventually reclaimed power by the 2nd century BCE.

The historical mark of the Achaemenid Empire went far beyond its territorial and military influences and included cultural, social, technological and religious influences as well. Many Athenians adopted Achaemenid customs in their daily lives in a reciprocal cultural exchange, some being employed by, or allied to the Persian kings. The impact of Cyrus the Great's Edict of Restoration is mentioned in Judeo-Christian texts and the empire was instrumental in the spread of **Zoroastrianism** as far east as China. Even Alexander the Great adopted some of its customs, venerating the Persian kings including Cyrus the Great, and receiving proskynesis as they did, despite Macedonian disapproval. The Persian Empire would also set the tone for the politics, heritage and history of modern Persia (now called Iran) **Origin of the Empire**

The Persian nation contains a number of tribes as listed here. ... : the Pasargadae, Maraphii, and Maspai, upon which all the other tribes are dependent. Of these, the Pasargadae are the most distinguished; they contain the clan of the Achaemenids from which spring the Perseid kings. Other tribes are the Panthialaei, Derusiaei, Germanii, all

of which are attached to the soil, the remainder -the Dai, Mardi, Dropici, Sagarti, being nomadic. —Herodotus,

The Persian Empire was created by nomadic Persians who originally referred to themselves as *parsua*. The name Persia is a Greek and Latin pronunciation of the name Parsua, referring to people originating from Persis (or in Persian, Pars), their home territory located north of the Persian Gulf in south western Iran.

Despite its success and rapid expansion, the Achaemenid Empire was not the first Iranian empire, as by 6th century BC another group of ancient Iranian peoples had already established the Median Empire. The Medes had originally been the dominant Iranian group in the region, rising to power at the end of the 7th century BCE and incorporating the Persians into their empire. The Iranian people had arrived in the region circa 1000 BCE and had initially fallen under the domination of the Assyrian Empire (911-609 BCE). However, the Medes and Persians (together with the Scythians and Babylonians) played a major role in the defeat of the Assyrians and establishment of the first Persian empire.

The term Achaemenid is in fact the Latinized version of the Old Persian name *Haxāmaniš* (a bahuvrihi compound translating to "having a friend's mind"), meaning in Greek "of the family of the Achaemenis." Despite the derivation of the name, Achaemenes was himself a minor 7th-century ruler of the Anshan (Anshan or Anšān) located in southwestern Iran. It was not until the time of Cyrus the Great (Cyrus II of Persia), a descendant of Achaemenes, that the Achaemenid Empire developed the prestige of an empire and set out to incorporate the existing empires of the ancient east, becoming the vast Persian Empire of ancient legend.

At some point in 550 BCE, Cyrus the Great rose in rebellion against the Median Empire (most likely due to the Medes' mismanagement of Persis), eventually conquering the Medes and creating the first Persian empire. Cyrus the Great utilized his tactical genius, as well as his understanding of the socio-political conditions governing his territories, to eventually incorporate into the Persian Empire the neighbouring Lydian and Neo-Babylonian empires, also leading the way for his successor, Cambyses II, to venture into Egypt and defeat the Egyptian Kingdom.

Cyrus the Great's political acumen was reflected in his management of his newly formed empire, as the Persian Empire became the first to attempt to govern many different ethnic groups on the principle of equal responsibilities and rights for all people, so long as subjects paid their taxes and kept the peace. Additionally, the king agreed not to interfere with the local customs, religions, and trades of its subject states, a unique quality that eventually won Cyrus the support of the Babylonians. This system of management ultimately became an issue for the Persians, as with a larger empire came the need for order and control, leading to expenditure of resources and mobilization of troops to quell local rebellions, and weakening the central power of the king. By the time of Darius III, this disorganization had almost led to a disunited realm.

The Persians from whom Cyrus hailed were originally nomadic pastoral people in the western Iranian plateau and by 850 BCE were calling themselves the *Parsa* and their constantly shifting territory *Parsua*, for the most part localized around Persis (Pars). As Persians gained power, they developed the infrastructure to support their growing influence, including creation of a capital named Pasargadae and an opulent city named Persepolis.

Begun during the rule of **Darius the Great** (Darius I) and completed some 100 years later, Persepolis was a symbol of the empire serving both as a ceremonial centre and a center of government. It had a special set of gradually progressive stairways named "All Countries" around which carved relief decoration depicted scenes of heroism, hunting, natural themes, and presentation of the gifts to the Achaemenid kings by their subjects during the spring festival, Nowruz. The core structure was composed of a multitude of square rooms or halls, the biggest of which was called *Apadana*. Tall, decorated columns welcomed visitors and emphasized the height of the structure. Later on, Darius the Great (Darius I) also utilized Susa and Ecbatana as his governmental centres, developing them to a similar metropolitan status.

Accounts of the ancestral lineage of the Persian kings of the Achaemenid dynasty can be derived from either documented Greek or Roman accounts, or from existing documented Persian accounts such as those found in the Behistun Inscription. However, since most existing accounts of this vast empire are in works of Greek philosophers and historians, and since many of the original Persian documents are lost, not to mention being subject to varying scholarly views on their origin and possible motivations behind them, it is difficult to create a definitive and completely objective list. Nonetheless, it is clear that Cyrus the Great (Cyrus II of Persia) and Darius the Great



FIGURE 4.3

(Darius I of Persia) were critical in the expansion of the empire. Cyrus the Great is often believed to be the son of Cambyses I, grandson of Cyrus I, the father of Cambyses II, and a relative of Darius the Great, through a shared ancestor, Teispes. Cyrus the Great is also believed to have been a family member (possibly grandson) of the Median king Astyages through his mother, Mandana of Media. A minority of scholars argue that perhaps Achaemenes was a retrograde creation of Darius the Great, in order to reconcile his connection with Cyrus the Great after gaining power.

Ancient Greek writers provide some legendary information about Achaemenes by calling his tribe the *Pasargadae* and stating that he was "raised by an eagle". Plato, when writing about the Persians, identified Achaemenes with Perses, ancestor of the Persians in Greek mythology. According to Plato, Achaemenes was the same person as Perses, a son of the Ethiopian queen Andromeda and the Greek hero Perseus, and a grandson of Zeus. Later writers believed that Achaemenes and Perses were different people, and that Perses was an ancestor of the king. This account further confirms that Achaemenes could well have been a significant Anshan leader and an ancestor of Cyrus the Great. Regardless, both Cyrus the Great and Darius the Great were related, prominent kings of Persia, under whose rule the empire expanded to include much of the ancient world.

Zoroastrianism

Also called **Zarathustraism**, **Mazdaism** and **Magianism**, is an ancient semi-dualistic monotheist religion of Greater Iran. Much like the Roman religion for Rome, it was adopted in differing forms as the generally inclusive overarching state religion of the Achaemenid Empire and subsequent Parthian and Sasanian empires, lending it immense prestige in ancient times. As a result, much of Zoroastrianism, including leading characteristics like Messianism were inherited by or otherwise influenced contemporary and later religious systems, including Second Temple Judaism, Gnosticism, Christianity and Islam. It was gradually marginalized or otherwise absorbed by Islam from the 7th century onwards with the decline of the Sassanid Empire. Recent estimates place the current number of Zoroastrians at around 2.6 million.

The religious philosophy of Zoroaster divided the early Iranian gods. The most important texts of the religion are those of the Avesta. In Zoroastrianism, the multifaceted creator Ahura Mazda, through the Spenta Mainyu (Good Spirit, "Bounteous Immortals") is an all-good "father" of *Asha* (Truth, "order, justice,") in opposition to Druj ("falsehood, deceit") and no evil originates from it. "He" and his works are evident to humanity through the six primary Amesha Spentas and the host of other Yazatas, through whom worship of Mazda is ultimately directed. Spenta Mainyu adjoined unto "truth" oppose the Spirit's opposite, Angra Mainyu and its forces born of Akm Manah ("evil

thinking”). Zoroastrianism has no major theological divisions, but it is not uniform. Modern-era influences have a significant impact on individual and local beliefs, practices, values and vocabulary, sometimes merging with tradition and in other cases displacing it.



MEDIA

Click image to the left or use the URL below.

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(ISN) Interactive Student Notebook Activities

(ISN) Discussion and Study Questions

1. In what ways did river valley civilization influence the development of classical civilizations?
2. What makes Persia's classical civilization?
3. What were the origins and accomplishments of Persian civilization?
4. What similarities are there between the teaching of Zoroaster and concepts found later in Christianity?

(ISN) Tech Activities

Vocabulary

[Quizlet vocabulary for 4.1 The Persian Empire](#)

TABLE 4.1:

Darius	A Persian ruler noted for unifying the Persian empire through military expansion and effective administration. His most noted failure was his inability to conquer the Greek civilization.
Persian Empire	An empire centered in modern-day Iran. By around 500 B.C., it stretched from the Indus Valley in the east, to the borders of Greece, making it the largest empire the world had yet seen.
Zoroastrianism	An ancient Persian religion. It taught that there were two gods; the god of truth, light, and goodness, and the god of darkness and evil. Those who led good lives would go to heaven, while those who were evil would be destined to a fiery hell.

4.2 Ancient Greece

3.2 Ancient Greece Student Learning Objectives At the end of this section the student will be able to:

1. identify the major causes and describe the major effects of the following events from 500 BCE to 600 CE: the development of the classical civilization of Greece.
2. identify the characteristics of civilization and how they apply to Greece.
3. explain how the river valley civilizations influenced the development of the classical civilizations (Greece).
4. describe the major political, religions/philosophical, and cultural influences of Greece.
5. create and interpret thematic maps, graphs, and charts to demonstrate the relationship between geography and the historical development of a region or nation.
6. identify the characteristics of monarchies and theocracies as forms of government in early civilizations.
7. identify the characteristics of the following political systems: theocracy, absolute monarchy, democracy, republic, oligarchy, limited monarchy, and totalitarianism.
8. explain the democratic-republican government from its beginnings in the Judeo-Christian legal tradition and classical Greece and Rome.



FIGURE 4.4

Greek clothing

Thanks to existing Greek sculptures and texts, we know how people dressed in ancient Greece. The *peplos*, worn by the woman in the statue above, was the universal garment for Greek women until the 6th century B.C.E.

Democracy. Philosophy. Sculpture. Dramatic tragedies. The Olympic Games.

Many of the fundamental elements of Western culture first arose more than 2000 years ago in ancient Greece.

After conquering the Greeks, the ancient Romans spread Greek ideas throughout their empire, which included much of Europe.

After the fall of the Roman Empire, these ideas lost their prominence in European society during most of the Middle Ages (500-1500 C.E.). It was not until the Renaissance (1350-1500 C.E.) that the ancient Greek and Roman origins of many European institutions and practices were rediscovered.

One prominent element of Greek thought was the concept that humans are the measure of all things. The ancient Greeks wanted to know how the universe works. To probe such questions, the Greeks turned to philosophy, mathematics, and science.

All Things Human



FIGURE 4.5

Mask of Agamemnon

This gold burial mask is known famously as the *Mask of Agamemnon*, the heroic king of Mycenae in Homer's *Iliad*. Though mystery still surrounds the 16th century B.C.E. Minoan and Mycenaean cultures, archaeologists have found fascinating artifacts, including frescoes, palaces, tombs, and other burial masks.

The glorification of the human form and of human accomplishment defined ancient Greek art, philosophy, literature, and religion. Even their gods were created in the image of humans. The Greek gods had human emotions, looked like humans, and behaved more like people than infallible gods.

The Greeks' emphasis on the individual is one major cornerstone of Western Civilization. Indeed, the spirit of individualism as defined by the Greeks is still alive and well in modern American culture and society.

The Greeks were the first in the West to experiment with the concept of democratic government. Many successful modern democratic governments in the world today are heirs to the Greek model. It must be pointed out that though the Greeks developed the notion of "government by the people," most people were still excluded from the political process.

The First Greeks

Two major groups of people, the Minoans and the Mycenaeans, were the first to populate the Greek peninsula. Not much is known about either of these groups because they did not leave an abundance of written or physical evidence to provide clues about their civilization. However, it is known that by 1650 B.C.E., the Minoans occupied the island of Crete that is south of the Greek mainland. The Minoans were named for the legendary ruler of Crete, King Minos. Historians believe that the Minoans were seafaring traders who developed a rich, diverse culture.

The Mycenaeans came from a group of people who migrated from India through the Middle East and into Greece around the year 2000 B.C.E. These Indo-Europeans mixed with the native population of Greece to become the Mycenaeans. Over time, both the Minoans and Mycenaeans expanded and conquered territory until the two civilizations ran into one another.

Historians suspect that in the ensuing conflict the Mycenaeans wiped out the Minoans, whose civilization and culture disappeared somewhat mysteriously. By 1200 B.C.E., the Mycenaeans were in turn wiped out by another group known as the Dorians. This ushered in a Dark Age that lasted from 1150 to 800 B.C.E. During this time, economic activity ground to a halt, and literacy disappeared. Not much is known about this period in Greek history.

But a highly developed civilization resurfaced. From politics and philosophy to art, medicine, and science, the ancient Greeks generated thoughts that shaped the record of humankind for the next 2,500 years.

Rise of City-States: Athens and Sparta



FIGURE 4.6

Acropolis

The Acropolis played an integral role in Athenian life. This hilltop not only housed the famous Parthenon, but it also included temples, theaters, and other public buildings that enhanced Athenian culture.

Geography plays a critical role in shaping civilizations, and this is particularly true of ancient Greece.

The Greek peninsula has two distinctive geographic features that influenced the development of Greek society. First, Greece has easy access to water. The land contains countless scattered islands, deep harbors, and a network of small rivers. This easy access to water meant that the Greek people might naturally become explorers and traders.

Second, Greece's mountainous terrain led to the development of the polis (city-state), beginning about 750 B.C.E. The high mountains made it very difficult for people to travel or communicate. Therefore, each polis developed independently and, often, very differently from one another. Eventually, the polis became the structure by which

people organized themselves. Athens and Sparta are two good examples of city-states that contrasted greatly with each other.

Athens: The Think Tank



FIGURE 4.7

Athenian women

Life was not easy for Athenian women. They did not enjoy the same rights or privileges as males, being nearly as low as slaves in the social system.

The city-state of Athens was the birthplace of many significant ideas. Ancient Athenians were a thoughtful people who enjoyed the systematic study of subjects such as science, philosophy, and history, to name a few.

Athenians placed a heavy emphasis on the arts, architecture, and literature. The Athenians built thousands of temples and statues that embodied their understanding of beauty. Today the term "classical" is used to describe their enduring style of art and architecture.

Athenians also enjoyed a democratic form of government in which some of the people shared power.

Sparta: Military Might

Life in Sparta was vastly different from life in Athens. Located in the southern part of Greece on the Peloponnisos peninsula, the city-state of Sparta developed a militaristic society ruled by two kings and an oligarchy, or small group that exercised political control.

**FIGURE 4.8**

Ares Greek god of war

Ares Borghese, 420 B.C.E. Photo © Maicar Förlag — GML

Ares, the Greek god of war, was a particularly fitting patron for Sparta, which was known to be a rather warlike society. When they weren't fighting another city-state, Spartans were honing their military skills in preparation for the next battle.

Early in their history, a violent and bloody slave revolt caused the Spartans to change their society. A Spartan,

Lycurgus, drafted a harsh set of laws that required total dedication to the state from its people. The laws’ goal was to train citizens to become hardened soldiers so that they could fight off potential enemies or slave revolts. The result was a rigid lifestyle unlike any seen in Greece at the time. The devotion of Spartans to developing a military state left little time for the arts or literature.

A Spartan baby had to be hardy and healthy. To test a baby’s strength, parents would leave their child on a mountain overnight to see if it could survive on its own until the next morning. By age seven, Spartan boys were taken from their families and underwent severe military training. They wore uniforms at all times, ate small meals of bland foods, exercised barefoot to toughen their feet, and were punished severely for disobedient behavior. Boys lived away from their families in barracks until the age of 30, even after they were married. Men were expected to be ready to serve in the army until they were 60 years old.

Women, too, were expected to be loyal and dedicated to the state. Like men, women followed a strict exercise program and contributed actively to Spartan society. Although they were not allowed to vote, Spartan women typically had more rights and independence than women in other Greek city-states.

Winning by Losing

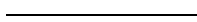
The differences between Athens and Sparta eventually led to war between the two city-states. Known as the Peloponnesian War (431-404 B.C.E.), both Sparta and Athens gathered allies and fought on and off for decades because no single city-state was strong enough to conquer the others.

TABLE 4.2:

figure*



figure*



The whole of Hellas used once to carry arms, their habitations being unprotected, and their communication with each other unsafe; indeed, to wear arms was as much a part of everyday life with them as with the barbarians. [2] And the fact that the people in these parts of Hellas are still living in the old way points to a time when the same mode of life was once equally common to all. [3] The Athenians were the first to lay aside their weapons, and to adopt an easier and more luxurious mode of life; indeed, it is only lately that their rich old men left off the luxury of wearing undergarments of linen, and fastening a knot of their hair with a tie of golden grasshoppers, a fashion which spread to their Ionian kindred, and long prevailed among the old men there. Thucydides, *The Peloponnesian War*, (1910 translation by Richard Crawley)

figure*



figure*



With war came famine, plague, death, and misfortune. But war cannot kill ideas. Despite the eventual military

surrender of Athens, Athenian thought spread throughout the region. After temporary setbacks, these notions only became more widely accepted and developed with the passing centuries.

Democracy Is Born



FIGURE 4.9

Pericles

Pericles was such a great, influential ruler of Athens that the period of history during his reign has been dubbed the Age of Pericles.

The men wearing red paint were in big trouble.

In fact, they would probably have to pay a fine for not appearing at the assembly meeting. After being caught shirking their duty as citizens of Athens, they had been marked with red paint as punishment.

In Athenian democracy, every citizen was required to participate or suffer punishment. This practice stands in stark contrast to modern democratic governments in which citizens can choose whether or not they wish to participate. In Athenian democracy, all citizens pulled their weight.

Not everyone in Athens was considered a citizen. Only free, adult men enjoyed the rights and responsibility of citizenship. Only about 20 percent of the population of Athens were citizens. Women were not citizens and therefore could not vote or have any say in the political process. They were rarely permitted out in public and were even restricted as to where they could be within their own homes. Slaves and foreigners were not citizens and also could not participate in the democracy. In the end, democracy existed only for the free men who were originally from Athens.

A Worthy Contribution



FIGURE 4.10

Croesus and Solon

Croesus shows his treasures to Solon in this 17th-century painting. Solon has been called one of the Seven Wise Men of Greece.

Nevertheless, the idea of democratic government is one of the most significant contributions of the ancient Greeks. The city-state of Athens had one of the largest democracies in terms of population.

Early in Athens' history (around 594 B.C.E.), a man named Solon

More Information ...

In English, the word "solon" means "a wise and skillful lawgiver." enacted reforms that helped reduce the growing gap between the rich and the poor. Poor citizens gained the right to sit in the assembly and to vote.

Later, Cleisthenes expanded the democracy by giving every citizen equal rights. He also created a legislative body whose members were picked randomly from the general population of citizens.

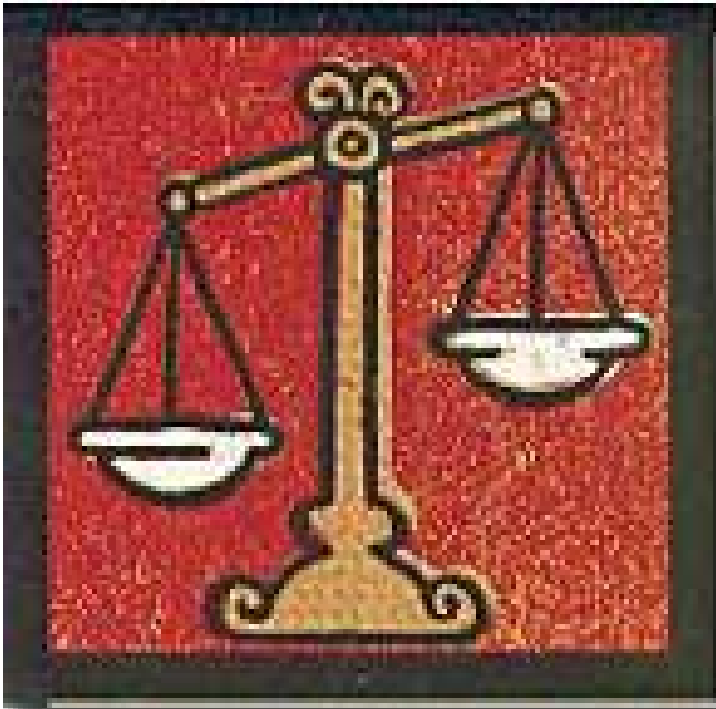


FIGURE 4.11

Athenian justice

Under the tyrant Draco, justice in ancient Athens was pretty harsh. Although he was the first person to write down the laws of Athens, according to Plutarch, Draco, "wrote his laws in blood, not ink."

Typically, the citizens of Athens would gather in the agora when there was an assembly meeting. The agora, a fixture of every major Greek city-state, was a large open space in the middle of the city-state that contained a marketplace as well as government buildings. There, citizens would mingle and discuss the issues of the day before gathering for the assembly meeting.

During the meeting, citizens were free to express their opinions and cast their votes. It was in these meeting that people could be marked with red paint if they were not fulfilling their civic duty.

The courts, too, were usually in the agora. The juries in court cases were very large, often numbering in the hundreds and sometimes in the thousands. To be fair, Athenians wanted their juries to reflect the general population. There were no lawyers. Each citizen was expected to make his own case.

Athenian democracy depended on every citizen fulfilling his role. All citizens were expected to vote, but they were also expected to serve in the government if necessary. In Athens, the people governed, and the majority ruled. All citizens had equal rights and powers.

In a city-state as small as Athens, a pure democracy was possible. As states grew larger, the notion of electing representatives to make decisions for the public became more practical. But the idea that every citizen has a voice important enough to be heard originated in ancient Athens.

Gods, Goddesses, and Heroes



FIGURE 4.12

Olympians

A family portrait of the 12 Olympians. But wait, who's that crouching by Zeus?

The ancient Greeks were polytheistic — that is, they worshipped many gods. Their major gods and goddesses lived at the top of Mount Olympus, the highest mountain in Greece, and myths described their lives and actions. In myths, gods often actively intervened in the day-to-day lives of humans. Myths were used to help explain the unknown and sometimes teach a lesson.

For example, Zeus, the king of the gods, carried his favorite weapon, the thunderbolt. When it rained and there was thunder and lightning, the ancient Greeks believed that Zeus was venting his anger.

Many stories about how the Greek gods behaved and interacted with humans are found in the works of Homer. He created two epic poems: the *Iliad*, which related the events of the Trojan War, and the *Odyssey*, which detailed the travels of the hero Odysseus. These two poems were passed down orally over many generations.



FIGURE 4.13

One of the Seven Wonders of the Ancient World

Painting © M. Larrinaga

The Statue of Zeus at Olympia (recreated above) was one of the Seven Wonders of the Ancient World. Zeus was the ruler of the gods, the lord of the skies, and the father of countless deities and demigods of the Greek pantheon.

TABLE 4.3:

figure*



figure*



Sing, goddess, the anger of Peleus' son Achilles and its devastation, which put pains thousandfold upon the Achaians,

figure*



figure*



otticelli

Aphrodite, the goddess of love, sits with the war god, Ares in this painting by the Renaissance artist Botticelli. Aphrodite is one of several Greek goddesses, and is often referred to by her Roman name, Venus. hurled in their multitudes to the house of Hades strong souls of heroes, but gave their bodies to be the delicate feasting of dogs, of all birds, and the will of Zeus was accomplished since that time when first there stood in division of conflict Atreus' son the lord of men and brilliant Achilles. Homer, the *Iliad* (1951, translation by Richard Lattimore) figure*





FIGURE 4.14Apollo

Courtesy NASA and Cislunar Aerospace, Inc.

Many Greek myths explained the mysteries of nature. The myth of Apollo, for example, describes how the sun moves across the sky to rise and set each day.

The Greeks created gods in the image of humans; that is, their gods had many human qualities even though they were gods. The gods constantly fought among themselves, behaved irrationally and unfairly, and were often jealous of each other. Zeus, the king of the gods, was rarely faithful to his wife Hera. Hera plotted against Zeus and punished his mistresses.

The Greek gods were highly emotional and behaved inconsistently and sometimes immorally. Greek religion did not have a standard set of morals, there were no Judaic Ten Commandments. The gods, heroes, and humans of Greek mythology were flawed.

In addition to Zeus and Hera, there were many other major and minor gods in the Greek religion. At her birth, Athena, the goddess of wisdom, sprang directly from the head of Zeus. Hermes, who had winged feet, was the messenger of the gods and could fly anywhere with great speed. Aphrodite, the goddess of love, was the most beautiful being in the universe. Her brother, Ares, the god of war, was sinister, mean, and disliked. Poseidon, ruled the sea from his underwater place and Apollo rode his chariot across the sky, bringing the sun with him.

Hades was in charge of the dead in the underworld. Almost all people went to Hades after they died whether they were good or bad. To get there, the dead had to cross the river Styx. Charon was the name of the boatman who ferried the souls of the dead across the river Styx to Hades.

Typically, the gods punished those who were bad. For example, Tantalus who killed his own son and served him to the gods for dinner was sent to Hades and made forever thirsty and hungry. Although there was a pool of clear, fresh drinking water at his feet, whenever Tantalus bent down to drink, the pool would dry up and disappear.

Likewise, over his head hung the most delicious fruit. However, whenever Tantalus reached for them, a wind would blow them just out of his reach. The English word "tantalize" derives from the name Tantalus.

Pandora's Box and Hercules' Labors

Myths helped explain how the world came to be the way it was. In one myth, Zeus created an incredibly beautiful and nearly perfect woman named Pandora. Her one flaw was that she was very curious and suspicious. Hermes, Zeus's messenger, gave Pandora a golden box. He warned her never to open it because terrible things would occur if she did.

But Pandora could hardly contain her curiosity and eventually broke down and opened the special box. Out from the box flew all the evils that plague humanity: famine, greed, pain, sorrow, etc. Only one thing remained in the box — hope — which humans managed to hold on to. This myth explains the origins of human misfortune. At the same time, it teaches a moral lesson by warning of the dangers of curiosity.

In addition to myths about gods, the ancient Greeks also told stories about heroes. One of the most famous Greek heroes was Hercules, the world's strongest man. Hercules was the illegitimate son of a mortal woman and Zeus, who tricked the woman by disguising himself as the woman's husband. Hera, Zeus's wife, was angry about Zeus' affair and sought to punish Hercules. Hera tricked Hercules into believing that his entire family were dangerous beasts, which Hercules then proceeded to kill. When Hercules realized that he had killed his entire family, he agreed to perform 12 tasks to atone for his terrible actions. For one of the tasks, Hercules had to slay the nine-headed monster called the Hydra.

For another task, he had to clean the filth from Augean stable, which had not been attended to in 30 years. To do this, Hercules diverted the course of a river that washed away the mess. In the end, he completed the so-called 12 Labors of Hercules and made up for the murder of his family.

TABLE 4.4:

God/Goddess	Important Attributes
Zeus	King of the gods, Zeus killed his father Chronos. He is also the god of thunder.
Hera	The wife of Zeus, Hera is the goddess of fertility.
Poseidon	The god of the sea.
Hades	The god of the underworld.
Hestia	A little-known goddess, she is a sister of Zeus and goddess of the hearth.
Chronos	The leader of the Titans and father of the Olympians, Chronos ate all his children except for Zeus, who killed him.
Demeter	Goddess of the harvest and mother of Persephone.
Apollo	God of the sun, music, and art, one of the most versatile gods.
Artemis	Goddess of the hunt, Moon, and childbirth. The sister of Apollo, she is also a very versatile Olympian.
Aphrodite	The goddess of love and the mother of Eros, known to the Romans as Cupid.
Ares	The god of War.
Athena	Sprang full-grown from Zeus's head. She is the Goddess of wisdom. The city of Athens is named for her.

TABLE 4.4: (continued)

Haephestos	The god of the forge. Thrown from the top of Mount Olympus by Zeus, Haephestos is also crippled. The husband of Aphrodite.
Hermes	The messenger god wears a winged helmet and winged sandals.
Persephone	The daughter of Demeter, Persephone was kidnapped by Hades to be his bride. Because she ate three pomegranate seeds, she is forced to spend three months of the year in Hades. This period of time is known as winter.
Dionysos	The god of wine and revelry. Dionysos had an enormous following throughout the Greek world.
Eros	The god of love. Often depicted as a young child, Eros used magical arrows could to cause people to fall in love.

Greek Literature

**FIGURE 4.15**

Theater

Greek theaters were built into the sides of hills. This not only provided excellent seating arrangements, but remarkable acoustics as well.

Thousands would come from far and wide to see the opening of the latest drama by Aeschylus, the most famous of Athenian playwrights. The citizens of Athens felt it was a part of their civic duty to attend as many dramas as possible.

The dramas typically dealt with important issues of the day, posed tough questions, and educated theatergoers. Attendance at dramas was considered such a valuable experience that sometimes the government would pay for the tickets.

, , and Poetry

Among the earliest Greek literature was Homer's epic poems, the *Iliad* and the *Odyssey*. The *Iliad* is a detailed telling of the Trojan War while the *Odyssey* recounts Odysseus' 20-year journey home following the Trojan War.

Created as early as 900 B.C.E., Homer's poems were not written down since Greek civilization lacked a written language at that time. Instead, these massive poems were passed down from generation to generation by word of mouth.

An Excerpt from the "Iliad"

The passage which follows is from Book XXII of the Iliad. It describes a scene from the Trojan War that occurs just before Achilles, the Greek warrior, slays the Trojan hero, Hector.

Old King Priam was the first to see Achilles rushing towards the Trojans over the fields. As Achilles ran, the bronze on his breast flashed out like the star that comes to us in autumn, outshining all its fellows in the evening sky — they call it Orion's Dog, and though it is the brightest of all the stars it bodes no good, bringing much fever, as it does, to us poor wretches. The old man gave a groan. He lifted up his hands and beat his head with them. In a voice full of terror he shouted entreaties to his beloved son, who had taken his stand in front of the gates in the fixed resolve to fight it out with Achilles.

"Hector!" the old man called, stretching out his arms to him in piteous appeal. "I beg you, my dear son, not to stand up to that man alone and unsupported. You are courting defeat and death at his hands. He is far stronger than you, and he is savage. The dogs and vultures would soon be feeding on his corpse (and what a load would be lifted from my heart!) if the gods loved him as little as I do — the man who has robbed me of so many splendid sons, killed them or sold them off as slaves to the distant isles. So come inside the walls, my child, to be the savior of Troy and the Trojans; and do not throw away your dear life to give a triumph to the son of Peleus. Have pity too on me, your poor father, who is still able to feel.

As he came to an end, Priam plucked at his gray locks and tore the hair from his head; but he failed to shake Hector's resolution. And now his mother in her turn began to wail and weep. "Hector, my child," she cried, "deal with your enemy from within the walls and do not go out to meet that man in single combat. He is a savage; and you need not think that, if he kills you, I shall lay you on a bier and weep for you, my own, my darling boy; nor will your richly dowered wife; but far away from both of us, beside the Argive ships, you will be eaten by the nimble dogs."



FIGURE 4.16

Greek mask

Originally used in religious rituals, Greek masks became an essential part of every Greek performance.

TABLE 4.5:

–Translated by Reverend William T. McNiff, *The Pageant of Literature: Greek and Roman Writers*

Another poet, Hesiod, wrote the *Theogony* around 700 B.C.E. The *Theogony* is a genealogy of the gods. Some scholars credit Hesiod with being one of the first to actually write down his work.

Around the same time of Hesiod, there was another growing group of writers known as the Lyric poets. One of the most famous of the Lyric poets was Sappho. Sappho wrote about the world around her and focused particularly on the themes of love and sexuality. Sappho, who was bisexual, frequently wrote about her homosexual love affairs. The ancient Greeks were completely tolerant of homosexuality and did not discriminate. The word "lesbian" comes from the name of Sappho's island of birth, Lesbos.

"To Aphrodite" by Sappho

You know the place: then

Leave Crete and come to us waiting where the grove is

pleasantest, by precincts

sacred to you; incense smokes on the altar, cold streams murmur through the apple branches, a young rose thicket shades the ground

and quivering leaves pour

down deep sleep; in meadows where horses have grown sleek

among spring flowers, dill

scents the air. Queen! Cyprian! Fill our gold cups with love stirred into clear nectar.

TABLE 4.6:

– Translated by Reverend William T. McNiff, *The Pageant of Literature: Greek and Roman Writers*

The Age of Pericles

The years between 461 to 429 B.C.E. marked the Age of Pericles. Named after an Athenian leader, arts and literature flourished in this era. Outdoor theaters were built in Athens and other city-states for performances of the latest dramas. Made of stone, the theaters were positioned so that scenes of natural beauty served as backdrops for the stage.

For example, the Greek theater at Taormina in Sicily is built high upon a rocky hill. Behind the audience's back lay the blue waters of the Mediterranean Sea. Perfectly centered behind the stage and facing the audience, sits the active, smoldering volcano, Mount Etna.

The Greeks held drama festivals in which plays competed against one another for the audience's favor. During these festivals, the Greeks performed the plays as a tribute to the gods. The first major drama festival of the spring in Athens honored Dionysus, the god of grapes and wine. This festival celebrated the renewal of the grape vines.

On stage, actors could play several roles by wearing different masks. A chorus of several people in the background chanted from time to time, serving as a kind of narrator, and helping move the plot along.

Tragic Literature

All three of the most famous ancient Greek writers specialized in tragedies. Tragedy is a form of drama in which a strong central character or hero ultimately fails and is punished by the gods. Usually, the hero has a fatal flaw that causes his undoing.

For many years, Aeschylus (525-456 B.C.E.) was the most successful dramatist in Athens winning several competitions. One of his rivals, the Athenian writer Sophocles (496-406 B.C.E.), wrote the famous play *Oedipus Rex*, (*Oedipus the King*). In this play, the main character, Oedipus is fated by the gods to kill his father and marry his own mother. Despite Oedipus's efforts to avoid this outcome, it happens just as the gods predicted. In shame, Oedipus blinds himself and is then banished.

A third major writer named Euripides (484-406 B.C.E.) focused more on people than gods in his writing. Among Euripides most famous works are *Electra* and *The Trojan Women*.

An Excerpt from "Medea" by Euripides

In this tragic story, Medea has been deserted by her husband, Jason, who has left to marry the daughter of King

Creon. In revenge, Medea ultimately kills the two children she and Jason share and then herself.

The chorus enters. The following lines between the Nurse, Chorus, and Medea are sung.

TABLE 4.7:

Chorus	I heard the voice, uplifted loud, of our poor Colchian lady, nor yet is she quiet; speak, aged dame, for as I stood by the house with double gates I heard a voice of weeping from within, and I do grieve, lady, for the sorrows of this house, for it hath won my love.
Nurse	'Tis a house no more; all that is passed away long since; a royal bride keeps Jason at her side, while our mistress pines away in her bower, finding no comfort for her soul in aught her friends can say.
Medea (from within)	Oh, oh! Would that Heaven's levin bolt would cleave this head in twain! What gain is life to me? Woe, woe is me! O, to die and win release, quitting this loathed existence!
Chorus	Didst hear, O Zeus, thou earth, and thou, O light, the piteous note of woe the hapless wife is uttering? How shall a yearning for that insatiate resting-place ever hasten for thee, poor reckless one, the end that death alone can bring? Never pray for that. And if thy lord prefers a fresh love, be not angered with him for that; Zeus will judge 'twixt thee and him herein. Then mourn not for thy husband's loss too much, nor waste thyself away.
Medea (from within)	Great Themis, and husband of Themis, behold what I am suffering now, though I did bind that accursed one, my husband, by strong oaths to me! O, to see him and his bride some day brought to utter destruction, they and their house with them, for that they presume to wrong me thus unprovoked. O my father, my country, that I have left to my shame, after slaying my own brother.
Nurse	Do ye hear her words, how loudly she adjures Themis, oft invoked, and Zeus, whom men regard as keeper of their oaths? On no mere trifle surely will our mistress spend her rage.
Chorus	Would that she would come forth for us to see, and listen to the words of counsel we might give, if haply she might lay aside the fierce fury of her wrath, and her temper stern. Never be my zeal at any rate denied my friends! But go thou and bring her hither outside the house, and tell her this our friendly thought; haste thee ere she do some mischief to those inside the house, for this sorrow of hers is mounting high.

TABLE 4.7: (continued)

Nurse	This will I do; but I doubt whether I shall persuade my mistress; still willingly will I undertake this trouble for you; albeit, she glares upon her servants with the look of a lioness with cubs, whenso anyone draws nigh to speak to her. Wert thou to call the men of old time rude uncultured boors thou wouldst not err, seeing that they devised their hymns for festive occasions, for banquets, and to grace the board, a pleasure to catch the ear, shed o'er our life, but no man hath found a way to allay hated grief by music and the minstrel's varied strain, whence arise slaughters and fell strokes of fate to o'erthrow the homes of men. And yet this were surely a gain, to heal men's wounds by music's spell, but why tune they their idle song where rich banquets are spread? For of itself doth the rich banquet, set before them, afford to men delight.
Chorus	I heard a bitter cry of lamentation! loudly, bitterly she calls on the traitor of her marriage bed, her perfidious spouse; by grievous wrongs oppressed she invokes Themis, bride of Zeus, witness of oaths, who brought her unto Hellas, the land that fronts the strand of Asia, o'er the sea by night through ocean's boundless gate.

TABLE 4.8:

–Translated by Reverend William T. McNiff, *The Pageant of Literature: Greek and Roman Writers*

Another type of play was the comedy. The most significant writer of comedies in ancient Greece was Aristophanes, whose works included *The Frogs* and *The Clouds*.

An Excerpt from "The Frogs"

Enter Dionysus on foot dressed in the skin of the Nemean Lion, and the club of Heracles in his hand, and Xanthias heavily laden on a donkey.

TABLE 4.9:

Xanthias	Master, should I tell one of those usual jokes which always make the audience laugh?
Dionysus	By Zeus, say what you want—except "I'm hard pressed." Forget that one, it's really quite annoying.
Xanthias	Nothing else witty either?
Dionysus	Anything but "What a strain!"
Xanthias	What then? Can I say the really funny one?
Dionysus	Of course, Go right ahead—but don't let me catch you saying this.
Xanthias	What's that?
Dionysus	That you must shift your pack to ease yourself.

TABLE 4.9: (continued)

Xanthias	Well, can't I say I've got such a load on me, unless someone takes it off, I'll bust a gut?
Dionysus	Please don't, unless you wish to make me sick.
Xanthias	So why should I have to carry all this stuff, without doing any of the jokes that Phrynichus and Lycis and Ameipsias always make the baggage-carriers say in all their comedies?
Dionysus	Just don't. Since when I'm in the theater and hear any of these stupid jokes, I go away just older by a year.
Xanthias	Alas, poor wretched me! My neck is really strained, but can't crack the joke.
Dionysus	Now is this not outrage and utter insolence, That I myself, Dionysos, son of Winejug, must walk, and let this fellow ride, so he might feel no pain and bear no burden?
Xanthias	What? I bear no burden?
Dionysus	How can you bear anything? You're riding.
Xanthias	But I've got all this!
Dionysus	How so?
Xanthias	Most heavily!
Dionysus	The weight you carry—isn't it carried by the donkey?
Xanthias	Absolutely not; not what I'm holding and carrying.
Dionysus	How can you carry, for God's sake, when you yourself are carried by another?
Xanthias	I don't know, but my shoulder's sure hard pressed.
Dionysus	Well, since you say the donkey doesn't help, Suppose you take your turn, and carry him.
Xanthias	Unhappy wretch! Why didn't I join the navy? Then I'd tell you to whistle a different tune!
Dionysus	You scoundrel, get on down! Here's the door I'm walking to, the first place I must stop.—Ho, porter! porter there, I say.

TABLE 4.10:

—Translated by Reverend William T. McNiff, *The Pageant of Literature: Greek and Roman Writers*

His plays were witty and sarcastic. More often than not, comedies poked fun and made light of the major political figures of the day. Fortunately, the government of Athens tolerated this style of criticism.

Art and Architecture



FIGURE 4.17

Krater

One popular form of Greek art was pottery. Vases, vessels, and kraters served both practical and aesthetic purposes. This krater depicts Helios, the sun god, and dates from the 5th century B.C.E.

The arts reflect the society that creates them. Nowhere is this truer than in the case of the ancient Greeks. Through their temples, sculpture, and pottery, the Greeks incorporated a fundamental principle of their culture: *arete*. To the Greeks, arete meant excellence and reaching one's full potential.

Ancient Greek art emphasized the importance and accomplishments of human beings. Even though much of Greek art was meant to honor the gods, those very gods were created in the image of humans.

Much artwork was government sponsored and intended for public display. Therefore, art and architecture were a tremendous source of pride for citizens and could be found in various parts of the city. Typically, a city-state set aside a high-altitude portion of land for an acropolis, an important part of the city-state that was reserved for temples or palaces. The Greeks held religious ceremonies and festivals as well as significant political meetings on the acropolis.



FIGURE 4.18

Parthenon

Photograph courtesy of www.sacredsites.com and Martin Gray

The Parthenon was built in honor of the goddess Athena, who represented the human aspiration for knowledge and the ideal of wisdom.

Greek Excellence: The Acropolis

In ancient Athens, Pericles ordered the construction of several major temples on the acropolis. Among these was a temple, the Parthenon, which many consider the finest example of Greek architecture.

Built as a tribute to Athena, the goddess of wisdom for whom the city-state Athens was named, the Parthenon is a marvel of design, featuring massive columns contrasting with subtle details.



FIGURE 4.19

Doric Ionic and Corinthian

Three different types of columns can be found in ancient Greek architecture. Whether the Doric, Ionic, or Corinthian style was used depended on the region and the purpose of the structure being built.

Many barely noticeable enhancements to the design of the Parthenon contribute to its overall beauty and balance. For example, each column is slightly wider in the middle than at its base and top. The columns are also spaced closer together near the corners of the temple and farther apart toward the middle. In addition, the temple's steps curve somewhat — lower on the sides and highest in the middle of each step.

Sadly, time has not treated the Parthenon well. In the 17th century, the Turks, who had conquered the Greeks, used the Parthenon to store ammunition. An accidental explosion left the Parthenon with no roof and in near ruin. In later years, tourists hauled away pieces of the Parthenon as vacation souvenirs.

Beauty in the Human Form

Ancient Greek sculptures were typically made of either stone or wood and very few of them survive to this day. Most Greek sculpture was of the freestanding, human form (even if the statue was of a god) and many sculptures were nudes. The Greeks saw beauty in the naked human body.

Early Greek statues called *kouros* were rigid and stood up straight. Over time, Greek statuary adopted a more natural, relaxed pose with hips thrust to one side, knees and arms slightly bent, and the head turned to one side.

Other sculptures depicted human action, especially athletics. A good example is Myron's *Discus Thrower*. Another famous example is a sculpture of Artemis the huntress.

The piece, called "Diana of Versailles," depicts the goddess of the hunt reaching for an arrow while a stag leaps next to her.

Among the most famous Greek statues is the Venus de Milo, which was created in the second century B.C.E. The sculptor is unknown, though many art historians believe Praxiteles to have created the piece. This sculpture embodies the Greek ideal of beauty.

The ancient Greeks also painted, but very little of their work remains. The most enduring paintings were those found decorating ceramic pottery. Two major styles include red figure (against a black background) and black figure (against a red background) pottery. The pictures on the pottery often depicted heroic and tragic stories of gods and humans.

Thinkers



FIGURE 4.20

Socrates

The Metropolitan Museum of Art in New York.

This painting, *The Death of Socrates*, by the 18th-century artist, David, portrays the famous story of Socrates' death. He was convicted of religious heresy and contamination of the youth and died by drinking hemlock after the people of Athens turned against him.

The citizens of Athens were fed up with the old "wise" man.

Socrates, one of ancient Greece's most learned philosophers, found himself on trial for his teachings. The prosecution accused Socrates of corrupting the youth of Athens. A jury of hundreds found Socrates guilty and sentenced him to death.

At the age of 70, Socrates willingly drank hemlock, a powerful poison that put an end to his controversial life. How did it happen that Athenians put to death a great philosopher such as Socrates?



FIGURE 4.21

School of Athens

In the Renaissance artist, Raphael's *School of Athens*, Plato (shown on the left) argues that one should search for truth from above, while his pupil Aristotle argues that answers can be found through observation on Earth.

Throughout his entire life, Socrates questioned everything from Athenian government to Greek religion and the gods themselves. His ultimate goal was finding the truth, which he believed could be reached through reason and knowledge. Socrates was a teacher, but he did not have a classroom, any books, or even a school. Instead, Socrates lectured publicly. Anyone interested in what he had to say was invited to listen.

Socrates practiced a style of teaching that has since become known as the Socratic method. Essentially, Socrates taught through questioning. He started with simple questions, then progressed to more complex, deeper questions. Through the application of reason and logic, Socrates revealed answers to many questions that led to a greater understanding of the world.

Problems arose because Socrates often questioned the very fundamentals and traditions of Greek society. His constant questioning and searching for the truth were seen as dangerous by many and ultimately led to his death.

Plato's Republic

Plato, a student of Socrates, also achieved greatness as a philosopher. Unlike Socrates, however, Plato chose to write his ideas down. In one of his most renowned works, *The Republic*, Plato outlined his vision of the ideal state.



FIGURE 4.22

Greek philosophy

Greek philosophers were quite prolific, and left behind many wonderful dialogues on life, morality, death, and religion.

Surprisingly, Plato's republic was not very democratic. Plato was greatly disturbed at the way the mass of Athenians had agreed to put to death his brilliant teacher and mentor, Socrates. Plato believed that uneducated people should not have right to make important decisions for everyone.

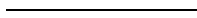
Instead, Plato envisioned a society with many classes in which each class contributed what it could. In his ideal society, farmers grew the food for the republic, soldiers defended the republic, and a class of intelligent, educated philosophers ruled the republic. Not surprisingly, Plato lived at a time when democratic society in Athens was in decline.

TABLE 4.11:

figure*



figure*



Such then, I said, are our principles of theology –some tales are to be told, and others are not to be told to our disciples from their youth upwards, if we mean them to honour the gods and their parents, and to value friendship with one another. Yes; and I think that our principles are right, he said. But if they are to be courageous, must they not learn other lessons besides these, and lessons of such a kind as will take away the fear of death? Can any man be courageous who has the fear of death in him? Certainly not, he said. And can he be fearless of death, or will he choose death in battle rather than defeat and slavery, who believes the world below to be real and terrible? Impossible. Then we must assume a control over the narrators of this class of tales as well as over the others, and beg them not simply to but rather to commend the world below, intimating to them that their descriptions are untrue, and will do harm to our future warriors. That will be our duty, he said. Then, I said, we shall have to obliterate many obnoxious passages, beginning with the verses...Plato, "The Republic," (360 B.C.E.), Book III excerpt, translated by Benjamin Jowett figure*

figure*



figure*



One of Plato’s students, Aristotle, also distinguished himself as a thinker. Aristotle wrote about and studied many subjects, including biology, physics, metaphysics, literature, ethics, logic, art, and more. He emphasized the importance of observation and the gathering of data.

Although Aristotle made important discoveries in many areas, his explanation concerning the movement of heavenly bodies was wrong. Aristotle believed that the Earth was the center of the universe, and that all heavenly bodies revolved around the Earth. This makes sense from a strictly observational standpoint. Looking up at the sky, it looked to Aristotle like everything (sun, moon, stars) circled the earth. In this case, Aristotle’s reliance on observation led him astray. In reality, the Earth revolves on its own axis, causing the illusion of it being the center of everything.

A Golden Age of Thought

Besides the three great philosophers described above, ancient Greece produced many other important thinkers. In the realm of science, Hippocrates applied logic to the field of medicine and collected information on hundreds of patients. His work helped advance people's understanding of the causes of disease and death and swayed people from believing in supernatural reasons.

Greek thinkers applied logic to mathematics as well. Pythagoras deduced multiplication tables as well as the Pythagorean theorem relating to right triangles. Euclid revolutionized the field of geometry, and Archimedes worked with the force of gravity and invented an early form of calculus.

In the realm of the social sciences, Herodotus, is often credited with being the first modern historian. Another historian, Thucydides, tried to be as objective as possible in reporting the history he recorded.

Many of these advancements and revelations seem obvious by today's standards. But 2,500 years ago, most humans were concerned with providing food and protection for their families and little else. Most of them were ruled by kings or pharaohs who had supreme decision-making power. The Athenian democracy encouraged countless innovative thoughts among its citizens.

To the ancient Greeks, thinking was serious business.

Alexander the Great



FIGURE 4.23

Alexander's war elephants

Alexander the Great was so impressed by the Indian use of elephants in battle, that he immediately enlisted them into

his army. Elephants were particularly effective against horses, which would often bolt away in fear at the presence of the enormous beasts.

Was Alexander the Great really great?

A great conqueror, in 13 short years he amassed the largest empire in the entire ancient world — an empire that covered 3,000 miles. And he did this without the benefit of modern technology and weaponry. In his day, troop movements were primarily on foot, and communications were face to face. Not bad for a kid who became the King of Macedon at the age of 20.

Many of Alexander's accomplishments were made possible by his father, Philip of Macedon. Macedon, which existed roughly where the modern country of Macedonia lies today, was a kingdom located that lay geographically north of the Greek city-states. Alexander's the Great's tutor was the Greek philosopher Aristotle.

In 338 B.C.E., King Philip of Macedon invaded and conquered the Greek city-states. Philip took advantage of the fact that the Greek city-states were divided by years of squabbling and infighting. Philip succeeded in doing what years of fighting between city-states had not done. He united Greece.

Conquering the World

Philip's next goal was to defeat Greece's age-old enemy to the east: Persia. For years, the massive Persian Empire threatened the very existence of the Greek way of life. But before he was able to pursue his second goal, Philip was assassinated.

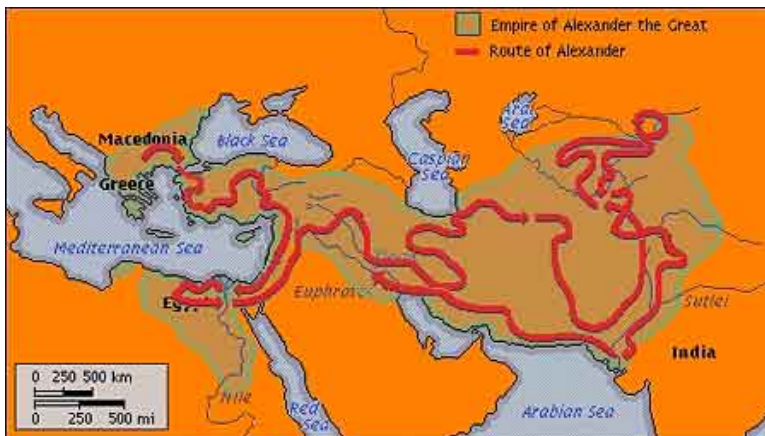


FIGURE 4.24

Alexander's Empire

This map shows Alexander the Great's massive empire and the route he took to conquer it.

When his son, Alexander, took the throne in 336 B.C.E., he vowed to complete the plans of his father. In 334 B.C.E., Alexander invaded Persia, which lay across the Aegean Sea in Asia Minor (modern-day Turkey).

After three grueling years of warfare and three decisive battles, Alexander smashed the Persian armies at the Tigris River and conquered the mighty Persian Empire, including the legendary city of Babylon. For many Greeks, this victory marked a moment of sweet revenge against a bitter foe.

**FIGURE 4.25**

Alexander in battle

(© 2000 by John J. Popovic, 1stMuse.com)

Alexander was an amazing soldier who led his army to conquer much of the known world.

At this point, at the age of 25, Alexander ruled an expansive empire. Nevertheless, his ambitions were not satisfied. While fighting the Persians, Alexander conquered Egypt and founded a city at the mouth of the Nile River. This city, which he named Alexandria after himself, became a cosmopolitan, diverse, bustling center of trade, the arts, and ideas.

But Alexander was not done. He continued his campaign, driving farther east, until he reached India and the Indus River in 326 B.C.E. At this point, his exhausted troops refused to fight further. They told Alexander that a truly great leader knows when it is time to stop fighting.

Without the support of his army, Alexander had no choice but to turn back and begin consolidating and organizing his far-flung empire. On his way home, Alexander died from disease in 323 B.C.E.

**FIGURE 4.26**

Alexander the Great

Though he was an unquestionably skilled and highly respected military leader, Alexander the Great was feared by those around him for his paranoia and dangerous temper.

Alexander in Hindsight

Alexander the Great's legacy is both far reaching and profound. First, his father was able to unite the Greek city-states, and Alexander destroyed the Persian Empire forever. More importantly, Alexander's conquests spread Greek culture, also known as Hellenism, across his empire.

In fact, Alexander's reign marked the beginning of a new era known as the Hellenistic Age because of the powerful influence that Greek culture had on other people. Without Alexander's ambition, Greek ideas and culture might well have remained confined to Greece.

Many historians see Alexander the Great in a different light. Although Alexander was both intelligent and handsome, he also had a darker side. He possessed a ferocious temper and from time to time would arbitrarily murder close advisors and even friends. Also, toward the end of his many campaigns, he senselessly slaughtered thousands whose only crime was being in his way.

Was Alexander the Great really great?

The Olympic Games



FIGURE 4.27

Discobolos

Myron's *Discobolos* (*Discus Thrower*) shows the Greek emphasis on the beauty of the human form.

The ancient Greeks loved competition of all sorts. Each year, the various city-states of Greece sent athletes to festivals of games, which were held to honor the gods.

The most important and prestigious were the games held at Olympia to honor Zeus, the king of the gods. These Olympic games took place in the summer only once every four years.

The earliest recorded Olympics occurred in 776 B.C.E. It is very likely, however, that Olympic games took place for hundreds of years before then.

The last ancient games were held in 394 C.E. Then the Romans, who had conquered the Greeks, outlawed them. The modern Olympic games began in 1896.

The Competitors



FIGURE 4.28

Discus

The discus was one of the original events in the ancient Olympic games. Each thrower used the same discus for the competition — a copper one which was kept in Olympia.

In the beginning, the participants in the Olympic games were all men. Women were not allowed to compete or even to watch.

Over time, the Greeks held a festival of games to honor the goddess Hera, Zeus's wife. Only unmarried women could participate in the competitions, which consisted mainly of foot races. Eventually, women were able to participate in and attend the Olympic games.

Contestants could compete in many different events. Athletes were completely naked and covered in oil as they competed. First, there were the four types of running events. Distances covered include 192 meters (the length of the stadium), 384 meters and a long-distance run of anywhere between 1,344 and 4,608 meters.

**FIGURE 4.29**

Wrestling at the ancient Olympic festival

Wrestling in the ancient Olympics was an honorable, but extremely difficult sport in which to compete. In addition to having no weight classes (the bigger the better!) there was no stopping the match until one man could be declared *triakter* (victor).

In the most demanding event runners raced between 384-768 meters — in an armor outfit that weighed between 50 and 70 pounds!

Then, there were the combative events, boxing and wrestling. Boxers wrapped their hands in leather and metal, making the contests brutal and bloody. The object in wrestling was to touch the opponent's shoulders to the ground. All these skills were considered important for military training.

Next, there were the equestrian events, which involved horses and sometimes chariots and took place in a separate arena called the hippodrome.

Finally, there was the most prestigious and important of all events: the pentathlon, a combination of five different events. Each contestant threw the javelin, did the long jump, wrestled, ran a foot race, and threw the discus. The person who had the best overall effort in all these five events was declared the winner.

War and Peace

At the Olympics, the winners received wreaths made of olive leaves. Over time, more and more prizes were added such as a bronze tripod or olive oil. Winners received even greater rewards when they returned to their home city-states.



FIGURE 4.30

Pankration

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In the Olympic event of the pankration — a brutal mix of boxing and wrestling with almost no rules — the combatants literally fought tooth and nail.

Triumphant athletes were given not only large monetary awards, but also free meals for the rest of their lives. The citizens and leaders of the city-state took great pride in their athletes and publicized their accomplishments far and wide.

During the Olympics, leaders from the various city-states discussed important political and economic matters. In the ancient world, major leaders rarely met the same place at the same time. As the games approached, everyone generally agreed to an Olympic truce, a time when warfare usually ceased. Athletes and spectators were granted immunity to travel to and from the games.

In 2004, the Summer Games returned to their original birthplace of Athens, Greece.



MEDIA

Click image to the left or use the URL below.

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1. How did geography influence Greek culture?
2. What influence did the Minoans have on the development of Greek culture?
3. How and why did Athens and Sparta arrive at different forms of government?
4. What were the characteristics of Athenian democracy? What groups were included and excluded from citizenship?
5. What was the unique perspective of Western philosophy as it originated under Socrates, Plato and Aristotle?
6. How did Greek art, sculpture and architecture, such as the Parthenon, reflect Greek ideals?
7. What lasting scientific, mathematical and technological innovations originated in Greece?
8. What were the causes and results of the Peloponnesian Wars?
9. What is the Hellenistic culture and how did it spread?
10. What were the opportunities and limitations for women in Greek society?

(ISN) Tech Activities**Vocabulary Quizlet Flashcard Vocabulary for Ancient Greece****TABLE 4.12:**

Darius	A Persian ruler noted for unifying the Persian empire through military expansion and effective administration. His most noted failure was his inability to conquer the Greek civilization.
Persian Empire	An empire centered in modern-day Iran. By around 500 B.C., it stretched from the Indus Valley in the east, to the borders of Greece, making it the largest empire the world had yet seen.
Zoroastrianism	An ancient Persian religion. It taught that there were two gods; the god of truth, light, and goodness, and the god of darkness and evil. Those who led good lives would go to heaven, while those who were evil would be destined to a fiery hell.
Alexander the Great	A king of Macedon who in his youth was tutored by Aristotle. He conquered the quarrelsome Greek city states and created one of the largest empires of the ancient world, stretching from Greece to the Himalayas. His conquests would help create Hellenistic culture throughout much of the ancient world.
Archimedes	An ancient Greek mathematician from Alexandria who revolutionized the subject of geometry and noted for his studies on levers and pulleys, his measurement of volume and density, his design of catapults, and his invention of a screw-like device inside a cylinder to pump water.
Aristotle	An ancient Greek philosopher who questioned the nature of the world and of human belief, thought, and knowledge. He collected and classified things, from animals to city-state constitutions, and studied their relationships. His work provides the basis for the scientific method used today.

TABLE 4.12: (continued)

Athens	A Greek city-state noted for developing the first democratic government, though limited, in world history. Unlike Sparta's focus on military preparedness this city-state stressed the intellectual arts. It was defeated by Sparta in the Peloponnesian War.
Eratosthenes	An ancient Greek scholar, astronomer, poet, historian and mathematician who skillfully used geometry to closely calculate the earth's size (within 1% of modern calculations). He was also the director of the Alexandrian library.
Parthenon	A famous marble temple constructed on the Acropolis of Athens that is considered to be a masterpiece of Greek craftsmanship and design.
Pythagoras	A Greek philosopher who founded a school in southern Italy that sought to discover the mathematical principles of reality through the study of musical harmony and geometry.
Socrates	A classical Greek Athenian philosopher credited for being one of the founders of Western philosophy. He attempted to seek truth through his "Socratic Method" of questioning. He was eventually sentenced to death by the Athenian Council for corrupting the youth of Athens and "neglecting the city's gods." He chose, instead, suicide
Sparta	A Greek city-state noted for its militaristic characteristics. It became the dominant military land-power in ancient Greece. It eventually defeated Athens in the Peloponnesian Wars.

4.3 The Roman Republic and Empire

3.3 The Roman Republic and Empire

Student Learning Objectives

At the end of this section the student will be able to:

- identify major causes and describe the major effects of the following events from 500 BCE to 600 CE: the development of the classical civilizations of Rome and the development of major world religion.
- identify major causes and describe the major effects of the following important turning points in world history from 600-1450 CE: the spread of Christianity, the decline of Rome and the formation of medieval Europe.
- explain the impact of the fall of Rome on Western Europe
- compare the factors that led to the collapse of Rome and Han China.
- explain the development of democratic-republican government from its beginnings in the Judeo-Christian legal tradition and classical Greece and Rome through the English Civil War and the Enlightenment.
- describe the rights and responsibilities of citizens and noncitizen in civic participation throughout history.
- describe the rights and responsibilities of citizens and noncitizen in civic participation throughout history.
- summarize the development of the rule of law from ancient to modern times.
- identify the influence of ideas regarding the right to a "trial by a jury of your peers" and the concepts of "innocent until proven guilty" and "equality before the law" that originated from the Judeo-Christian legal tradition and in Greece and Rome.
- describe the historical origins, central ideas, and spread of major religious and philosophical traditions, including Buddhism, Christianity, Confucianism, Hinduism, Islam, Judaism, Sikhism, and the development of monotheism.
- identify examples of art, music, and literature that transcend the cultures in which they were created and convey universal themes.
- identify the origin and diffusion of major ideas in mathematics, science, and technology that occurred in river valley civilizations, classical Greece and Rome, classical India, and the Islamic caliphates between 700 and 1200 and in China from the Tan to Ming dynasties.
- analyze information by sequencing, categorizing, identifying cause-and-effect relationships, comparing, contrasting, finding the main idea, summarizing, making generalizations and predictions, drawing inferences and conclusions, and developing connections between historical events over time.
- use social studies terminology correctly.

Ancient Rome



FIGURE 4.31

Venus

To the ancient Romans, Venus wasn't a planet but a celestial body: she was the goddess of love and beauty.

The Romans built an empire of gigantic proportions. At its height, it encompassed nearly the entire European continent as well as parts of the Middle East and Africa.

The Roman Empire's tentacles stretched from England to Egypt, from Spain to Iraq, and from southern Russia to Morocco. More significantly, ancient Roman civilization thrived for nearly one thousand years. The influence of the Romans over all of those peoples over that span of time defies measure.

After adopting Christianity in the 4th century C.E., the Romans spread it to every corner of their empire. They also brought their brand of law and order to all of the territories that they conquered. Latin, the language of the Romans, became the basis for several modern European languages, including Italian, French, and Spanish.



FIGURE 4.32

The glory of the Roman Empire

At the height of its expansion (around 120 C.E.), the Roman Empire comprised nearly all of the lands surrounding the Mediterranean Sea.

The Romans were particularly skilled in administration, organization, and engineering. They had a highly trained and disciplined military and an efficient bureaucracy. Without these qualities, the Romans would never have been able to manage their sprawling empire. They were not, however, as driven or original when it came to other intellectual pursuits.

In fact, the Romans basically adopted and copied much of Greek art, literature, philosophy, and even religion. The Romans had the same set of gods as the Greeks, but with different names. In Roman mythology, Zeus became Jupiter, Hera became Juno, Ares changed to Mars, and Athena was Minerva, to name a few examples. The Romans did, however, spread these borrowed ideas everywhere they went.

Romulus and Remus

According to Roman mythology, twin brothers played an important part in the founding of Rome. These brothers, named Romulus and Remus, were the sons of Mars, the Roman god of war. Abandoned at birth, the twins were raised by a wolf.

When they became older, they decided to found a city along the Tiber River near the spot where they had been abandoned. Each chose a hill upon which to begin a settlement.

As often happens among brothers, disputes led to quarreling and fighting. Angered by Remus's taunting, Romulus killed his brother in a fit of rage. Romulus went on to build the city that eventually became Rome — named, of course, after Romulus.

As it turned out, Romulus chose a very good spot for his city. Rome was located on the Tiber River about 15 miles inland from the Mediterranean Sea. The Romans had easy access to the sea, and were somewhat protected from seaborne invasion. Also, Rome lay in the middle of the Italian peninsula, the boot-shaped landmass to the west of Greece. From this central position, the Romans could easily access and control all of what is today the modern country of Italy.

Finally, the Italian peninsula's central location within the Mediterranean Sea made it possible for the Romans to trade and communicate with every part of the Mediterranean world.

The Roman Republic

The Romans established a form of government — a republic — that was copied by countries for centuries. In fact, the government of the United States is based partly on Rome's model.



FIGURE 4.33

Roman Senate

The ladder to political power in the Roman Senate was different for the wealthy patricians than for the lower-class plebeians.

It all began when the Romans overthrew their Etruscan conquerors in 509 B.C.E. Centered north of Rome, the Etruscans had ruled over the Romans for hundreds of years.

Once free, the Romans established a republic, a government in which citizens elected representatives to rule on their behalf. A republic is quite different from a democracy, in which every citizen is expected to play an active role in governing the state.

Citizen

The Roman concept of the citizen evolved during the Roman Republic and changed significantly during the later Roman Empire. After the Romans freed themselves from the Etruscans, they established a republic, and all males over 15 who were descended from the original tribes of Rome became citizens. Citizens of Rome distinguished themselves from slaves and other noncitizens by wearing a toga; most wore a white toga. During the Empire, each emperor wore a purple toga to distinguish himself as the *princeps*, or "first citizen."

Citizenship varied greatly. The full citizen could vote, marry freeborn persons, and practice commerce. Some citizens were not allowed to vote or hold public office, but maintained the other rights. A third type of citizen could vote and practice commerce, but could not hold office or marry freeborn women.

In the late Republic, male slaves who were granted their freedom could become full citizens. Around 90 B.C.E., non-Roman allies of the Republic gained the rights of citizenship, and by 212 C.E., under the Edict of Caracalla, all free people of the Roman Empire could become citizens.



FIGURE 4.34

iHell Door/i

Frescoes line the walls of long-forgotten Etruscan tombs. This painting, found in the Tomb of Augurs in Tarquinia, is titled *Hell's Door*.

The aristocracy (wealthy class) dominated the early Roman Republic. In Roman society, the aristocrats were known as patricians. The highest positions in the government were held by two consuls, or leaders, who ruled the Roman Republic. A senate composed of patricians elected these consuls. At this time, lower-class citizens, or plebeians, had virtually no say in the government. Both men and women were citizens in the Roman Republic, but only men could vote.

Tradition dictated that patricians and plebeians should be strictly separated; marriage between the two classes was even prohibited. Over time, the plebeians elected their own representatives, called tribunes, who gained the power to veto measures passed by the senate.

Gradually, the plebeians obtained even more power and eventually could hold the position of consul. Despite these changes, though, the patricians were still able to use their wealth to buy control and influence over elected leaders.

The Roman Senate

The history of the Roman Senate goes as far back as the history of Rome itself. It was first created as a 100-member advisory group for the Roman kings. Later kings expanded the group to 300 members. When the kings were expelled from Rome and the Republic was formed, the Senate became the most powerful governing body. Instead of advising the head of state, it elected the chief executives, called consuls.

Senators were, for centuries, strictly from the patrician class. They practiced the skills of rhetoric and oratory to persuade other members of the ruling body. The Senate convened and passed laws in the curia, a large building on the grounds of the Roman Forum. Much later, Julius Caesar built a larger curia for an expanded Senate.

By the 3rd century B.C.E., Rome had conquered vast territories, and the powerful senators sent armies, negotiated terms of treaties, and had total control over the financial matters of the Republic.

Senatorial control was eventually challenged by Dictator Sulla around 82 B.C.E. Sulla had hundreds of senators murdered, increased the Senate's membership to 600, and installed many nonpatricians as senators. Julius Caesar raised the number to 900 (it was reduced after his assassination). After the creation of the Roman Empire in 27 B.C.E., the Senate became weakened under strong emperors who often forcefully coerced this ruling body. Although it survived until the fall of Rome, the Roman Senate had become merely a ceremonial body of wealthy, intelligent men with no power to rule.

Occasionally, an emergency situation (such as a war) arose that required the decisive leadership of one individual. Under these circumstances, the Senate and the consuls could appoint a temporary dictator to rule for a limited time

until the crisis was resolved. The position of dictator was very undemocratic in nature. Indeed, a dictator had all the power, made decisions without any approval, and had full control over the military.

The best example of an ideal dictator was a Roman citizen named Cincinnatus. During a severe military emergency, the Roman Senate called Cincinnatus from his farm to serve as dictator and to lead the Roman army. When Cincinnatus stepped down from the dictatorship and returned to his farm only 15 days after he successfully defeated Rome's enemies, the republican leaders resumed control over Rome.

The Twelve Tables

One of the innovations of the Roman Republic was the notion of equality under the law. In 449 B.C.E., government leaders carved some of Rome's most important laws into 12 great tablets. The Twelve Tables, as they came to be known, were the first Roman laws put in writing. Although the laws were rather harsh by today's standards, they did guarantee every citizen equal treatment under the law.

Laws from the Twelve Tables

- Females shall remain in guardianship even when they have attained their majority (except Vestal Virgins).
- A spendthrift is forbidden to exercise administration over his own goods.
- It is permitted to gather fruit falling down on another man's farm.
- If any person has sung or composed against another person a song such as was causing slander or insult to another, he shall be clubbed to death.
- Quickly kill ... a dreadfully deformed child.

With respect to the law and citizenship, the Romans took a unique approach to the lands that they conquered. Rather than rule those people as conquered subjects, the Romans invited them to become citizens. These people then became a part of Rome, rather than enemies fighting against it. Naturally, these new citizens received the same legal rights as everyone else.

The Punic Wars

The early Roman Republic often found itself in a state of constant warfare with its surrounding neighbors. In one instance, when the Romans were fighting the Carthaginians, Rome was nearly conquered. The people of Carthage (a city in what is today Tunisia in north Africa) were a successful trading civilization whose interests began to conflict with those of the Romans.

The two sides fought three bloody wars, known as the Punic Wars (264-146 B.C.E.), over the control of trade in the western Mediterranean Sea. In the second war, Hannibal, a Carthaginian general, successfully invaded Italy by leading an army — complete with elephants — across the Alps. He handed the Roman army a crushing defeat but was unable to sack the city of Rome itself. After occupying and ravaging Italy for more than a decade, Hannibal was finally defeated by the Roman general Scipio at the Battle of Zama in 202 B.C.E.

Why "Punic"?

How did the word "Punic" become an adjective meaning "relating to the people of Carthage"? "Punic" is derived from the Latin word *Poenicus*, meaning "an inhabitant of Carthage." Carthage was founded by Phoenicians, and *Poenicus* is the Latin word for "Phoenician."

By the Third Punic War, Rome was ready to end the Carthaginian threat for good. After a successful several-year siege of Carthage, the Romans burned the city to the ground. Legend has it that the Romans then poured salt into the soil so that nothing would ever grow there again. Carthage was finally defeated, and the Roman Republic was safe.

Julius Caesar



FIGURE 4.35

Caesar

Julius Caesar's military might, political savvy, and diplomatic genius made him supremely popular among the Roman citizenry.

The first conspirator greeted Caesar, then plunged a knife into his neck. Other stabbers followed suit. One by one, several members of the Senate took turns stabbing Julius Caesar (100-44 B.C.E.), the dictator of the entire Roman Empire.

Stunned that even his good friend Brutus was in on the plot, Caesar choked out his final words: "'kai su, teknon?" ("You too, my child?").

On the steps of the Senate, the most powerful man in the ancient world died in a pool of his own blood.

About "Et tu, Brute?"



FIGURE 4.36

Roman army

Roman soldiers' appearance changed very little over the centuries. The army of Julius Caesar looked very similar to the soldiers in this 2nd-century B.C.E. carving.

In William Shakespeare's play *Julius Caesar*, the title character manages to utter "Et tu, Brute?" ("and you, Brutus?") as he is slain. This is not historically accurate.

According to the 1st century C.E. Roman historian Suetonius, Julius Caesar spoke mainly Greek and not Latin, as was the case with most patricians at the time. In his history about the life of Julius Caesar, Suetonius writes that as the assassins plunged their daggers into the dictator, Caesar saw Brutus and spoke the Greek phrase *kai su, teknon*, meaning "you too, my child."

There is still debate whether or not it was shouted in shock or said as a warning. On one hand, Caesar may have

been amazed to find a close friend like Brutus trying to kill him; on the other hand, he may have meant that Brutus would pay for his crime in the future for this treachery. Either way, the words were Greek, so leave "Et tu, Brute" for Shakespeare.



FIGURE 4.37

Caesar crushing Gaul

Roman coins celebrated Caesar's military victories in Gaul (present-day France).

Long before Julius Caesar became dictator (from 47-44 B.C.E.) and was subsequently murdered, the Roman Republic had entered a state of rapid decline. The rich had become wealthier and more powerful as a result of Rome's many military successes.

Meanwhile, life for the average Roman seemed to be getting worse. Attempts to reform the situation by two brothers, Tiberius and Gaius Gracchus, were met with opposition that eventually resulted in their deaths.



FIGURE 4.38

Caesar in Britain

Julius Caesar led his Roman legions as far north as Britain in 55 B.C.E. He and his army may have seen this view upon landing at Deal Beach.

In addition, slavery was on the rise, and violent slave revolts were commonplace.



FIGURE 4.39

Caesar leaves his wife

In this 19th-century painting by Abel de Pujol, Caesar leaves his wife on the Ides of March, the day of his murder.

A Revolting Development

Spartacus (109-71 B.C.E.) was a captured soldier who was sold into slavery to be a gladiator. But he escaped his captors and formed an army of rebel slaves. Against great odds, Spartacus's slave army defeated two Roman battalions.

Spartacus wanted to leave Italy, but his army and supporters of the slave revolt urged him to attack Rome. A Roman army led by Crassus finally defeated Spartacus and his men.

Over 5,000 men from Spartacus's army were crucified along Rome's main road, the Appian Way, as a warning to other slaves not to revolt.

Finally, a new practice developed in which the army was paid with gold and land. Soldiers no longer fought for the good of the Republic but fought instead for tangible rewards. Gradually, soldiers became more loyal to the generals who could pay them than to the Roman Republic itself. It was within this changing atmosphere that military leaders such as Julius Caesar were able to seize control of and put an end to the Roman Republic.

Julius Caesar was a man of many talents. Born into the patrician class, Caesar was intelligent, educated, and cultivated. An excellent speaker, he possessed a sharp sense of humor, charm, and personality. All of these traits combined helped make him a skilled politician.

Moreover, Caesar was a military genius. His many successful military campaigns gained him broad support and popularity among the common people. Caesar also won the undying loyalty of his soldiers, who supplied him with the necessary muscle to seize power.

Julius Caesar began his rise to power in 60 B.C.E. by forging an alliance with another general, Pompey, and a wealthy patrician, Crassus. Together, these three men assumed control of the Roman Republic, and Caesar was thrust into the position of consul. Historians have since dubbed the period of rule by these three men the First Triumvirate.

Over time, however, the triumvirate broke down. Crassus was killed in battle, and Pompey began entertaining ideas of ruling without the dangerously popular Caesar. While Caesar was fighting in Gaul (modern-day France), Pompey and the Senate ordered Caesar to return to Rome without his army. But when Caesar crossed the Rubicon River in northern Italy, he brought his army with him in defiance of the senate's order. This fateful decision led to a civil war. Caesar defeated Pompey's forces and entered Rome in 46 B.C.E., triumphant and unchallenged.

Upon his return, Caesar made himself dictator and absolute ruler of Rome and its territories. During his rule, he enacted several reforms. Caesar founded many colonies in newly conquered territories and provided land and opportunity for poor Romans who chose to migrate there. He reduced the number of slaves and opened citizenship up to people living in the provinces. Finally, he created a new calendar named the Julian calendar. This very calendar, with a few minor adjustments, is the same one used around the world today.

In 44 B.C.E., Julius Caesar ordered the Senate to make him dictator for life. Typically, dictators served for a limited time (usually six months), then stepped down. Caesar's actions threatened to end the Republic once and for all. Fearing this change, a group of senators plotted and executed the murder of Caesar on the Ides of March. Although the senators succeeded in ending Caesar's life, they did not realize at that time that the Republic had died with him.

Rome would now become an empire.

Timeline for General Gaius Julius Caesar (100-44 B.C.E.)

TABLE 4.13:

100	Born in Rome
84	Marries Cornelia, daughter of the powerful consul Cinna
75	Captured and ransomed by Mediterranean pirates. After his release, Caesar fulfills his promise to crucify the pirates.
67	Marries Pompeia after Cornelia's death
63	Elected Pontifex Maximus (High Priest)
61	Becomes governor of Spain
60	Forms triumvirate with Crassus and Pompey
59	Elected consul
58	Becomes governor of Gaul
53	Crassus killed at Battle of Carrhae in Mesopotamia
49	Caesar and his army cross the Rubicon into Italy, sparking civil war
48	Pompey murdered in Egypt; Caesar has affair with Cleopatra and makes her queen of Egypt
47	Cleopatra gives birth to Caesar's son, Caesarion
45	Wins title of dictator for life

TABLE 4.13: (continued)

44

Assassinated on the Ides of March by Brutus and Cassius

The Pax Romana

The term "Pax Romana," which literally means "Roman peace," refers to the time period from 27 B.C.E. to 180 C.E. in the Roman Empire.

This 200-year period saw unprecedented peace and economic prosperity throughout the Empire, which spanned from England in the north to Morocco in the south and Iraq in the east. During the Pax Romana, the Roman Empire reached its peak in terms of land area, and its population swelled to an estimated 70 million people.

figure*



This map depicts the Roman Empire in 117 C.E., at the height of the Pax Romana.

Nevertheless, Rome's citizens were relatively secure, and the government generally maintained law, order, and stability. The Pax Romana began when Octavian became the leader of the Roman Empire.

Civil War and More

After the murder of Julius Caesar, a period of civil war erupted in Rome. Out of this turmoil emerged the Second Triumvirate, consisting of Lepidus, Antony, and Octavian, who was Julius Caesar's nephew. This new triumvirate ruled Rome for a decade, but as happened with the First Triumvirate, differences among the leaders eventually emerged.

figure*



The romance between Antony and Cleopatra has inspired the imaginations of artists for a millennium.

Octavian defeated Lepidus in battle, and then turned his armies against the more powerful Mark Antony. Antony had fallen in love with and married the spell-binding queen of Egypt, Cleopatra. At the Battle of Actium off the coast of Greece in 31 B.C.E., Octavian's navy defeated the navy of Antony and Cleopatra, who later both committed suicide.

Octavian returned to Rome triumphant and gave him-

TABLE 4.13: (continued)

Life of the People



FIGURE 4.40

Clothing

Romans clothing indicated social status. The man on the far right, who wears only a tunic, was probably from one of the lowest classes — a slave or a freedperson. The man on the far left wears a toga, the costume of a Roman citizen.

The quality of life in the Roman Empire depended upon where one fell within society.

During the Pax Romana, the wealthy built huge, lavishly decorated houses and usually had servants or slaves to tend to their every need. The average citizen worked hard and lived reasonably comfortably in modest housing. Despite the riches of the Roman Empire, the largest class lived in what can only be described as poverty.

**FIGURE 4.41**

Children in Rome

Roman children wore pendants called *bullas*, from the Latin word for "bubble," around their necks. The wealthy wore *bullas* made of gold, while a typical plebeian *bullula* was leather.

Roman family life was a patriarchy — that is, the oldest male wielded considerable power over the rest of the family. The patriarch made all of the major decisions for the family. He had the power to divorce his wife or even kill her if she committed adultery.

Likewise, the patriarch had the right to kill his own children. In fact, the patriarch routinely decided if a newborn baby would survive and be raised by the family. Depending on how many children the family already had and the sex of the child, the patriarch might choose to have the baby killed. Infanticide was a widespread problem in the Empire, especially among female babies.

The wife of the patriarch was expected to manage the household and to remain loyal and obedient to her husband. Women could not hold political office, but in later years of the Empire women gained more rights, such as the right to own property.

Jellyfish and Fungus — Yum!



FIGURE 4.42

Thomas Couture's *Romans of the Decadence*

A 19th-century French artist captures the Roman feast in his painting "The Romans of the Decadence."

The Roman diet revolved around three Mediterranean staples: grain, grapes, and olives. Everyone in the Italian peninsula ate these foods daily. The grain (mainly wheat) was used to make bread, the grapes to make wine, and the olives to make olive oil. Bread made up the majority of many meals, especially for the poor. Wine was served with almost every meal and was often mixed with water to reduce the effect of the alcohol. Olive oil provided an important source of fat.

The rich ate whatever they wanted. Their tastes leaned toward the exotic. The more unusual the food seemed, the better. They ate jellyfish, peacock, ostrich, pork, and fungus, to name just a few of their favorites. The wealthy held huge banquets that lasted all day. When guests became full, they sometimes purged themselves so that they could continue eating.

The diet of the poor relied on bread, vegetables such as cabbage, and porridge. The poor met their protein needs by eating some meat (usually pork) and cheese.



FIGURE 4.43

Roman sport

Sports were a favorite activity of ancient Romans. This fresco depicts Roman women playing with a kind of medicine ball called a *paganica* and even dumbbells.

Toga Party

Although the toga is the item of clothing most associated with Roman culture, not all Romans could wear it. Only citizens were allowed to wear togas. As togas were status markers, citizens wore them with pride, even though they were not very comfortable. The toga consisted of a very large (18 feet by 6 feet) rectangular or semicircular piece of wool cloth that was carefully draped and wrapped around the body. A properly wrapped toga required no buttons,

pins, clasps, or any other fastening device.

The average citizen wore a white toga, but a person in a position of importance wore a toga with a purple stripe whose appearance varied according to the significance of the person's position. The emperor's toga was completely purple.

The basic item of clothing for an unmarried woman was a tunic. Depending on the design of the garment it was called either a peplos or chiton. Married women wore a garment called a stola.

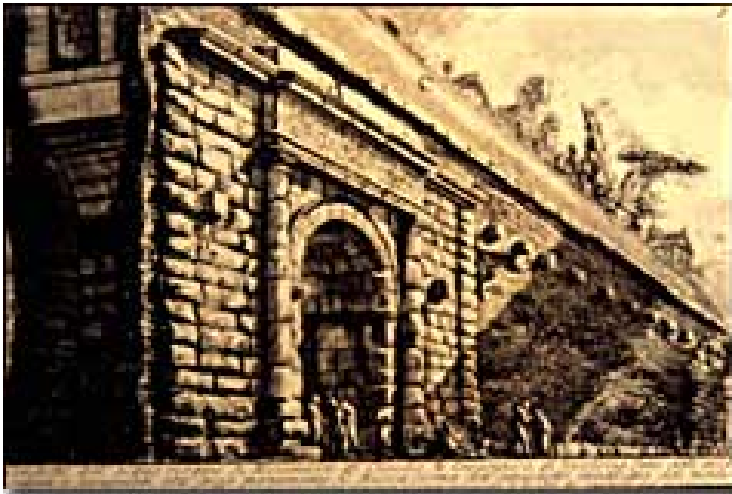


FIGURE 4.44

Agua Virgo

This aqueduct, the Aqua Virgo, was built in 19 B.C.E. to supply water to the baths near the Pantheon.

Rub-a-dub-dub

Togas are no longer popular attire — except at frat parties — but some Roman practices have endured to this day. Going to a club for a workout and a sweat in the sauna, for example, was originally a Roman idea. Romans like to go to the public baths. The baths were places where men and women (separately) could go to socialize, exercise, read, and relax, as well as get clean.

A typical trip to the public baths was quite an event. It might begin with some exercise in the gymnasium, followed by a trip to a warm room, where an attendant would rub oil all over the visitor's body.

Next came a visit to the *tepidarium*, where another attendant scraped the oil, dirt, and sweat off the body with a metal tool. When clean, the Romans took a swim in the actual baths, which included both hot water pools and cold water pools. The waters of the public baths were continuously refreshed by aqueducts and heated by underground furnaces.

Finally, drinking special mineral waters alleged to have healing powers completed a visit to the baths.

During the entire experience, visitors to the baths interacted with fellow citizens. This social function may have been the most important purpose of the baths.

Gladiators, Chariots, and the Roman Games

Two men ready their weapons. An excited crowd of Romans cheer loudly in anticipation. Both combatants realize full well that this day might be their last. They are gladiators, men who fight to the death for the enjoyment of others.

As the two gladiators circle each other, each knows that his objective is to maim or trap his opponent rather than to kill him quickly. What's more, the fight must last long enough to please the crowd.

The gladiators jab swords and swing maces. They sweat in the hot sun. Sand and dirt fly. Suddenly, one gladiator traps the other with a net and poises to kill him with a three-pronged trident. The victor waits for a sign from the crowd. If the losing gladiator has put up a good fight, the crowd might choose to spare his life — and the vanquished gladiator will live to fight another day. But if the crowd is dissatisfied with the losing fighter — as was usually the case — its dissatisfaction meant slaughter.

In ancient Rome, death had become a form of entertainment.

Let the Games Begin



FIGURE 4.45

Gladiators

Before fighting, gladiators had to swear the following oath: "I will endure to be burned, to be bound, to be beaten, and to be killed by the sword."

The Etruscans of northern Italy originally held public games, (*ludi*), which featured such events as gladiator battles and chariot races, as a sacrifice to the gods.

The Romans continued the practice, holding games roughly 10 to 12 times in an average year. Paid for by the emperor, the games were used to keep the poor and unemployed entertained and occupied. The emperor hoped to distract the poor from their poverty in the hopes that they would not revolt.

Over time, the games became more spectacular and elaborate as emperors felt compelled to outdo the previous year's competitors. The games involved more participants, occurred more frequently, and became more expensive and more outlandish.

The Coliseum

In Rome, the gladiatorial contests were held in the Coliseum, a huge stadium that first opened in 80 C.E. Located in the middle of the city, the Coliseum was circular in shape with three levels of arches around the outside. In height, the Coliseum was as tall as a modern 12-story building; it held 50,000 spectators.

Like many modern professional sports stadiums, the Coliseum had box seats for the wealthy and powerful. The upper level was reserved for the commoners. Under the floor of the Coliseum was a labyrinth of rooms, hallways, and cages where weapons were stored and animals and gladiators waited for their turn to perform.

The Coliseum was also watertight and could be flooded to hold naval battles. Special drains allowed water to be pumped in and released. But, naval battles were rarely held there because the water caused serious damage to the basic structure of the Coliseum.



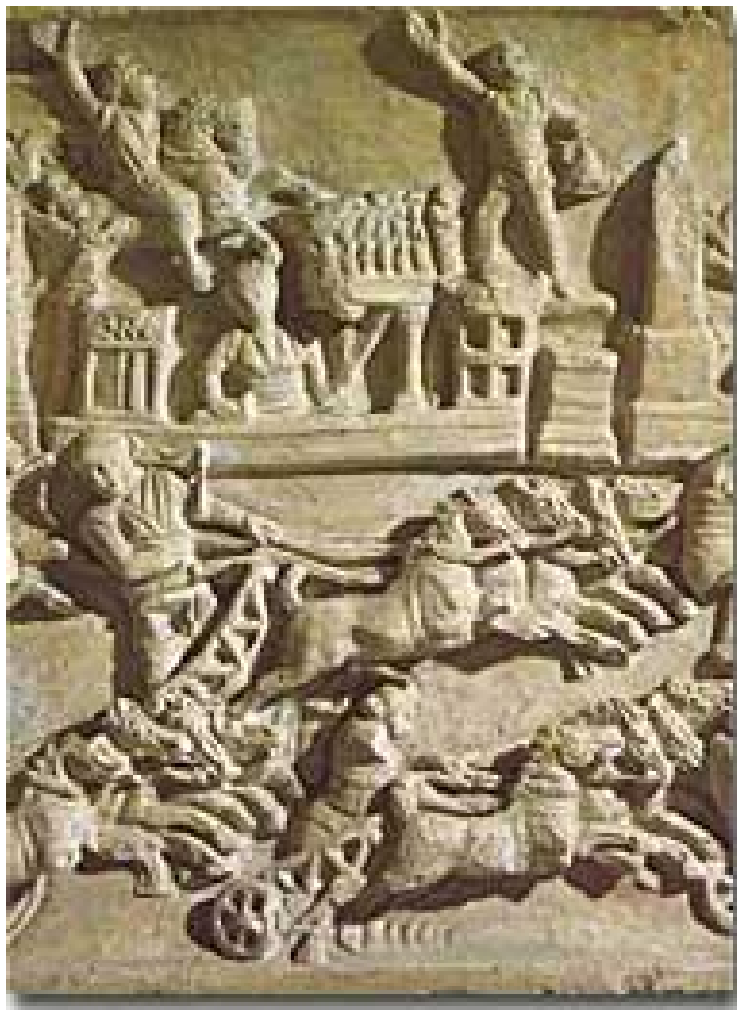
FIGURE 4.46Amphitheater

The Coliseum wasn't the only amphitheater in ancient Rome; there were several scattered throughout the entire empire. The amphitheater pictured above is in Tunisia, Africa.

The gladiators themselves were usually slaves, criminals, or prisoners of war. Occasionally, the gladiators were able to fight for their freedom. Criminals who were sentenced to death were sometimes thrown into the arena unarmed to serve their sentence. Some people, including women, actually volunteered to be gladiators.

They were willing to risk death for the possibility of fame and glory. Many gladiators went to special schools that trained them how to fight. A few gladiators boxed. They used metal gloves to increase cutting and bleeding.

Some gladiatorial contests included animals such as bears, rhinos, tigers, elephants, and giraffes. Most often, hungry animals fought other hungry animals. But sometimes hungry animals fought against gladiators in contests called *venationes* ("wild beast hunts"). On rare occasions, the animals were allowed to maul and eat a live human who was tied to a stake.

**FIGURE 4.47**

Chariot races

This relief sculpture from the 2nd century C.E. illustrates what a chariot race in the Circus Maximus might have looked like. The competitors completed seven intense laps in front of a crowd of 300,000.

Bread and Circuses

Romans loved chariot races, which were held on special racetracks called circuses. The most famous circus, which was in Rome, was the Circus Maximus. In chariot races, two- or four-horse chariots ran seven laps totaling anywhere from three to five miles.

Roman games included other type of equestrian events. Some races with horses and riders resemble today's thoroughbred horseracing. In one type of race, riders began the competition on horseback but later dismounted and ran on foot to the finish.

As the Roman Empire started its decline, the author Juvenal (55-127 C.E.) noted, "The people are only anxious for two things: bread and circuses."

The Fall of the Roman Empire



FIGURE 4.48

Constantine the Great Roman emperor from 306-337 C.E.

Constantine the Great, 306-337 C.E., divided the Roman Empire in two and made Christianity the dominant religion in the region.

The invading army reached the outskirts of Rome, which had been left totally undefended. In 410 C.E., the Visigoths, led by Alaric, breached the walls of Rome and sacked the capital of the Roman Empire.

The Visigoths looted, burned, and pillaged their way through the city, leaving a wake of destruction wherever they went. The plundering continued for three days. For the first time in nearly a millennium, the city of Rome was in the hands of someone other than the Romans. This was the first time that the city of Rome was sacked, but by no means the last.

Constantine and the Rise of Christianity

One of the many factors that contributed to the fall of the Roman Empire was the rise of a new religion, Christianity. The Christian religion, which was monotheistic ran counter to the traditional Roman religion, which was polytheistic (many gods). At different times, the Romans persecuted the Christians because of their beliefs, which were popular

among the poor.



FIGURE 4.49

16th-century medallion of Attila the Hun

This 16th-century medallion depicts Attila the Hun, one of the most vicious invaders of all time.

In 313 C.E., Roman emperor Constantine the Great ended all persecution and declared toleration for Christianity. Later that century, Christianity became the official state religion of the Empire. This drastic change in policy spread this relatively new religion to every corner of the Empire.

By approving Christianity, the Roman state directly undermined its religious traditions. Finally, by this time, Romans considered their emperor a god. But the Christian belief in one god — who was not the emperor — weakened the authority and credibility of the emperor.

Constantine enacted another change that helped accelerate the fall of the Roman Empire. In 330 C.E., he split the empire into two parts: the western half centered in Rome and the eastern half centered in Constantinople, a city he named after himself.

Why Two Empires?



FIGURE 4.50

Map of the Decline of Rome

This map of the Roman Empire in 476 C.E. shows the various people who invaded and how they carved up the Empire.

In 324, Constantine's army defeated the forces of Licinius, the emperor of the east. Constantine became emperor of the entire empire and founded a new capital city in the eastern half at Byzantium. The city was his New Rome and was later named Constantinople (the "city of Constantine").

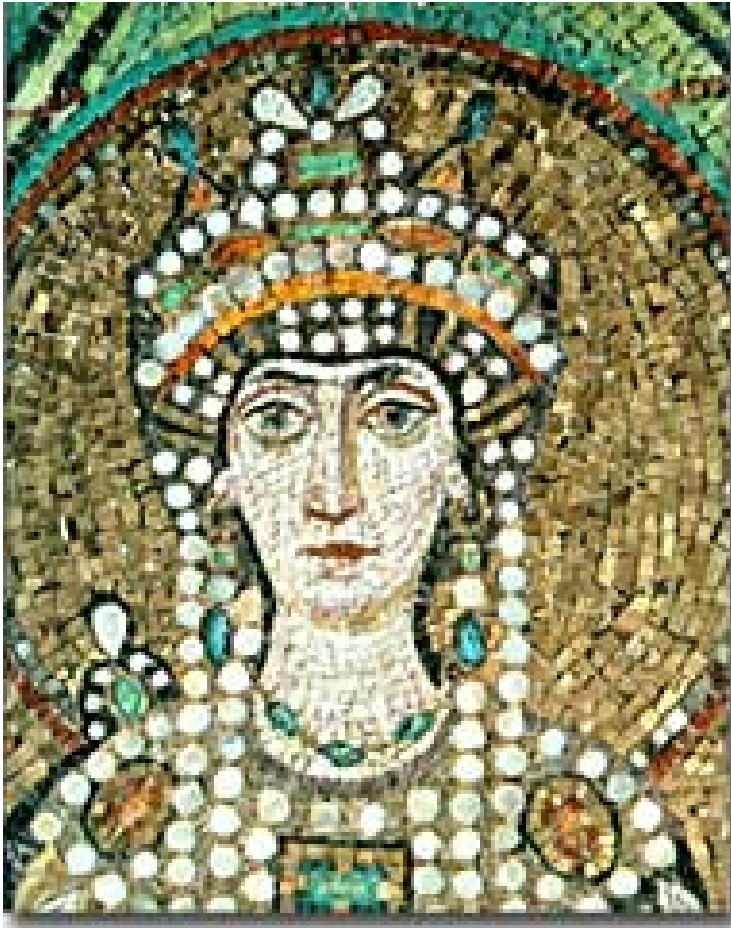


FIGURE 4.51

Empress Theodora

Empress Theodora was one of the most powerful women of late antiquity. She helped keep her husband, Emperor Justinian, in power and solidified the strength of the Byzantine Empire in the 6th century C.E. as the western Empire collapsed.

Constantinople was advantageously situated for two reasons. First, it was on a peninsula that could be fortified and defended easily. Further, because Constantinople was located on the frontiers of the empire, imperial armies could respond more easily to external attacks or threats.

Some scholars also believe that Constantine established a new city in order to provide a place for the young religion of Christianity to grow in an environment purer than that of corrupt Rome.

The western Empire spoke Latin and was Roman Catholic. The eastern Empire spoke Greek and worshipped under the Eastern Orthodox branch of the Christian church. Over time, the east thrived, while the west declined. In fact, after the western part of the Roman Empire fell, the eastern half continued to exist as the Byzantine Empire for hundreds of years. Therefore, the "fall of Rome" really refers only to the fall of the western half of the Empire.

Other fundamental problems contributed to the fall. In the economically ailing west, a decrease in agricultural production led to higher food prices. The western half of the empire had a large trade deficit with the eastern half. The west purchased luxury goods from the east but had nothing to offer in exchange. To make up for the lack of money, the government began producing more coins with less silver content. This led to inflation. Finally, piracy and attacks from Germanic tribes disrupted the flow of trade, especially in the west.

There were political and military difficulties, as well. It didn't help matters that political amateurs were in control of Rome in the years leading up to its fall. Army generals dominated the emperorship, and corruption was rampant. Over time, the military was transformed into a mercenary army with no real loyalty to Rome. As money grew tight,

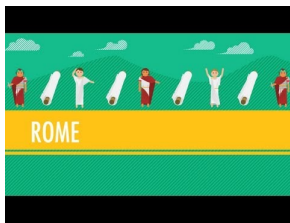
the government hired the cheaper and less reliable Germanic soldiers to fight in Roman armies. By the end, these armies were defending Rome against their fellow Germanic tribesmen. Under these circumstances, the sack of Rome came as no surprise.

Goth Rockers

Wave after wave of Germanic barbarian tribes swept through the Roman Empire. Groups such as the Visigoths, Vandals, Angles, Saxons, Franks, Ostrogoths, and Lombards took turns ravaging the Empire, eventually carving out areas in which to settle down. The Angles and Saxons populated the British Isles, and the Franks ended up in France.

In 476 C.E. Romulus, the last of the Roman emperors in the west, was overthrown by the Germanic leader Odoacer, who became the first Barbarian to rule in Rome. The order that the Roman Empire had brought to western Europe for 1000 years was no more.

Crash Course Videos



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(ISN) Interactive Student Notebook Assignments

(ISN) Discussion and Study Questions

1. How did geographic factors influence the culture and historical development of Rome?
2. What were the two main forms of government that the Romans lived under and what were their characteristics?
3. How did Rome change as it changed from a republic to an empire?
4. What were the opportunities and limitations for women in Roman society?
5. What privileges and power did the paterfamilias of the Roman family exercise over other members of the family?
6. What lasting scientific, mathematical and technological innovations originated in Rome?
7. What were the internal and external factors that led to the fall of the Roman Empire?

(ISN) Tech Activities

Technology assignment that makes them do something with a computer

Vocabulary

Quizlet Flashcard Vocabulary for The Roman Republic and Empire

TABLE 4.14:

Christianity	A religion originating during the latter days of the Roman Empire, inspired from the teachings and later crucifixion of Jesus Christ. The Bible forms the basis of its sacred scripture.
patricians and plebeians	The two main social classes of Rome.
Pax Romana	"Roman Peace" - a period of peace and prosperity throughout the Roman Empire lasting from 27 B.C. to A.D. 180.
republic	A form of government in which power is in the hands of representatives and leaders are elected by the people.
Rome	Originally a small village located on the Tiber river, it eventually became the center of a powerful classical civilization that would control vast expanses of land surrounding the Mediterranean Sea.
"Rule of Law"	The Roman idea that no one is above the law, that there are limits to a government's power, and that knowledge of the law and judicial procedure should be made available to the public.
Twelve Tables	The earliest Roman code of civil, criminal, and religious law.

4.4 Freedom Week

4.5 References

1. . "AchaemenidMapBehistunInscription" by Gabagool - <http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/File:Achamenids500BC.png>. Licensed under CC BY 3.0 via Wikimedia Commons - <https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:AchaemenidMapBehistunInscription.png#mediaviewer/File:AchaemenidMapBehistunInscription.png> .
2. . "Cyrus tomb" by Behrad18n - en.wikipedia. Licensed under Copyrighted free use via Wikimedia Commons - https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Cyrus_tomb.jpg#mediaviewer/File:Cyrus_tomb.jpg .

Chapter Four: The Middle Ages in Europe

Chapter Outline

- 5.1 THE BYZANTINE EMPIRE
 - 5.2 THE EARLY MIDDLE AGES
 - 5.3 THE MEDIEVAL CHURCH IN THE WEST
 - 5.4 NORMAN INVASION OF ENGLAND, FEUDALISM, MANORIALISM AND THE HIGH MIDDLE AGES
 - 5.5 REFERENCES
-

Section 1: The Byzantine Empire and Eastern Orthodoxy

Section 2: Medieval Europe After Rome to Charlemagne

Section 3: The Roman Catholic Church

Section 4: Feudalism and Manorialism

Section 4: The Crusades and the Magna Carta

Further Reading

Brownworth, Lars. *Lost to the West: The Forgotten Byzantine Empire That Rescued Western Civilization*. New York: Broadway Books, 2010. In this recent study Brownworth shows that after 476 CE the center of political power in the Roman world simply shifted east. The author takes his reader on a tour of Byzantine history from the fall of Rome through to the fall of Constantinople to the Ottoman Turks in 1453 CE.

Hastings, Adrian. *A World History of Christianity*. Grand Rapids, Mich: W.B. Eerdmans, 1999. "Christianity is the most global of all religions. However, most books on the subject fail to do justice to the history of Christianity outside Europe and North America. This prodigious work provides the first genuinely global one-volume study of the rise, development, and impact of the Christian faith."

Herrin, Judith.

—*Unrivalled Influence: Women and Empire in Byzantium*. Princeton: Princeton University Press, 2013. Herrin analyzes the cultural and political roles of women in medieval Byzantium.

5.1 The Byzantine Empire

4.1 The Byzantine Empire

Student Learning Objectives

At the end of this unit the student will be able to

- explain the development of Christianity as a unifying social and political factor in medieval Europe and the Byzantine Empire
- explain the characteristics of Roman Catholicism and Eastern Orthodoxy
- identify the impact of political and legal ideas contained in the following documents: Hammurabi's Code, the Jewish Ten Commandments, **Justinian's Code of Laws**, Magna Carta, the English Bill of Rights, the Declaration of Independence, the U.S. Constitution, and the Declaration of the Rights of Man and the of the Citizen
- identify examples of religious influence on various events referenced in the major eras of world history.
- analyze information by sequencing, categorizing, identifying cause-and-effect relationships, comparing, contrasting, finding the main idea, summarizing, making generalizations and predictions, drawing inferences and conclusions, and developing connections between historical events over time.
- use social studies terminology correctly.
- use standard grammar, spelling, sentence structure, and punctuation.
- interpret and create written, oral, and visual presentations of social studies information.
- transfer information from one media to another.

While the Western Roman Empire fell, the Eastern Roman Empire, now known as the Byzantine Empire, thrived.

As the Western Roman Empire fell in 476 CE, the Eastern Roman Empire, centered on the city of Constantinople, survived and thrived. Constantine moved the seat of the empire to Constantinople, creating a strategic location at the crossroads of European and Asian trade. Although the people living in the Eastern Roman Empire referred to themselves as Romans, they were distinguished by their Greek heritage, Orthodox Christianity, and their regional connections. Over time, the culture of the Eastern Roman Empire transformed. Greek replaced Latin as the language of the empire. Christianity became more important in daily life, while still coping with a sometimes-uncomfortable memory of its pagan Roman past. Regardless of the East-West division, the people of the Byzantine Empire identified themselves as Roman.

After the Eastern Roman Empire fell too in 1453 CE, Western scholars began calling it the "Byzantine Empire" to emphasize its differences from the earlier Latin-speaking Roman Empire centered on Rome, and by the 19th century this term had become standard among historians.

The term "Byzantine" was also useful to the many Western European states that claimed to be the true successors of the Roman Empire, in that it was used to delegitimize the claims of the Byzantines as true Romans. In modern times, the term "Byzantine" has also come to have a pejorative sense, used to describe things that are overly complex or arcane. "Byzantine diplomacy" has come to mean excess use of trickery and behind-the-scenes manipulation. These are all based on medieval stereotypes about the Byzantine Empire that developed as Western Europeans came into contact with the Byzantines and were perplexed by their more structured government. They also found the Byzantine preference for diplomacy and deception rather than warfare to be unmanly.

Despite the fact that the term "Byzantine" is a modern convention and has negative connotations, it is the commonly accepted term in modern scholarship. It is also more concise than "Eastern Roman" or "Medieval Roman." We must be cognizant of the baggage that the term "Byzantine" carries, but it is still a useful term. The "Byzantine Empire"



FIGURE 5.1

denotes the medieval empire centered on Constantinople in which Christianity and Greek language and heritage dominated daily life.

Constantine the Great and the Beginning of Byzantium

It is a matter of debate when the Roman Empire officially ended and transformed into the Byzantine Empire. Most scholars accept that it did not happen at one time, but that it was a slow process, and so late Roman history overlaps with early Byzantine history. Constantine I ("the Great") is usually held to be the founder of the Byzantine Empire. He was responsible for two major changes that would help create a Byzantine culture distinct from the Roman past.

First, he moved the capital of the Roman Empire to the city of Byzantium (the origin of the word "Byzantine"), a city strategically located on the trade routes between Europe and Asia and between the Mediterranean and the Black Sea, which he refounded as the city of Constantinople (it was also sometimes called "New Rome"). Constantine's founding of Constantinople in 330 CE is usually considered the beginning of the Byzantine Empire. By moving the capital of the empire outside Italy and east, Constantine moved the center of gravity in the empire to this region, right on the divide between Europe and Asia Minor.

Second, he legalized Christianity, which had previously been persecuted in the Roman Empire. He converted to Christianity himself and sponsored the Christian Church. Though not the empire's official religion, Christianity would be a major element of Byzantine culture.

After Constantine, few emperors ruled the entire Roman Empire. It was too big and was under attack from too many directions. Usually, there was an emperor of the Western Roman Empire ruling from Italy or Gaul and an emperor of the Eastern Roman Empire ruling from Constantinople. While the Western Empire was overrun by Germanic barbarians—its lands in Italy were conquered by the Ostrogoths, Spain was conquered by the Visigoths, North Africa was conquered by the Vandals, and Gaul was conquered by the Franks—the Eastern Empire thrived. Constantinople became the largest city in the empire and a major commercial center. In 476 CE, the last Western Roman Emperor was deposed and the Western Roman Empire was no more. Thus the Eastern Roman Empire was

**FIGURE 5.2**

Constantine the Great Byzantine Emperor
Constantine the Great presents a representation of the city of Constantinople as tribute to an enthroned Mary and Christ Child in this church mosaic. St Sophia, c. 1000 CE.

the only Roman Empire left standing.

The Justinian Dynasty and Reconquest

In 527 CE, Justinian I came to the throne in Constantinople. He dreamed of reconquering the lands of the Western Roman Empire and ruling a single, united Roman Empire from his seat in Constantinople.

Justinian sent his general, Belisarius, to Africa with a small army in 533 CE. Belisarius successfully defeated the Vandals and claimed Africa for Constantinople. Next, Justinian sent him to take Italy from the Ostrogoths in 535 CE. Belisarius defeated the Ostrogoths in a series of battles and reclaimed Rome. By 540 CE, most of Italy was in Justinian's hands. He sent another army to conquer Spain.

Justinian also undertook many important projects at home. Much of Constantinople was burned down early in Justinian's reign after a series of riots called the Nika riots in 532 CE, when angry racing fans became enraged at Justinian for arresting two popular charioteers (though this was really just the last straw for a populace increasingly angry over rising taxes) and tried to depose him. The riots were put down, and Justinian set about rebuilding the city on a grander scale. His greatest accomplishment was the Hagia Sophia, the most important church of the city. The Hagia Sophia was a staggering work of Byzantine architecture, intended to awe all who set foot in the church. It was the largest church in the world for nearly a thousand years, and for the rest of Byzantine history it was the center of Christian worship in Constantinople.

Emperor Justinian's most important contribution, perhaps, was a unified Roman legal code. Prior to his reign, Roman laws had differed from region to region, and many contradicted one another. The Romans had attempted to systematize the legal code in the fifth century but had not completed the effort. Now Justinian set up a commission of lawyers to put together a single code, listing each law by subject so that it could be easily referenced. This not only served as the basis for law in the Byzantine Empire, but it was the main influence on the Catholic Church's development of canon law and went on to become the basis of law in many European countries. Justinian's law code



FIGURE 5.3

Emperor Justinian Byzantine Emperor Justinian I depicted on one of the famous mosaics of the Basilica of San Vitale, Ravenna.



FIGURE 5.4

English: The Eastern Roman Empire (red) and its vassals (pink) in 555 AD during the reign of Justinian I.

continues to have a major influence on public international law to this day.

The impact of a more unified legal code and military conflicts was the increased ability for the Byzantine Empire to establish trade and improve their economic standing. Byzantine merchants traded not only all over the Mediterranean region, but also throughout regions to the east. These included areas around the Black Sea, the Red Sea, and the

**FIGURE 5.5**

Hagia Sophia.

Indian Ocean.

A terrible plague swept through the empire, killing his wife Theodora and almost killing him. The plague wiped out huge numbers of the empire's population, leaving villages empty and crops unharvested. The army was also afflicted, and the Ostrogoths were able to effectively regain Italy in 546 CE through guerilla warfare against the Byzantine occupiers.

With Justinian's army bogged down fighting in Italy, the empire's defenses against the Persians on its eastern frontiers were weakened. In the Roman-Persian Wars, the Persians invaded and destroyed a number of important cities. Justinian was forced to establish a humiliating 50-year peace treaty with them in 561 CE.

Still, Justinian kept the empire from collapse. He sent a new general, Narses, to Italy with a small force. Narses finally defeated the Ostrogoths and drove them back out of Italy. By the time the war was over, Italy, once one of the most prosperous lands in the ancient world, was wrecked. The city of Rome changed hands multiple times, and most of the cities of Italy were abandoned or fell into a long period of decline. The impoverishment of Italy and the weakened Byzantine military made it impossible for the empire to hold the peninsula. Soon a new Germanic tribe, the Lombards, came in and conquered most of Italy, though Rome, Naples, and Ravenna remained isolated pockets of Byzantine control. At the same time, another new barbarian enemy, the Slavs, appeared from north of the Danube. They devastated Greece and the Balkans, and in the absence of strong Byzantine military might, they settled in small communities in these lands.

The Byzantine Empire has had a lasting legacy in religion, architecture, art, literature, and law.

The Byzantine Empire was largely overlooked among historians until recent times, or else was considered inferior to its Roman predecessor. The terms "Byzantine" and "Byzantinism" connote decadence, complex bureaucracy, and repression. However, as we have seen, the Byzantine Empire went through various periods of prosperity and decline, rose to great heights and suffered terrible losses, as it was beset from all sides by a vast array of enemies eager to capture its lands. Only recently have Western historians begun to appreciate the important legacy of the Byzantine Empire.

Protection of Europe

The Byzantine Empire had kept Greek and Roman culture alive for nearly a thousand years after the fall of the Roman Empire in the west. It had preserved this cultural heritage until it was taken up in the West during the

Renaissance. The Byzantine Empire had also acted as a buffer between Western Europe and the conquering armies of Islam. Thus, in many ways the Byzantine Empire had insulated Europe and given it the time it needed to recover from its chaotic medieval period.

**FIGURE 5.6**

Constantinople in the Byzantine Era: an artists restructured photo of what the city of Constantinople looked like during the Byzantine era.

Religion

Orthodoxy now occupies a central position in the history and societies of Greece, Bulgaria, Russia, Serbia and other countries. Following the conquest of Constantinople by the Ottoman Turks in 1453 CE, the Ottomans regarded themselves as the "heirs" of Byzantium and preserved important aspects of its tradition, which in turn facilitated an "Orthodox revival" during the post-communist period of the Eastern European states. The modern-day Eastern Orthodox Church is the second largest Christian church in the world.

Diplomacy and Law

After the fall of Rome, the key challenge to the Empire was to maintain a set of relations between itself and its neighbors. When these nations set about forging formal political institutions, they often modeled themselves on Constantinople. Byzantine diplomacy soon managed to draw its neighbors into a network of international and inter-state relations. This network revolved around treaty making and included the welcoming of the new ruler into the family of kings as well as the assimilation of Byzantine social attitudes, values and institutions. The preservation of the ancient civilization in Europe was due to the skill and resourcefulness of Byzantine diplomacy, which remains one of Byzantium's lasting contributions to the history of Europe.

In the field of law, Justinian I's reforms to the legal code would come to serve as the basis of not only Byzantine law but law in many European countries and continues to have a major influence on public international law to this day. Leo III's *Ecloga* influenced the formation of legal institutions in the Slavic world. In the 10th century, Leo VI the Wise achieved the complete codification of the whole of Byzantine law in Greek, which became the foundation of all subsequent Byzantine law, which generates interest to the present day.

Art and Literature

Influences from Byzantine architecture, particularly in religious buildings, can be found in diverse regions from Egypt and Arabia to Russia and Romania.

During the Byzantine Renaissance of the Macedonian Dynasty, art and literature flourished, and artists adopted a naturalistic style and complex techniques from ancient Greek and Roman art, mixing them with Christian themes. Byzantine painting from this period would have a strong influence on the later painters of the Italian Renaissance.

In the final century of the Empire, Byzantine grammarians were principally responsible for bringing ancient Greek grammatical and literary studies to early Renaissance Italy.

The Byzantines also preserved and copied classical manuscripts, and they are thus regarded as transmitters of the classical knowledge, as important contributors to the modern European civilization, and as precursors to both the Renaissance humanism and the Slav Orthodox culture.

Economy

The Byzantine economy was among the most advanced in Europe and the Mediterranean for many centuries. Europe, in particular, was unable to match Byzantine economic strength until late in the Middle Ages. Constantinople was a prime hub in a trading network that at various times extended across nearly all of Eurasia and North Africa. In particular, it was the primary western terminus of the famous Silk Road. Until the first half of the 6th century and in sharp contrast with the decaying West, the Byzantine economy was flourishing and resilient.

Language

Apart from the Imperial court, administration, and military, the primary language used in the eastern Roman provinces even before the decline of the Western Empire was Greek, which had been spoken in the region for centuries before Latin arrived. (Latin would continue to be used as both a spoken language and the language of scholarship, and it would eventually evolve into the various western Romance languages.) Greek became the common language in the Christian Church, the language of scholarship and the arts, and, to a large degree, the lingua franca for trade between provinces and with other nations.



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(ISN) Student Notebook Assignments

(ISN) Discussion and Study Questions

1. Why was Christianity so thoroughly integrated into Byzantine society?
2. In what ways did Christianity help to maintain the Byzantine Empire?
3. What were the immediate and long-term effects of Justinian's Code of Laws?
4. How did Roman law influence the legal system of the Byzantine Empire?

Vocabulary

[Quizlet Flashcard Vocabulary for the Byzantine Empire](#)

TABLE 5.1:

Byzantine Empire	The Eastern half of the Roman Empire centered in Constantinople. It would survive for a thousand years after the decline of the Western half of the Empire before finally falling to the Ottoman Turks in 1453
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TABLE 5.1: (continued)

Code of Justinian	The body of Roman civil law that served as the legal framework for the Byzantine Empire for nine centuries.
Constantinople	Capital city of the Byzantine Empire.
Eastern Orthodoxy	The Christian religious faith practiced in the Byzantine Empire. It split from the Roman Catholic Church in A.D. 1054, recognizing the patriarch, rather than the Pope, as its leader.
Hagia Sophia	An Eastern Orthodox church located in Constantinople and built during the reign of Justinian. It would later become a mosque after Ottoman conquests and is now a museum in modern day Istanbul, Turkey.
Justinian	Byzantine Emperor from A.D. 527 to 565. He sought to revive the Roman Empire's greatness, for a time winning back nearly all the lands that had been lost in the western half of the Roman Empire. He is also noted for his codifying of Roman law (Code of Justinian).
Patriarch	Head of the Eastern Orthodox Church of the Byzantine Empire.

5.2 The Early Middle Ages

4.2 The Early Middle Ages

Student Learning Objectives

At the end of this section students will be able to:

- explain the impact of the fall of Rome on Western Europe.
- explain the development of Christianity as a unifying social and political factor in medieval Europe and the Byzantine Empire
- analyze information by sequencing, categorizing, identifying cause-and-effect relationships, comparing, contrasting, finding the main idea, summarizing, making generalizations and predictions, drawing inferences and conclusions, and developing connections between historical events over time.
- use social studies terminology correctly
- use standard grammar, spelling, sentence structure, and punctuation.

During the 5th century, as the Western Roman Empire lost military strength and political cohesion, numerous nomadic Germanic peoples, under pressure from population growth and invading Asian groups, began migrating en masse in far and diverse directions, taking them to Great Britain and far south through present day Continental Europe to the Mediterranean and northern Africa.

Over time this wandering meant intrusions into other tribal territories, and the ensuing wars for land escalated with the dwindling amount of unoccupied territory. Wandering tribes then began staking out permanent homes as a means of protection. Much of this resulted in fixed settlements from which many, under a powerful leader, expanded outwards. In Denmark the Jutes merged with the Danes, in Sweden the Geats and Gutes merged with the Swedes. In England, the Angles merged with the Saxons and other groups (notably the Jutes), as well as absorbing some natives, to form the Anglo-Saxons (later to become known as the English).



FIGURE 5.7

The Germanic Kingdoms and the Eastern Roman Empire in 526 CE

Military

Germanic people were fierce in battle, creating a strong military. Their love of battle was linked to their religious practices and two of the most important gods, Wodan and his son, Thor, were both believed to be gods of war. The Germanic idea of warfare was quite different from the pitched battles fought by Rome and Greece and the Germanic tribes focused on raids to capture resources and secure prestige.

Warriors were strong in battle and had great fighting abilities, making the tribes almost unbeatable. Men began battle training at a young age and were given a shield and a spear upon manhood, illustrating the importance of combat in Germanic life. The loss of the shield or spear meant a loss of honor. The Germanic warriors' intense devotion to his tribe and his chieftain led to many important military victories throughout their existence.

Chieftains were the leaders of clans and clans were divided into groups by family ties. The earlier Germans elected the chieftain, but as time went on it became hereditary. One of the chieftains jobs was to keep peace in the clans, and they did this by keeping the warriors together and united.

Military Chieftains relied upon **retinues**, a body of followers 'retained' by the chieftain. A chieftain's retinue might include close relatives, but it was not limited to them. The followers depended on the retinue for military and other services and who in return provided for the retinue's needs and divided with them the spoils of battle. This relationship between a chieftain and his followers became the basis for the more complicated **feudal system** that developed in medieval Europe.

Major Historical Figures

Political and diplomatic leaders, such as Odoacer and Theodoric the Great changed the course of history in the late 400s CE and paved the way for later kings and conquerors. Odoacer, a German general, took over the Western Roman Empire in his own name, becoming the first barbarian king of Italy. Theodoric the Great, became a barbarian king of Italy after the killing of Odoacer. He initiated 3 decades of peace between the Ostrogoths and the Romans and united the two Gothic tribes.

Theodoric the Great lived as a hostage at the court of **Constantinople** for many years and learned a great deal about Roman government and military tactics, which served him well when he became the Gothic ruler of a mixed but largely Romanized 'barbarian people'.

Charlemagne

Charlemagne, also known as Charles the Great or Charles I, was the King of the Franks from 768, the King of Italy from 774, and from 800 the first emperor in western Europe since the collapse of the Western Roman Empire three centuries earlier. The expanded Frankish state he founded is called the Carolingian Empire. Charlemagne is considered to be the greatest ruler of the Carolingian Dynasty because of the achievements he made at what seemed like the very middle of the Dark Ages.

Military Campaign

When Charlemagne was 26, he along with his brother Carloman inherited the kingdom of the Franks. Charlemagne, who was characterized for being determined to improve education and religion, and bring Europe out of turmoil. To do this he launched a 30 year military campaign in 772-804 of conquests which united Europe and spread Christianity.

The first step that Charlemagne took in building his empire was to conquer new territories. The first of these conquering campaigns was against the Lombards, he came out victorious and won the Lombard lands to the north of Italy. Charlemagne also led a victorious campaign against the Saxons of the east. Besides this, he expanded his

**FIGURE 5.8**

Theodoric the Great by Vischer Bronze statue of Theodoric the Great (Peter Vischer, 1512-13) from the monument of Emperor Maximilian I in the Court Church at Innsbruck.

empire towards southern Germany, southern France, and the island of Corsica. He fought the Avars adding modern-day Hungary and also fought against the moors of Spain gaining the northern part of Spain. Through these conquests Charlemagne united Europe and spread Christianity.

Many view Charlemagne as the person who helped reunite Western Europe (and it was hoped all of Europe by some) in the spirit of the old Roman Empire. However, that did not actually happen. The progress made by Charlemagne has been celebrated by Europeans though. The Charlemagne Prize has been awarded once a year since 1950 by the German city of Aachen to people who contributed to the ideals upon which it has been founded. It commemorates Charlemagne, ruler of the Frankish Empire and founder of what became the Holy Roman Empire, who resided and is buried at Aachen. Today it is given annually to a person who has helped promote European Unity.

Beliefs

Charlemagne had very different beliefs from past rulers. He believed that government should be for the benefit of the governed, and he backed up those beliefs in what he accomplished for the people. He consistently tried to

**FIGURE 5.9**

Charlemagne and Pope Adrian I "Charlemagne and the Pope." The Frankish king Charlemagne was a devout Catholic who maintained a close relationship with the papacy throughout his life. In 772, when Pope Adrian I was threatened by invaders, the king rushed to Rome to provide assistance. Shown here, the pope asks Charlemagne for help at a meeting in Rome.

improve the lives of his people. He believed in education of skills and religious education. He felt it was important for everyone to have the same educational and religious training as the entire kingdom.

Charlemagne was also successful in encouraging learning; he opened schools for the nobles and ordered monasteries to open schools. He was crowned Roman emperor by the pope Leo III in the year 800.

The Church had converted many Germanic peoples. These new converts had settled in [Rome](#)'s former lands. To adapt to rural conditions, the Church built religious communities. In monasteries monks, "christian men", gave up their private possessions and devoted their lives to serving God. Monasteries also became Europe's best-educated communities. Monks opened schools, maintained libraries, and copied books.

Decline of the empire

As Charlemagne grew older, he continued to give to the church and promote education, and he made laws that were in favor of spreading the Christian faith and supporting Christian morals and ethics. It was beginning to look like Western Europe was going to recover from the fall of Rome, but Charlemagne fell sick in 814 and died. His empire was split among his three sons, who eventually engaged in civil war, splitting their empires into small, [feudal states](#)

Vikings

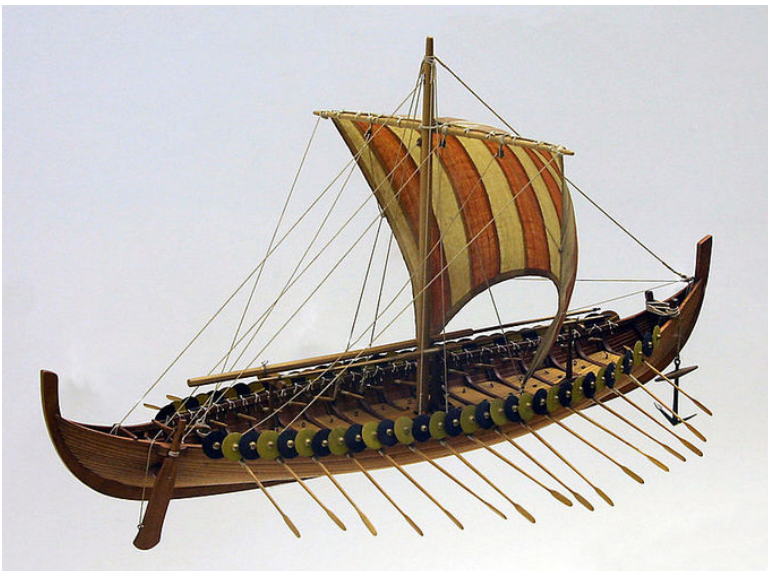
Vikings were Norse seafarers who originated in Scandinavia and raided, traded, explored, and settled in wide areas of Europe, Asia, and the North Atlantic islands. The period from the earliest recorded raids in the 790s until the [Norman](#) conquest of England in 1066 is commonly known as the Viking Age of Scandinavian history. Vikings used the Norwegian Sea and Baltic Sea for sea routes to the south.

**FIGURE 5.10**

The painting shows how Charlemagne was crowned Imperator Romanorum by Pope Leo III on Christmas Evening, 800 CE.

Viking ships

There have been several archaeological finds of Viking ships of all sizes, providing knowledge of the craftsmanship that went into building them. There were many types of Viking ships, built according to their intended uses, though the most iconic type is probably the **longship**. Longships were intended for warfare and exploration, designed for speed and agility, and they were equipped with oars to complement the sail, making navigation possible independently of the wind. It was the longship, that allowed the Norse to go Viking (on an expedition), which might explain why this type of ship has become almost synonymous with the concept of Vikings. Longships were the epitome of Scandinavian naval power at the time, and were highly valued possessions.

**FIGURE 5.11**

Model of the Gokstad ship. The Gokstad ship is a Viking ship found in a burial mound at Gokstad farm in Sandar, Sandefjord, Vestfold, Norway. Dendrochronological dating suggests that the ship was built around 890 CE.

Ships were an integral part of the Viking culture. They facilitated everyday transportation across seas and waterways, exploration of new lands, raids, conquests, and trade with neighboring cultures. They also held a major religious importance; magnates and people with a high status were sometimes buried in a ship along with animal sacrifices, weapons, provisions and other items.

Weapons and Warfare

Weapons were indicative of a Viking's social status: a wealthy Viking would have a complete ensemble of a helmet, shield, mail shirt, and sword. A typical bóndi (freeman) was more likely to fight with a spear and shield, and most also carried a knife and side-arm. Bows were used in the opening stages of land battles and at sea, but they tended to be considered less 'honorable' than a weapon which could be used in close combat. Vikings were relatively unusual for the time in their use of axes as a main battle weapon.

Apart from two or three representations of (ritual) helmets – with protrusions that may be either stylised ravens, snakes, or horns – no depiction of the helmets of Viking warriors, and no preserved helmet, has horns. The formal, close-quarters style of Viking combat (either in shield walls or aboard "ship islands") would have made horned helmets cumbersome and hazardous to the warrior's own side.

In combat the Vikings are believed to have engaged in a disordered style of frenetic, furious fighting, although the brutal perception of the vikings is largely a misconception, likely attributed to Christian misunderstandings at the time regarding paganism.

Trade

The Vikings established and engaged in extensive trading networks throughout the known world and had a profound influence on the economic development of Europe and Scandinavia.

The Viking world was unfamiliar with the use of coinage and instead silver was the most common metal in the economy by large, although gold was also used to some extent. Silver circulated in the form of bars, or [ingots](#) , as well as in the form of jewelry and ornaments. Traders carried small scales, enabling them to measure weight very accurately, so it was possible to have a very precise system of trade and exchange, even without a regular coinage.

The organized trade covered everything from ordinary items in bulk to exotic luxury products. Imported goods included silk, spices and wine, whilst exported goods comprised of wool, fur, amber, weapons, salt and wax.

Viking Expansion

The Vikings explored the northern islands and coasts of the North Atlantic, ventured south to North Africa and east to Russia, [Constantinople](#) , and the Middle East. They raided and pillaged, but also engaged in trade, settled wide-ranging colonies, and acted as mercenaries.

The Vikings did not expand or conquer much into mainland Europe. Their realm was bordered by powerful cultures to the south. The Saxons were a fierce and powerful people and were often in conflict with the Vikings. Vikings soon witnessed the violent subduing of the Saxons by [Charlemagne](#) , in the thirty year campaigns of the Saxon Wars resulting in the spread of forced [Christianity](#) . The south coast of the Baltic Sea was ruled by the [Obotrites](#) , a federation of Slavic tribes. The Vikings destroyed the Obotrite city of Reric in 808 CE, which would remain throughout the Viking Age.

Perceptions of the Vikings

In England the Viking Age began dramatically on 8 June 793 CE when Norsemen destroyed the abbey on the island of Lindisfarne. The devastation of Northumbria's Holy Island shocked and alerted the royal Courts of Europe to the



FIGURE 5.12

Light blue: Itineraries of the Vikings, depicting the immense breadth of their voyages through most of Europe, the Mediterranean Sea, Northern Africa, Asia Minor, the Arctic and North America. light green: main settlement areas, in the first millennium.

Viking presence. "Never before has such an atrocity been seen," declared the Northumbrian scholar Alcuin of York. More than any other single event, the attack on Lindisfarne demonized perception of the Vikings for the next twelve centuries. Not until the 1890s did scholars outside Scandinavia begin to seriously reassess the achievements of the Vikings, recognizing their technological skills, and seamanship.



FIGURE 5.13

The monastery of Lindisfarne was founded by Irish monk Saint Aidan before the end of 634. Lindisfarne became the base for Christian evangelizing in the North of England. In 793, a Viking raid on Lindisfarne caused much consternation throughout the Christian west and is now often taken as the beginning of the Viking Age.



Video

MEDIA

Click image to the left or use the URL below.

URL: <http://www.ck12.org/flx/render/embeddedobject/162854>

(ISN) Discussion and Study Questions

1. What immediate effects did the fall of Rome have on Western Europe?
2. How did the Islamic Challenge in Western Europe strengthen the role of the church?

Vocabulary**TABLE 5.2:**

Battle of Tours	A battle won by Charles Martel, ruler of the Frankish kingdoms, in A.D. 732 over Muslim invaders from Spain. It has often been regarded as decisive for world history, since it preserved Western Europe from Muslim conquest and Islamization.
Charlemagne	A Frankish king, also known as Charles the Great, who expanded the Germanic Frankish kingdom into an empire (Carolingian) that incorporated much of Western and Central Europe in the 8th and 9th centuries. He was crowned "Roman Emperor" by Pope Leo III.
Christendom	All parts of the world inhabited by Christians.
Germanic tribes	A variety of ethnic groups (Franks, Angles, Saxons, Visigoths, etc.) located north of the Roman Empire and along its northern border that would eventually overrun the Western half of the Roman Empire, bringing about the start of the Middle Ages.
Holy Roman Empire	An empire established in central Europe in the 10th century, originally consisting mainly of lands in what is now Germany and Italy.
Martel, Charles	Ruler of the Frankish kingdoms in the 8th century and victor at the Battle of Tours.
Middle Ages (medieval)	The era in European history that followed the fall of the Roman Empire, lasting from about 500 to 1500.
Vikings	The Norse explorers, warriors, merchants, and pirates who raided, traded, explored and settled in wide areas of Europe, Asia and the North Atlantic islands from the late 8th to the mid-11th century. They were main contributors to the destruction of the Carolingian Empire established by Charlemagne.

5.3 The Medieval Church in the West

4.3 The Medieval Church in the West

Student Learning Objectives

At the end of this section the student will be able to:

- explain the development of Christianity as a unifying social and political factor in medieval Europe and the Byzantine Empire.
- explain the characteristics of Roman Catholicism and Eastern Orthodoxy.
- identify significant examples of art and architecture that demonstrate an artistic ideal or visual principle from selected cultures.

The Medieval Church

Christianity was a major unifying factor between Eastern and Western Europe before the Arab conquests, but the conquest of North Africa sundered maritime connections between those areas. Increasingly the Byzantine Church differed in language, practices, and liturgy from the western Church. The eastern church used Greek instead of the western Latin. Theological and political differences emerged, and by the early and middle 8th century issues such as iconoclasm, clerical marriage, and state control of the church had widened to the extent that the cultural and religious differences were greater than the similarities. The formal break came in 1054, when the papacy and the patriarchy of Constantinople clashed over papal supremacy and excommunicated each other, which led to the division of Christianity into two churches—the western branch became the Roman Catholic Church and the eastern branch the Orthodox Church.

The ecclesiastical structure of the Roman Empire survived the movements and invasions in the west mostly intact, but the papacy was little regarded, and few of the western bishops looked to the bishop of Rome for religious or political leadership. Many of the popes prior to 750 were more concerned with Byzantine affairs and eastern theological controversies. The register, or archived copies of the letters, of Pope Gregory the Great (pope 590–604) survives, and of those more than 850 letters, the vast majority were concerned with affairs in Italy or Constantinople. The only part of Western Europe where the papacy had influence was Britain, where Gregory had sent the Gregorian mission in 597 to convert the Anglo-Saxons to Christianity. Irish missionaries were most active in Western Europe between the 5th and the 7th centuries, going first to England and Scotland and then on to the continent. Under such monks as Columba (d. 597) and Columbanus (d. 615), they founded monasteries, taught in Latin and Greek, and authored secular and religious works.

The Early Middle Ages witnessed the rise of monasticism in the West. The shape of European monasticism was determined by traditions and ideas that originated with the Desert Fathers of Egypt and Syria. Most European monasteries were of the type that focuses on community experience of the spiritual life, called cenobitism, which was pioneered by Pachomius (d. 348) in the 4th century. Monastic ideals spread from Egypt to Western Europe in the 5th and 6th centuries through hagiographical literature such as the *Life of Anthony*. Benedict of Nursia (d. 547) wrote the Benedictine Rule for Western monasticism during the 6th century, detailing the administrative and spiritual responsibilities of a community of monks led by an abbot. Monks and monasteries had a deep effect on the religious and political life of the Early Middle Ages, in various cases acting as land trusts for powerful families, centres of propaganda and royal support in newly conquered regions, and bases for missions and proselytisation. They were the main and sometimes only outposts of education and literacy in a region. Many of the surviving manuscripts

of the Latin classics were copied in monasteries in the Early Middle Ages. Monks were also the authors of new works, including history, theology, and other subjects, written by authors such as Bede (d. 735), a native of northern England who wrote in the late 7th and early 8th centuries.

Church Life

Monastic reform became an important issue during the 11th century, as elites began to worry that monks were not adhering to the rules binding them to a strictly religious life. Cluny Abbey, founded in the Mâcon region of France in 909, was established as part of the Cluniac Reforms, a larger movement of monastic reform in response to this fear. Cluny quickly established a reputation for austerity and rigour. It sought to maintain a high quality of spiritual life by placing itself under the protection of the papacy and by electing its own abbot without interference from laymen, thus maintaining economic and political independence from local lords.

Monastic reform inspired change in the secular church. The ideals that it was based upon were brought to the papacy by Pope Leo IX (pope 1049–1054), and provided the ideology of the clerical independence that led to the Investiture Controversy in the late 11th century. This involved Pope Gregory VII (pope 1073–85) and Emperor Henry IV, who initially clashed over episcopal appointments, a dispute that turned into a battle over the ideas of investiture, clerical marriage, and simony. The emperor saw the protection of the Church as one of his responsibilities as well as wanting to preserve the right to appoint his own choices as bishops within his lands, but the papacy insisted on the Church's independence from secular lords. These issues remained unresolved after the compromise of 1122 known as the Concordat of Worms. The dispute represents a significant stage in the creation of a papal monarchy separate from and equal to lay authorities. It also had the permanent consequence of empowering German princes at the expense of the German emperors.

The High Middle Ages was a period of great religious movements. Besides the Crusades and monastic reforms, people sought to participate in new forms of religious life. New monastic orders were founded, including the Carthusians and the Cistercians. The latter especially expanded rapidly in their early years under the guidance of Bernard of Clairvaux (d. 1153). These new orders were formed in response to the feeling of the laity that Benedictine monasticism no longer met the needs of the laymen, who along with those wishing to enter the religious life wanted a return to the simpler hermetical monasticism of early Christianity, or to live an Apostolic life. Religious pilgrimages were also encouraged. Old pilgrimage sites such as Rome, Jerusalem, and Compostela received increasing numbers of visitors, and new sites such as Monte Gargano and Bari rose to prominence.

In the 13th century mendicant orders—the Franciscans and the Dominicans—who swore vows of poverty and earned their living by begging, were approved by the papacy. Religious groups such as the Waldensians and the Humiliati also attempted to return to the life of early Christianity in the middle 12th and early 13th centuries, but they were condemned as heretical by the papacy. Others joined the Cathars, another heretical movement condemned by the papacy. In 1209, a crusade was preached against the Cathars, the Albigensian Crusade, which in combination with the medieval Inquisition, eliminated them.

The Scholastic Movement

The new Christian method of learning was influenced by Anselm of Canterbury (1033–1109) from the rediscovery of the works of Aristotle, at first indirectly through Medieval Jewish and Muslim Philosophy (Maimonides, Avicenna, and Averroes) and then through Aristotle's own works brought back from Byzantine and Muslim libraries; and those whom he influenced, most notably Albertus Magnus, Bonaventure and Abélard. Many scholastics believed in empiricism and supporting Roman Catholic doctrines through secular study, reason, and logic. They opposed Christian mysticism, and the Platonist-Augustinian belief that the mind is an immaterial substance. The most famous of the scholastics was Thomas Aquinas (later declared a "Doctor of the Church"), who led the move away from the Platonic and Augustinian and towards Aristotelianism. Aquinas developed a philosophy of mind by writing that the mind was at birth a *tabula rasa* ("blank slate") that was given the ability to think and recognize forms or ideas through a divine spark. Other notable scholastics included Roscelin, Abélard, Peter Lombard, and Francisco Suárez. One of the main questions during this time was the problem of universals. Prominent opponents of various aspects of the scholastic mainstream included Duns Scotus, William of Ockham, Peter Damian, Bernard of Clairvaux, and the Victorines.

**FIGURE 5.14**

The ambulatory at the Abbey of Saint-Denis

St. Thomas Aquinas

Tommaso d'Aquino, (1225 – 7 March 1274), also known as **Thomas Aquinas** was an Italian Dominican friar and Catholic priest who was an immensely influential philosopher, theologian and jurist in the tradition of scholasticism, within which he is also known as the "*Doctor Angelicus*" and "*Doctor Communis*". He is heralded as the most influential Western medieval legal scholar and theologian. "Aquinas" is from the county of Aquino, an area where his family held land until 1137.

He was the foremost classical proponent of natural theology and the father of Thomism. His influence on Western thought is considerable, and much of modern philosophy was conceived in development or opposition of his ideas, particularly in the areas of ethics, natural law, metaphysics, and political theory. Unlike many currents in the Church of the time, Thomas embraced several ideas put forward by Aristotle — whom he referred to as "the Philosopher" — and attempted to synthesize Aristotelian philosophy with the principles of Christianity. The works for which he is best known are the *Summa Theologica* and the *Summa contra Gentiles*. His commentaries on Sacred Scripture and on Aristotle are an important part of his body of work. Furthermore, Thomas is distinguished for his eucharistic hymns, which form a part of the Church's liturgy.

Gothic Architecture



FIGURE 5.15

Triumph of St Thomas Aquinas, "Doctor Communis", between Plato and Aristotle, Benozzo Gozzoli, 1471. Louvre, Paris

One of the major achievements of the medieval period was the development of gothic architecture. **Gothic architecture** is a style of architecture that flourished during the high and late medieval period. It evolved from Romanesque architecture and was succeeded by Renaissance architecture. Originating in 12th-century France and lasting into the 16th century, Gothic architecture was known during the period as *Opus Francigenum* ("French work") with the term *Gothic* first appearing during the later part of the Renaissance. Its characteristics include the pointed arch, the ribbed vault and the flying buttress. Gothic architecture is most familiar as the architecture of many of the great cathedrals, abbeys and churches of Europe. It is also the architecture of many castles, palaces, town halls, guild halls, universities and to a less prominent extent, private dwellings, such as dorms and rooms.

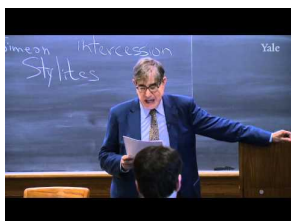
It is in the great churches and cathedrals and in a number of civic buildings that the Gothic style was expressed most powerfully, its characteristics lending themselves to appeals to the emotions, whether springing from faith or from civic pride. A great number of ecclesiastical buildings remain from this period, of which even the smallest are often structures of architectural distinction while many of the larger churches are considered priceless works of art and are listed with UNESCO as World Heritage Sites. For this reason a study of Gothic architecture is largely a study of cathedrals and churches.



FIGURE 5.16

Interior of Amiens Cathedral, France.

Video



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(ISN) Interactive Student Notebook Assignments

(ISN) Discussion and Study Questions

(ISN) Tech Activities

Vocabulary

[Quizlet Vocabulary for The Medieval Church in the West](#)

TABLE 5.3:

Aquinas, St. Thomas	An Italian Dominican priest, philosopher and theologian of the Roman Catholic Church who deeply influenced Western philosophy. He is noted for blending ancient Greek thought with the Christian thought of his own time.
canon law	The body of laws governing the religious practices of a Christian church.
gothic cathedral	Relating to a style of church architecture that developed in medieval Europe, featuring ribbed vaults, stained-glass windows, flying buttresses, pointed arches, and tall spires.
monasteries	Religious communities of men (called monks) or women called nuns) who have given up their possessions to devote themselves to a life of prayer and worship - can additionally be referred to as abbeys or convents.
Pope	Head of the Roman Catholic Church.
Roman Catholicism	The Christian church that traces its history to Jesus Christ and the Apostles and has played a prominent role in the history of Western civilization. Along with Eastern Orthodoxy and Protestantism, it is one of the three major branches of Christianity.
sacraments	Christian ceremonies in which God's grace is transmitted to people. Baptism, communion and matrimony are examples.

5.4 Norman Invasion of England, Feudalism, Manorialism and the High Middle Ages

4.4 Norman Invasion of England, Feudalism, Manorialism and the High Middle Ages

Student Learning Objectives

At the end of this section the student will be able to

- describe the major characteristics of and the factors contributing to the development of the political/social system of feudalism and the economic system of manorialism
- describe the changing roles of women, children and families during major eras of world history.
- identify significant examples of art and architecture that demonstrate an artistic ideal or visual principle from selected cultures.

Feudalism, Manorialism and the High Middle Ages

The **Norman** conquest of England was the 11th-century invasion and occupation of England by an army of Norman, Breton, and French soldiers led by Duke William II of Normandy, later **William the Conqueror** .

William's claim to the English throne derived from his familial relationship with the childless Anglo-Saxon King Edward the Confessor, who may have encouraged William's hopes for the throne. Edward died in January 1066 and was succeeded by his brother-in-law Harold Godwinson. Harold was crowned king shortly after Edward's death, but faced invasions by William, his own brother Tostig and the Norwegian King Harald Hardrada (Harold III of Norway). Hardrada invaded northern England in September 1066 and joined forces with Tostig; together they defeated a hastily gathered army of Englishmen at the Battle of Fulford on 20 September 1066. Five days later on 25 September 1066, they were defeated and killed by Harold at the Battle of Stamford Bridge.

Battle of Hastings

The deaths of Tostig and Hardrada at Stamford left William as Harold's only serious opponent. While Harold and his forces were recovering from Stamford, William landed his invasion forces in the south of England at Pevensey on 28 September 1066 and established a beachhead for his conquest of the kingdom. Harold was forced to march south swiftly, gathering forces as he went.

Harold's army confronted William's invaders on 14 October at the Battle of Hastings. The exact numbers present at the battle are unknown; estimates are around 10,000 for William and about 7,000 for Harold. The composition of the forces is clearer; the English army was composed almost entirely of infantry and had few archers, whereas only about half of the invading force was infantry, the rest split equally between cavalry and archers. Harold appears to have tried to surprise William, but scouts found his army and reported its arrival to William, who marched from Hastings to the battlefield to confront Harold. The battle lasted from about 9 am to dusk. Early efforts of the invaders to break the English battle lines had little effect; therefore, the Normans adopted the tactic of pretending to flee in panic and then turning on their pursuers.



FIGURE 5.17

Site of the Battle of Hastings



FIGURE 5.18

William the Conqueror statue at Falaise, France.

Rebellions to William's rule

The lands of the resisting English elite were confiscated; some of the elite fled into exile. To control his new kingdom, William gave lands to his followers and built castles commanding military strongpoints throughout the land. Other effects of the conquest included the court and government, the introduction of Norman French as the language of the elites, and changes in the composition of the upper classes, as William enfeoffed lands to be held directly from the king. More gradual changes affected the agricultural classes and village life: the main change appears to have been the formal elimination of slavery, which may or may not have been linked to the invasion. There was little alteration in the structure of government, as the new Norman administrators took over many of the forms of Anglo-Saxon government.

Bayeux Tapestry

The Bayeux Tapestry is an embroidered cloth, nearly 70 meters (230 ft) long, which depicts the events leading up to the Norman conquest of England concerning William, Duke of Normandy, and Harold, Earl of Wessex, later King of England, and culminating in the Battle of Hastings.

In a series of pictures supported by a written commentary the tapestry tells the story of the events of 1064–1066 with the two main protagonists Harold II and William the Conqueror. The identity of Harold II of England in the panel depicting his death is disputed. Some recent historians disagree with the traditional view that Harold II is the figure struck in the eye with an arrow.



FIGURE 5.19

The tapestry depicts the loss of the Anglo-Saxon troops to the Norman forces. Here, a figure some think to be Harold Godwinson is shown falling at the Battle of Hastings. Harold is shown with an arrow to the eye.

Feudalism

Feudalism was a set of legal and military customs in medieval Europe that flourished between the 9th and 15th centuries and can be broadly defined as a system for structuring society around relationships derived from the holding of land in exchange for service or labour.

Feudalism as practiced in England was a state of human society which was formally structured and stratified on the basis of land tenure. Society was ordered around relationships derived from the holding of land known as fiefdoms or fiefs.

Structure of the Feudal State in England

There were many varieties of feudal land tenure, consisting of military and non-military service. It is important to note that the King was the absolute 'owner' of land in the **feudal system** and all nobles, knights and other tenants, termed vassals, merely 'held' land from the king, who was thus at the top of the feudal pyramid.

Below the king in the feudal pyramid was a tenant-in-chief (generally in the form of a baron or knight) who was a vassal of the king. Holding from the tenant-in-chief was a **mesne tenant** – generally a knight, sometimes a baron, or a tenant-in-chief in their capacity as holders of other fiefs. Below the mesne tenant further mesne tenants could hold from each other in series. The obligations and corresponding rights between lord and vassal concerning the fief form the basis of the feudal relationship.

Vassalage

Before a lord could grant land (a fief) to a tenant, he had to make that person a vassal. This was done at a formal and symbolic ceremony. The ceremony was called a commendation ceremony, and was composed of the two-part act of **homage** and oath of **fealty** (allegiance). During homage, the lord and vassal entered a contract in which the vassal agreed to provide military support and protection and promised to fight for the lord at his command. In exchange, the lord typically granted privileges such as land, which was held as a fiefdom and agreed to protect the vassal from external forces, a valuable right in a society without police and with only a rudimentary justice system.

Some historians argue against the concept of feudalism entirely. What can be said for sure is that it was a much more rural society where smaller kingdoms tried to create order from a world devoid of the Roman imperial tradition that had preceded it. Two strong forces held sway - royalty and the Catholic Church. As the Roman Empire split and the church followed, Western Europe was more rural, decentralized, and without consistent imperial rule. The church was the most powerful aspect of most people's lives. This fragmented and decentralized Western Europe leads to a highly competitive **city-state** model that propels Europe forward after the year 1000. At first this was a slow and gradual process that picked up speed and led to a new blended civilization in Western Europe. Byzantium, on the other hand, slowly declined as Western Europe competitively used innovation and new technologies to gain power.

Manorialism

Manorialism was an essential element of feudal society and was the organizing principle of rural economy that originated in the villa system of the Late Roman Empire. Manorialism was widely practiced in medieval western and parts of central Europe, and was slowly replaced by the advent of a money-based market economy and new forms of **agrarian** contract.

Manorialism was characterized by the vesting of legal and economic power in a Lord of the Manor. The Lord was supported economically from his own direct landholding in a manor (sometimes called a fief), and from the obligatory contributions of the peasant population who fell under the jurisdiction of the Lord and his court. These obligations could be payable in several ways, in labor, in kind, or, on rare occasions, in coin.

Serfdom

Serfdom was the status of peasants under feudalism, specifically relating to manorialism. It was a condition of bondage which developed primarily during the Middle Ages in Europe.

Serfs who occupied a plot of land were required to work for the Lord of the Manor who owned that land, and in return were entitled to protection, justice and the right to exploit certain fields within the manor to maintain their own subsistence. Serfs were often required not only to work on the lord's fields, but also his mines, forests and roads. The manor formed the basic unit of feudal society and the Lord of the Manor and his serfs were bound legally, economically, and socially. Serfs formed the lowest social class of feudal society.

**FIGURE 5.20**

Roland (right) receives the sword, Durandal, from the hands of Charlemagne (left). From a manuscript of a *chanson de geste*, c.14th Century.

Villeins

A villein (or villain) was the most common type of serf in the Middle Ages. Villeins had more rights and higher status than the lowest serf, but existed under a number of legal restrictions that differentiated them from [freemen](#). Villeins generally rented small homes, with or without land. As part of the contract with the landlord, the lord of the manor, they were expected to spend some of their time working on the lord's fields. The requirement often was not greatly onerous, contrary to popular belief, and was often only seasonal, for example the duty to help at harvest-time. The rest of their time was spent farming their own land for their own profit.

Like other types of serfs, they were required to provide other services, possibly in addition to paying rent of money or produce. Villeins were tied to the land and could not move away without their lord's consent and the acceptance of the lord to whose manor they proposed to migrate to. Villeins were generally able to hold their own property, unlike slaves.

Villeinage was not a purely uni-directional exploitative relationship. In the Middle Ages, land within a lord's manor provided sustenance and survival, and being a villein guaranteed access to land, and crops secure from theft by marauding robbers. Landlords, even where legally entitled to do so, rarely evicted villeins because of the value of

their labour. Villeinage was much preferable to being a vagabond, a slave, or an unlanded laborer.

In many medieval countries, a villein could gain freedom by escaping from a manor to a city or borough and living there for more than a year; but this action involved the loss of land rights and agricultural livelihood, a prohibitive price unless the landlord was especially tyrannical or conditions in the village were unusually difficult.

The Manor System

Manors each consisted of up to three classes of land:

- Demesne, the part directly controlled by the lord and used for the benefit of his household and dependents;
- Dependent (serf or villein) holdings carrying the obligation that the peasant household supply the lord with specified labour services or a part of its output;
- Free peasant land, without such obligation but otherwise subject to manorial jurisdiction and custom, and owing money rent fixed at the time of the lease.

Additional sources of income for the lord included charges for use of his mill, bakery or wine-press, or for the right to hunt or to let pigs feed in his woodland, as well as court revenues and single payments on each change of tenant. On the other side of the account, manorial administration involved significant expenses, perhaps a reason why smaller manors tended to rely less on villein tenure.

Videos

(ISN) Interactive Student Notebook assignments

(ISN) Discussion and Study Questions

(ISN) Tech Activities

Vocabulary

[Quizlet Flashcard Vocabulary for Feudalism, Manorialism and the High Middle Ages](#)

TABLE 5.4:

Feudalism	A political system in which nobles are granted the use of lands that legally belong to their king, in exchange for their loyalty, military service, and protection of the people who live on the land.
Guilds	Medieval associations of people working at the same occupation that controlled its members' wages and prices.
Knights	In medieval Europe, armored warriors who fought on horseback.
Lords	In medieval Europe, persons who controlled land and could therefore grant estates (fiefs) to vassals.
Manor	The lord's estate in feudal Europe.
Manorialism	The organizing principle of the rural economy that was widely practiced in medieval Europe. In feudal Europe, the manor was the lord's estate.
Serfs	Medieval peasants legally bound to live and labor on a lord's estate.

TABLE 5.4: (continued)

Three-field system	A system of farming developed in medieval Europe, in which farmland was divided into three fields of equal size and each of these was successively planted with a winter crop, planted with a spring crop, and left unplanted (lay fallow).
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CHAPTER

6

Chapter Five: Islamic World and Africa

Chapter Outline

6.1 THE BIRTH AND FUNDAMENTALS OF ISLAM**6.2 ISLAMIC EMPIRES AND EXPANSION****6.3 THE KINGDOMS OF AFRICA****6.4 REFERENCES**

The Birth of Islam

The cities of Mecca and Medina coupled by Bedouin traditions and society provided the background that Islam would grow and flourish in. Struggle and conflict were constant. Social and political change were inevitable as the collapse of Classical Rome and the Persian Empires created an opportunity for something or someone new to surface. The prophet Mohammed through revelations from Allah wrote the Quran and the new faith of Islam would arise. He united the Arab peninsula and created a structure that would be adopted by follow on empires and eventually spread to Africa, modern day Spain, and India.

Islam's Influence

Islam provided social structure and legal ideas for the people of Mecca and Medina often appealing to the lower caste in its ideas of equality. Its influence would reach Middle East and act as the backbone for its political structures. The merchant will play a crucial role in its spread as the Quran provides structure in negotiating trade.

Islam's Great Schism

Conflict arose out of the dispute of who would succeed Mohammed which led to the Sunni and Shi'ite conflict. This conflict broke along ethnic lines of Arab an non-Arab views. Sunni's proposed a more democratic election of a caliph where the Shi'ite preferred Ali an heir of Mohammed's family. The struggle and difference continues to the day.

Islamic Empires

Beginning with Mohammed the first Islamic empire was established. On his death the caliph a theocratic ruler was chosen to lead the new Islamic Empire. Wealth and excise lead to their fall. The Umayyad empire through conquest would grow the Islamic empire to its greatest extent until the advent of the Turkish empires. Their rule is shortened by the Abbasid empire strongly influenced Persians and allied with non-Arab Muslims. It is under the Abbasid empire that Islamic cultures blossoms and innovation through the adaptation Hellenistic culture (Greek, Arab, Persian, and Indian cultures) grows. New cultural and commercial centers pop-up that were the envy of Eurasia.

Kingdom's of Africa

Primarily Africa was a land of villages and pastoral people. The Bantu's and the Nok culture provided the foundational structure that would eventually spread to the rest of Africa. Nok culture developed iron making and was the first civilization of West Africa. Bantu's were a stateless society of pastoral and slash and burn farmers. Often, Bantu's are created with spreading language and iron making throughout Afirca. Mali and Songhai are two Empires that will come to power. It is here when Islam through Trans-Saharan Trade Route blended with African cultures.

6.1 The Birth and Fundamentals of Islam

5.1 Birth and Fundamentals of Islam

Student Learning Objectives

At the end of this section the student will be able to

- describe the historical origins, central ideas, and spread of major religious and philosophical traditions, including Buddhism, Christianity, Confucianism, Hinduism, Islam, Judaism, Sikhism, and the development of monotheism.[WHS.23A]
- identify examples of religious influence on various events referenced in the major eras of world history.[WHS.23B]
- analyze information by sequencing, categorizing, identifying cause-and-effect relationships, comparing, contrasting, finding the main idea, summarizing, making generalizations and predictions, drawing inferences and conclusions, and developing connections between historical events over time.[WHS.29F]
- use social studies terminology correctly.[WHS.30A]
- use standard grammar, spelling, sentence structure, and punctuation.[WHS.30B]
- interpret and create written, oral, and visual presentations of social studies information.[WHS.30C]
- transfer information from one medium to another.[WHS.30D]

Muhammad and the Faith of Islam



FIGURE 6.1

The Messenger of Allah courtesy Muslim Students Association, University of Southern California This verse from the Qur'an, originally written in Arabic, translates "Muhammad is the Messenger of Allah" (Qur'an 48:29)

A man meditating alone in a cave near Mecca received a religious vision. This vision laid the foundations for a new religion. The year was 610 and the man's name was Muhammad. The belief system that arose from Muhammad's ideas became the basis of one of the world's most widely practiced religions: Islam.

Muhammad was born around 570 in the city of Mecca, located on the Arabian Peninsula. Both of his parents died before Muhammad was six and he was raised by his grandfather and uncle. His family belonged to a poor clan that was active in Mecca politics.

Following the traditions of wealthy families, he spent part of his childhood living with a Bedouin family. Bedouins led fairly isolated lives as nomadic herders in the harsh Arabian desert. Muhammad's experiences among these people most likely had a strong influence on the development of Islam.

In his twenties, Muhammad began working as a merchant and soon married his employer, a rich woman named Khadijah. Over the next 20 years he became a wealthy and respected trader, traveling throughout the Middle East. He and his wife had six children — two boys (who did not live into adulthood) and four girls. By the time he was 40, he began having religious visions that would change his life.

A Revelation of Faith



FIGURE 6.2

This is prophet Muhammad's mosque in Medina.

While meditating in a cave on Mount Hira, Muhammad had a revelation. He came to believe that he was called on by God to be a prophet and teacher of a new faith, Islam, which means literally "submission."

This new faith incorporated aspects of Judaism and Christianity. It respected the holy books of these religions and its great leaders and prophets — Abraham, Moses, Jesus, and others. Muhammad called Abraham "Khalil" ("God's friend") and identified him as Islam's ancient patriarch. Islam traces its heritage through Abraham's son Ishmael. Muhammad believed that he himself was God's final prophet.

The 5 Pillars of Islam

Central to Islamic beliefs are the Five Pillars of Faith, which all followers of Islam — called Muslims — must follow::

1. Testament of Faith: There is only one universal God:
2. Followers of Islam (Muslims) are expected to pray five times each day while facing Mecca.
3. All Muslims are expected to pay a yearly tax that is mostly intended to help the poor and needy.
4. For the entire month of Ramadan, Muslims must not eat, smoke, drink, or have sexual relations from sunrise to sunset.
5. All able Muslims must make a pilgrimage (hajj) to Mecca at least once in their lifetimes.

The Kaaba

Mecca houses Islam's holiest site, the Kaaba, which was believed to have been built for Yahweh by Abraham and his son Ishmael.

From Mecca to Medina and Back

Islam spread at almost Internet-like speed, encompassing much of the former territories of the ancient Near East, North Africa, and Spain. Muhammad's message was especially well received by the poor and slaves. But many people were opposed to his message. This opposition only seemed to make him more determined. After years of publicly promoting his ideas, he became so disliked that some began plotting his murder.

In 622, fearing for his life, Muhammad fled to the town of Medina. This flight from Mecca to Medina became known as the Hegira, Arabic for "flight." The Muslim calendar begins on this year.

In Medina, the local people welcomed Muhammad and his followers. There, Muhammad built the first mosque, or Islamic temple, and began to work to separate Islam from Judaism and Christianity, which had originally influenced him.

Whereas his followers had originally prayed while facing toward Jerusalem, he now had them face toward Mecca. Muhammad continued to have revelations from Allah. The ideas from these revelations formed the basis of a poetic text called the Koran, which contains the fundamental ideas of Islam.

Muhammad fought a number of battles against the people of Mecca. In 629, Muhammad returned to Mecca with an army of 1500 converts to Islam and entered the city unopposed and without bloodshed. Before his death two years later, he forcefully converted most of the Arabian Peninsula to his new faith and built a small empire.

Jihad

Belief in jihad is a common thread to many Islamic sects. Although the exact meaning of the Arabic is difficult to express in English, jihad is most accurately translated as "struggle." For most Muslims, jihad is a personal struggle against evil. The holy battles of this spiritual struggle are fought inside Muslims' minds and souls.

Sometimes, the struggle can take the form of a physical war against non-believers. Although this kind of jihad is referred to in English as a "holy war," most Muslims believe there is nothing holy about war and that wars should only be fought against oppressors and aggressors.

A minority of Muslims, however, places great importance on holy war jihads. This minority feels that Muslims must wage war against all nonbelievers. It is this conception of jihad that inspires Islamic extremist terrorism. Unfortunately, due to media coverage, this is the interpretation of jihad that most Westerners are familiar with.

It should be reiterated that mainstream Islam is peaceful and rejects the idea of unprovoked war. Although the concept of jihad is widespread, it has not been accepted by the general Islamic community as one of the Pillars of Islam.

Division with in Islamic Community

Unfortunately, Muhammad had not designated a successor. The struggle over leadership that followed his death has divided Muslims to this day, creating a division in Islam between the Sunnis and Shiites.

Despite these problems, a vast Islamic empire was created over the next 12 centuries that would build a base of worshipers unrivaled by any other religion.



MEDIA

Click image to the left or use the URL below.

URL: <http://www.ck12.org/flx/render/embeddedobject/162842>

Life on the Desert



FIGURE 6.3

Sand dunes in Algeria

Only around 20% of the Sahara looks like this stereotypical desert; the rest is rocky desert or has small amounts of brush. But that 20% is still larger than a quarter of the entire United States.

"There's no place like home." To the Bedouin people, this "home" meant the entire Sahara desert.

Traditional Bedouin are pastoral nomads, or wanderers who travel with herds of domesticated animals. They are constantly on the move, with no permanent camping place. Their staple belongings include camels and tents, and they frown upon agriculture and all types of trades and crafts. Any type of settled life is traditionally considered beneath Bedouin dignity.

While it may seem like the Bedouin lack order, this is far from true. Tribes are the basic unit of their social organization, and though simple, they are highly structured. For wandering purposes, tribes break into smaller clans and family units. Traveling and exploiting the land is much more efficient this way.

Most of what is known about the Bedouin today involves Middle Eastern tribes and lands, but it is important to recognize that much of Bedouin history also took place in northern Africa. In fact, the Sahara was one of the first Bedouin territories.

The early Bedouin left behind much more than a good story. They left the ideals of strength and endurance that have

allowed their culture and peoples to survive today. Modern Bedouin tribes have been forced over the years to adapt to modern conditions. Gradually they have become more sedentary, but their foundation of pastoral nomadism is still firm and the desert is still the place they call home.

(ISN) Interactive Student Notebook Questions

(ISN) Discussion and Study Questions

(ISN) Tech Activities

Vocabulary

[Quizlet Flashcard for The Birth and Fundamentals of Islam](#)

TABLE 6.1:

Five Pillars of Islam	The five primary obligations of faith that each Muslim must fulfill in his or her lifetime: faith, prayer, charity, fasting and pilgrimage to Mecca.
Islam	"submission to Allah" - a monotheistic religion based upon the teachings of the prophet Mohammed and articulated by the Arabic Quran.
Quran (or Koran)	"the recitation" - the central religious text of Islam, considered the verbatim word of God (Allah) as revealed to Muhammad through the angel Gabriel.
Arabian Peninsula	The world's largest peninsula located in far southwest Asia and north-east of Africa. Islam would be born here. The area currently plays a critical geopolitical role due to its vast reserves of oil and natural gas.
Bedouin Societies	Nomadic, desert dwelling tribes found in Arabia and other areas of the Middle East. The religion of Islam would originate among them.
Mohammed	The founding prophet of Islam who united most of the Arab tribes into a single religious political force.

Internet Resources

worldhistoryforusall.sdsu is collection of world history assignment broken into Big Eras. The link takes you to a PDF that provides a thorough explanation of Islamic beliefs

6.2 Islamic Empires and Expansion

5.2 Islamic Empires and Expansion

Student Learning Objectives

At the end of this section the student will be able to

- identify major causes and describe the major effects of the following important turning points in world history from 600 to 1450: the spread of Christianity, the decline of Rome and the formation of medieval Europe; the development of Islamic caliphates and their impact on Asia, Africa, and Europe; the Mongol invasions and their impact on Europe, China, India, and Southwest Asia.[WHS.1C]
- explain the political, economic, and social impact of Islam on Europe, Asia, and Africa.[WHS.4D]
- describe the interactions among Muslim, Christian, and Jewish societies in Europe, Asia, and North Africa.[WHS.4E]
- identify examples of religious influence on various events referenced in the major eras of world history.[WHS.23B]
- describe the changing roles of women, children, and families during major eras of world history.[WHS.24A]
- explain how Islam influences law and government in the Muslim world.[WHS.25D]
- identify the origin and diffusion of major ideas in mathematics, science, and technology that occurred in river valley civilizations, classical Greece and Rome, classical India, and the Islamic caliphates between 700 and 1200 and in China from the Tang to Ming dynasties.[WHS.27A]
- analyze information by sequencing, categorizing, identifying cause-and-effect relationships, comparing, contrasting, finding the main idea, summarizing, making generalizations and predictions, drawing inferences and conclusions, and developing connections between historical events over time.[WHS.29F]
- use social studies terminology correctly.[WHS.30A]
- use standard grammar, spelling, sentence structure, and punctuation.[WHS.30B]
- interpret and create written, oral, and visual presentations of social studies information.[WHS.30C]

Islamic Empire Begins: 7th century Arabia

In Medina, Muhammad steadily acquires a stronger following. He is now essentially a religious, political and even military leader rather than a merchant (Khadija has died in 619). Unfortunately, he did not address the issue of heir to his throne. However, he ended the succession of prophets with the “seal of prophets”. What then will the future rulers of the region rule? Will they still be theocratic? The answer to these questions caused the biggest split in how Islam and the regions it dominates are practiced today.

Muhammad and the caliphate: from 632-656

There is no clear successor to Muhammad among his followers. The likely candidates include Abu Bakr (the father of Muhammad’s wife A’isha) and Ali (a cousin of Muhammad and the husband of Muhammad’s daughter Fatima). Abu Bakr is elected, and takes the title ‘khalifat rasul-Allah’.

The Arabic phrase means ‘successor of the Messenger of God’. It will introduce a new word, caliph, to the other languages of the world.

Abu Bakr, the first caliph, lives no more than two years after the death of Muhammad. Even so, within this brief time Muslim armies have begun their astonishing expansion, subduing the whole of Arabia and striking as far north as Palestine.

Omar (another father-in-law of Muhammad) succeeded Abu Bakr in 634, who in 638 captures Jerusalem. Six years

later Omar is stabbed and killed in the mosque at Medina - for personal reasons, it seems, by a Persian craftsman living in Kufa.

Othman, chosen as the third caliph, is a son-in-law of Muhammad. By the end of his reign, in 656, Arabs have conquered as far afield as north Africa, Turkey and Afghanistan.

Othman, like his predecessor, is assassinated - but this time by rebellious Muslims. They choose Ali, another son-in-law of Muhammad, as the fourth caliph. For the first time within the Muslim community the selected caliph is the choice of just one faction. Ali's caliphate eventually provokes the only major sectarian split in the history of Islam, between Sunni and Shi'a (see The Shi'as).

Ali: 656-661

Raised to the position of caliph by rebels, Ali spends most of his reign in conflict with other Muslims. He wins the first battle, near Basra in 656, against an army fighting in support of Muhammad's widow, A'isha. She is herself in the fray, riding a camel, with the result that the event is remembered as the 'battle of the camel'.

But it is Ali's last success. The governor of Syria, Mu'awiya, wages a prolonged campaign against him to avenge the murder of the caliph Othman, his kinsman. Other opponents succeed in assassinating Ali, in 661, outside the mosque in Kufa - a Muslim garrison town to which he has moved the capital from Medina.

The Umayyad caliphate:661-750

Mu'awiya, the leader of the struggle against Ali and his supporters, establishes himself after Ali's death in 661 as the undisputed caliph. His power base has been Syria. Damascus now becomes the capital of the first Muslim dynasty and the center of the new Arab empire.

Mu'awiya is a member of one of the most prominent families of Mecca, the Umayyad. Against considerable opposition he establishes a new principle - that the role of caliph shall be hereditary rather than elected. For the next century and more it is passed on within his family. The Umayyad dynasty will rule from Damascus until 750 and then will establish another kingdom at Cordoba, in Spain.

The Shi'as: from the 7th century

After the death of Ali, opponents of the new Umayyad dynasty promote the claims of Ali's two sons, Hasan and Husayn (grandsons of Muhammad). Their party becomes known as Shi'at Ali (the 'party of Ali'). The political cause crumbles after the death of the brothers (Hasan dies in about 669 and Husayn, subsequently the most holy of Shi'ite martyrs, is killed in the battle of Karbala in 680). But their faction has from now on a lasting religious disagreement with the Islam of the caliphs.

The main group under the caliphate becomes known as Sunni (those following Sunna, the orthodox rule) and the new schismatic sect acquires the name of Shi'as or Shi'ites, from the original name of their party.

Sufis: from the 8th century

As early as the 8th century, a reaction sets in against the worldly interests resulting from the rapid rise of the caliphate to the status of a great temporal power. Devout Muslims struggle to retain the purity and mystical fervor of the early years of their religion. Insisting on a simple life, like the desert fathers of early Christianity, they are recognizable by their choice of plain woolen garments.

The Arabic for someone wearing wool is sufi. This name becomes attached, in later centuries, to any Muslim inclined to the mysticism which has always been part of Islam.

There have been, and still are today, many different Sufi sects. They often begin as the followers of one particular holy man, and pilgrimage to the tomb of a saint has been an important part of Sufi devotion. So has the use by ascetic Sufis (or dervishes) of repetitive phrases and actions, conducive to mystical experience. A well-known but extreme example is the whirling of the so-called dancing dervishes, a Sufi sect founded in the 13th century by the Persian

mystical poet Jalal-ud-din Rumi.

But Sufism is a form of religious experience and commitment open to any Muslim, without membership of a particular sect. In keeping with its name, it runs through Islam like a thread within a woolen garment.

Arabs and Muslims: 8th century

During the explosive first century of Arab expansion, the relationship subtly changes between two concepts - Arab and Muslim. At first they are inseparable. The Muslim armies are made up entirely of Arab tribesmen, and it is taken for granted that only Arabs can be Muslims. Between campaigns the Arab armies stay together in winter camps or garrison towns. They are an occupying force, having little link with the inhabitants of the conquered territories.

But by the early 8th century, when the Muslim expansion has reached something approaching its peak, there are not enough Arabs to provide the troops.

Out of necessity, people of other groups begin to be received into Islam, fighting alongside the Arabs. Berbers do so in the west, and Persians in the east. Inevitably there are resentments. Non-Arabs often feel they are treated as second-class Muslims, particularly when it comes to sharing out loot after a campaign. And the conversion of outsiders to Islam brings a financial burden. Non-Muslims are charged a poll tax, which is not paid by believers. The spread of the faith is a drain on the treasury.

These various tensions, and the inevitable difficulty of controlling the vast new empire, result in a rebellion in 747 against the Umayyad caliph.

The Abbasid caliphate: from 750

Persia is the region in which resistance comes to a head against the caliphate of the Umayyads in Damascus. The uprising is partly a simple struggle between Arab factions, each of impeccable pedigree in relation to the pioneers of Islam. A revolt in Persia in 747 is headed by descendants of al-Abbas, an uncle of the prophet Muhammad. Their new caliphate, established in 750, will be known as Abbasid.

The involvement of Persia is also significant. The Umayyad caliphate in Damascus derives from the early days of Islam when all Muslims are Arabs. But many Muslims in the east are now Persian, and Persian sophistication is beginning to divert Muslim culture from its simple Arab origins.

Abbasid forces reach and capture Damascus in 750. Abul Abbas is proclaimed the first caliph of a new line. Male members of the Umayyad family are hunted down and killed (though one survives to establish a new Umayyad dynasty in Spain).

The center of gravity of the Muslim world now moves east, from Syria to Mesopotamia. In 762 a new capital city, Baghdad, is founded on the Tigris. It is about twenty miles upstream from Ctesiphon, one of the leading cities of the preceding Persian dynasty, the Sassanians.

Baghdad: 8th century

In their new city of Baghdad the Abbasid caliphs adopt the administrative system of the long-established Persian empire. Persian Muslims are as much involved in the life of this thriving place as Arab Muslims. Here Islam outgrows its Arab roots and becomes an international religion. Here the Arabic and early Persian languages coalesce to become, from the 10th century, what is now known as Persian - combining words from both sources and using the Arabic script. Here Mesopotamia briefly recovers its ancient status at the center of one of the world's largest empires.

At no time is this more evident than in the reign of the best-known of the Abbasid caliphs, Harun al-Rashid.

The luxury and delight of Harun al-Rashid's Baghdad, in the late 8th century, has been impressed on the western mind by one of the most famous works of Arabic literature - the *Thousand and One Nights*. Some of the stories are of a later date, but there are details in them which certainly relate to this period when for the first time a Muslim

court has the leisure and prosperity to indulge in traditional oriental splendor.

The caliphate is now at its widest extent, with reasonable calm on most borders. The international fame of Harun himself can be judged by the emphasis of Charlemagne's biographers on the mutual esteem of these two contemporary potentates, who send each other Rich gifts.

Islam and other religions: from the 7th century

Muslims are instructed in the Qur'an to be tolerant of the two older and closely related religions, Judaism and Christianity, which share with Islam the essential characteristics of monotheism and a sacred book; they are all linked in the phrase 'people of the book'. Jews and Christians have therefore, through most of history, fared better under Islam than has been the fate of Jews or Muslims in Christian countries.

Zoroastrianism does not feature in the Qur'an. But it also has one god and a sacred book. The Muslim conquerors of Persia therefore show a degree of tolerance to the state religion of the previous dynasty.

Arab civilization: from the 8th century

By the end of the 8th century a distinctive Arab civilization is emerging in widely separated regions. It is evident from the 8th century in Baghdad in the east and in Cordoba in the west. By the 10th century, between the two, there is a similar center in the new city of Cairo.

The shared characteristics of these great cities are Islam, the Arabic language and a tolerance which allows Christians and Jews to play a full part in the community. The results include an expansion of trade (making these places the most prosperous of their time, apart from T'ang China), and a level of scholarship and intellectual energy superior to contemporary Christian cities.

Together with the spread of Islam, a lasting result of the events of the 7th century is the triumph of Arabic as a language in the Middle East and North Africa. In Palestine and Syria it gradually replaces Aramaic as the popular tongue; in Egypt it does the same with Coptic; further west along the North African coast, it edges the language of the Berbers into a minority status.

The sense of identity of Arabs in subsequent centuries does not necessarily involve descent from the tribes of Arabia. It depends instead on the sharing of Arabic as both language and culture (implying also in most cases a commitment to Islam). It is this which provides the strong Arabic element in the civilization of the Middle Ages, from Mesopotamia to Spain.

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Vocabulary

Quizlet Flashcard for Early Islamic Empires

TABLE 6.2:

Abbasid Dynasty	A dynasty centered in Baghdad that emerged after the collapse of the Umayyad caliphate in the 8th century. Founded by the descendants of Muhammad's uncle, it ruled much of the Muslim empire and flourished for two centuries, but slowly went into decline with the rise to power of the Turkish army it had created, the Mamelukes.
Caliphate	The office or jurisdiction of a caliph who, claiming to be a successor to Muhammad, is regarded as the supreme political and religious leader of Islam.
Crusades	Expeditions lasting from 1095 to 1272 in which medieval Christian warriors sought to recover control of the Holy Land from the Muslims.
Saladin	A Kurdish Muslim Sultan who led Muslim armies against the European Crusaders, eventually paving the way for the recapture of Palestine. He was noted, even amongst Christian Crusaders, for his noble and chivalrous behavior.
Seljuk Turks	A tribe originally from central Asia who, after converting to Islam, captured Bagdad from Persian control. They occupied most of Anatolia and would continue to threaten Christian Byzantium.
Sunni / Shiite Muslims	The two major branches of Islam that developed in the 7th century during Umayyad rule.
Umayyad Dynasty	A Muslim dynasty centered in Damascus that ruled much of Islam in the 7th and 8th centuries following the murder of the fourth Caliph, Ali. Also established a Muslim Caliphate in Spain.

Internet Resources

Student Learning Objectives

At the end of this section the student will be able to

- identify major causes and describe the major effects of the following important turning points in world history from 600 to 1450: the spread of Christianity, the decline of Rome and the formation of medieval Europe; the development of Islamic caliphates and their impact on Asia, Africa, and Europe; the Mongol invasions and their impact on Europe, China, India, and Southwest Asia.[WHS.1C]
- explain the political, economic, and social impact of Islam on Europe, Asia, and Africa.[WHS.4D]
- describe the interactions among Muslim, Christian, and Jewish societies in Europe, Asia, and North Africa.[WHS.4E]
- identify examples of religious influence on various events referenced in the major eras of world history.[WHS.23B]
- describe the changing roles of women, children, and families during major eras of world history.[WHS.24A]
- explain how Islam influences law and government in the Muslim world.[WHS.25D]
- identify the origin and diffusion of major ideas in mathematics, science, and technology that occurred in river valley civilizations, classical Greece and Rome, classical India, and the Islamic caliphates between 700 and 1200 and in China from the Tang to Ming dynasties.[WHS.27A]
- analyze information by sequencing, categorizing, identifying cause-and-effect relationships, comparing, contrasting, finding the main idea, summarizing, making generalizations and predictions, drawing inferences and conclusions, and developing connections between historical events over time.[WHS.29F]

- use social studies terminology correctly.[WHS.30A]
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Baghdad: 8th century

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Arab civilization: from the 8th century

By the end of the 8th century a distinctive Arab civilization is emerging in widely separated regions. It is evident from the 8th century in Baghdad in the east and in Cordoba in the west. By the 10th century, between the two, there is a similar center in the new city of Cairo.

The shared characteristics of these great cities are Islam, the Arabic language and a tolerance which allows Christians and Jews to play a full part in the community. The results include an expansion of trade (making these places the most prosperous of their time, apart from T'ang China), and a level of scholarship and intellectual energy superior to contemporary Christian cities.

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Vocabulary

6.3 The Kingdoms of Africa

5.3 The Kingdoms of Africa

Student Learning Objectives

- identify major causes and describe the major effects of the following important turning points in world history from 600 to 1450: the spread of Christianity, the decline of Rome and the formation of medieval Europe; the development of Islamic caliphates and their impact on Asia, Africa, and Europe; the Mongol invasions and their impact on Europe, China, India, and Southwest Asia.[WHS.1C]
- explain the political, economic, and social impact of Islam on Europe, Asia, and Africa.[WHS.4D]
- analyze how the Silk Road and the African gold-salt trade facilitated the spread of ideas and trade.[WHS.4J]
- explain the development of the slave trade.[WHS.4I]
- identify examples of religious influence on various events referenced in the major eras of world history.[WHS.23B]
- describe the changing roles of women, children, and families during major eras of world history.[WHS.24A]
- analyze information by sequencing, categorizing, identifying cause-and-effect relationships, comparing, contrasting, finding the main idea, summarizing, making generalizations and predictions, drawing inferences and conclusions, and developing connections between historical events over time.[WHS.29F]
- use social studies terminology correctly.[WHS.30A]
- use standard grammar, spelling, sentence structure, and punctuation.[WHS.30B]
- interpret and create written, oral, and visual presentations of social studies information.[WHS.30C]
- transfer information from one medium to another.[WHS.30D]

Nok Culture

The Nok culture appeared in Nigeria around 1000 B.C. and mysteriously vanished around 500 AD in the region of West Africa. This region lies in Central Nigeria. The culture's social system is thought to have been highly advanced. The Nok culture was considered to be the earliest sub-Saharan producer of life-sized Terracotta. It is suggested that the society eventually evolved into the later Yoruba Kingdom of Ife.

According, to some accounts, based on artistic similarities to both early Yoruba art forms and Nok forms, there may be connections between them and the contemporary Yoruba people. Later brass and terracotta sculptures of the Ife and Benin cultures show significant similarities with those found at Nok. Iron use, in smelting and forging for tools, appears in Nok culture in Africa at least by 550 BC and more probably in the middle of the second millennium BC.

Bantu Migrations

The Africans who will eventually dominate most of sub-Saharan Africa are tribes from the north speaking Bantu languages. The Bantu languages probably derive from the region of modern Nigeria and Cameroon. This western area, bordering the Gulf of Guinea, is also the cradle of other early developments in African history. **Iron** smelting is known here, as in other sites in a strip below the Sahara, by the middle of the 1st millennium BC. And the fascinating but still mysterious Nok culture, lasting from the 5th century BC to the 2nd century AD, provides magnificent pottery figures which stand at the beginning of a recognizably African sculptural tradition. Probably during the first millennium BC, tribes speaking **Bantu languages** begin to move south. They gradually push ahead of them the Khoisan, in a process which will eventually make the Bantu masters of nearly all the southern part of the continent.

The Bantu expansion was a long series of physical migrations, a diffusion of language and knowledge out into and in

**FIGURE 6.4**

Character lying one's chin on one's knee.
Nok sculpture. Terracotta, 6th century
BC–6th century CE, Nigeria

from neighboring populations, and a creation of new societal groups involving inter-marriage among communities and small groups moving to communities and small groups moving to new areas.

After their movements from their original homeland in West Africa, Bantus also encountered in East Africa peoples of Afro-Asiatic origin. As cattle terminology in use amongst the few modern Bantu pastoralist groups suggests, the Bantu migrants would acquire cattle from their new neighbors. Linguistic evidence also indicates that Bantus likely borrowed the custom of milking cattle.

Kingdom of Ghana

Between the 9th and 11th centuries C.E., the kingdom of Ghana was so rich that its dogs wore golden collars, and its horses, which were adorned with silken rope halters, slept on plush carpets. Based on animal luxuries alone, it is no wonder that foreigners touted Ghana's kings as the richest men in the world. Certainly they were living the high life ... but how did they do it?

Located within the present-day borders of Mauritania, Mali, and Senegal, medieval Ghana literally sat on a gold

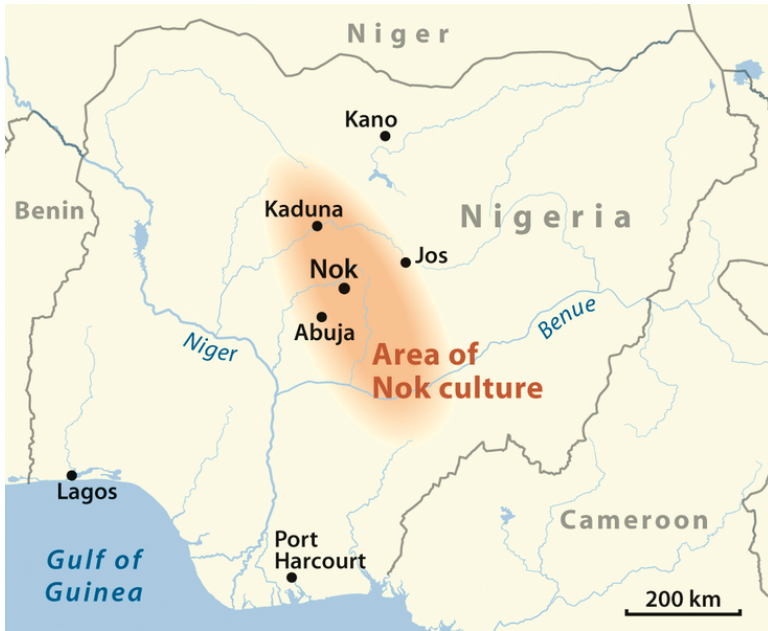


FIGURE 6.5
Area of the Nok culture



FIGURE 6.6

mine. The land's abundance of resources allowed Ghana's rulers to engage in years of prosperous trading. Strategic governing coupled with great location led to the rapid emergence of a very wealthy empire.

Most of what we know about ancient Ghana — which is more accurately called Wagadugu — is based on writings of Arab travelers who came in contact with the nation's peoples. "Ghana" was actually the title given to Wagadugu

**FIGURE 6.7**

Penny Tweedie/Oxfam Traditions more than 1,000 years old still thrive in Ghana. Ghanaian boys are perfectly at home with traditional masks.

kings and was used by the Islamic "reporters" to describe the rich and mysterious place they observed.

Evidence of Ghana's occupation dates back to the 4th century, but it was several hundred years later that it became established as a nation by a tribe known as the Soninke, whose leaders have been credited with the early strengthening of the Wagadugu state and the expansion of its territories.

By 1000 B.C.E., the nation had undergone strategic expansion and taken control of a large pocket of land between the upper Niger and Senegal Rivers. The region was rich in gold, and its acquisition meant that Ghana would become a leading force in the trans-Saharan trade network.

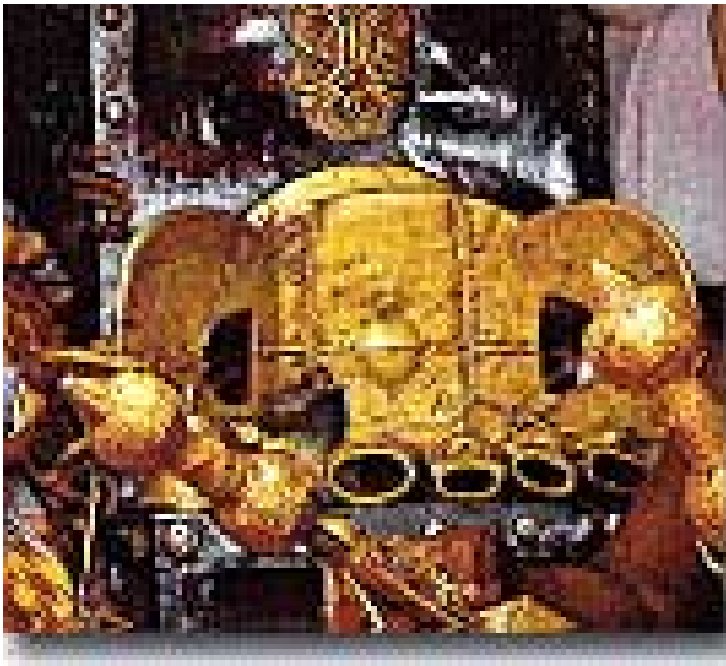
Ghana Politics

The leader of all leaders was the king, who was also known as the *ghana*, or war chief. His word was law. He served as the commander in chief of a highly organized army, the controller of all trade activities, and the head administrator of justice. Mayors, civil servants, counselors, and ministers were appointed by the king to assist with administrative duties — but at all times, the king was in charge.

Each day, the king assembled his court and allowed people to publicly voice their complaints. Beating drums that resounded throughout the area signaled the courts assemblage and people gathered to speak their minds. Whether they were neighborly conflicts, or cases of violated rights, the king listened to the complaints and gave his judgment.

Such hearings were reportedly peaceful, unless they involved issues of criminal nature. Two of the most serious criminal offenses were the denial of debt and the shedding of blood. These crimes were tried by ordeal.

According to Islamic reports, the criminally accused was given a foul concoction to drink that consisted of sour and bitter-tasting wood and water. If he vomited after tossing back the nasty brew he was declared innocent and was congratulated for passing the test. If he did not vomit, and the beverage remained within, he was considered guilty as charged and suffered the king's wrath.

**FIGURE 6.8**

The golden stool of the Ashanti kings of Ghana, a symbol of their power, has not been seen by the general public for 300 years. Its location is kept secret, and a replica is used for public display.

Ghanaian citizens were not the only ones put to the king's test. Inhabitants of its conquered lands were examined for their good behavior and loyalty as well. In territories where order and obedience prevailed, and taxes were properly paid, autonomy was granted. But in areas which struggled for independence or defied the king's laws, Ghanaian governors were appointed as watchdogs and little went unreported to the king.

Trans-Saharan Trade

When the king was not busy enforcing his power among the people, he was spreading it internationally through trade. At its peak, Ghana was chiefly bartering gold, ivory, and slaves for salt from Arabs and horses, cloth, swords, and books from North Africans and Europeans.

Life on the Desert

"There's no place like home." To the Bedouin people, this "home" meant the entire Sahara desert.

Traditional Bedouin are pastoral nomads, or wanderers who travel with herds of domesticated animals. They are constantly on the move, with no permanent camping place. Their staple belongings include camels and tents, and they frown upon agriculture and all types of trades and crafts. Any type of settled life is traditionally considered beneath Bedouin dignity.

While it may seem like the Bedouin lack order, this is far from true. Tribes are the basic unit of their social organization, and though simple, they are highly structured. For wandering purposes, tribes break into smaller clans and family units. Traveling and exploiting the land is much more efficient this way.

As salt was worth its weight in gold, and gold was so abundant in the kingdom, Ghana achieved much of its wealth through trade with the Arabs. Islamic merchants traveled over two months through the desert to reach Ghana and "do business." They were taxed for both what they brought in and what they took out.

With this system, it is no wonder that Ghana got rich quickly. The wealth that the kingdom acquired did not, however, serve in its favor forever. Competition from other states in the gold trade eventually took its toll.



FIGURE 6.9

This is a map of the ancient kingdom of Ghana, displaying its location well north of present-day Ghana. Today this area is part of the countries of Mali and Mauritania.

Jealousy, fear, and anger of Ghana's power prompted its neighbors to stand up against the kingdom. Their efforts were at first weak and insignificant, but eventually, in the mid-11th century, a Muslim group known as the Almoravids launched a devastating invasion on the capital city of Koumbi Saleh. Though territories were seized, and a tribute tax was enforced, Ghana recovered and forced the invaders to withdraw.

Islam Comes to Africa - Arabization

The first Arab invasion of North Africa was led by ancestors of the Bedouin and occurred in 643 C.E. At the time of the invasion, northern Africa already had a long history of foreign attack and cultural infusion. The Greeks, Romans, and Phoenicians had previously left their marks, and it was time for the Arab Muslims to do the same.

The division in Islam, led to the invasion of the Bedouin. Around 1040 C.E., a group of Islamicized Berbers who had become affiliated with the Shia decided to take revenge. They neglected lands given to them by their caliph, defied the creeds of the Shia, and launched a rebellion among other Berbers to convert to the Sunni branch.

These events no doubt led to vengeful reactions. The angry Shia caliph invited two tribes of Arabian Bedouin, known collectively as the Hilalians, to travel west and issue the Berbers' punishment.

Africa is the first region into which Islam is carried by merchants rather than armies. It spreads down the well-established trade routes of the east coast, in which the coastal towns of the Red Sea (the very heart of Islam) play a major part. There is archaeological evidence from the 8th century of a tiny wooden mosque, with space enough for about ten worshippers, as far south as modern Kenya - on Shanga, one of the islands offshore from Lamu. Shanga's international links at the time are further demonstrated by surviving fragments of Persian pottery and Chinese stoneware.

By the 11th century, when Islam makes its greatest advances in Africa, several settlements down the east coast have stone mosques. At Kilwa, on the coast of modern Tanzania, a full-scale Muslim dynasty is established at this period. Coins from about 1070 give the name of the local ruler as 'the majestic Sultan Ali bin al-Hasan'.

**FIGURE 6.10**

The traditional desert city is walled for defense, as the flat desert provides no natural barriers. Walls have gates, which are points of access to the city. Here you see that the walls of Marrakech are fortress-like, often 20 to 30 feet thick and 30 to 40 feet high.

Three centuries later the Muslim traveler **Ibn Batuta** finds Kilwa an extremely prosperous sultanate, busy with trade in gold and slaves. In the 20th century Muslims remain either a majority or a significant minority in most regions of the east African coast. But the early penetration of Islam is even more effective down the caravan routes of West Africa.

Islam in West Africa: 8th - 11th century

From the 8th century Islam spreads gradually south in the oases of the **Trans-Saharan trade routes**. By the 10th century many of the merchants at the southern end of the trade routes are Muslims. In the 11th century the rulers begin to be converted.

The first Muslim ruler in the region is the king of **Gao**, from about the year 1000. The ruling classes of other communities follow suit. The king of **Ghana**, the most powerful realm, is one of the last to accept Islam - probably in the 1070's.

The effect of Islam on African communities, with their own strong traditional cultures, is a gradual process. In 1352 **Ibn Batuta** visits **Mali**, the kingdom which in effect replaces Ghana. He is impressed by the people's regularity in saying their prayers, but he looks with stern disapproval at certain practices which are more evidently African. He particularly frowns upon performances by masked dancers, and on the tendency of women to walk about in an unseemly shortage of clothing. Nevertheless the influence of Islam on this part of Africa is profound. From the Sudan to the Atlantic, the entire region north of the equatorial forests remains to this day largely Muslim

Mali a Cultural Center

What would life be like if a magician ruled the land? The history of ancient Mali gives us some hints. The founder of this West African kingdom was well known among his people as a man of magic with more than a few tricks up his sleeve.

Before the sorcerer's reign, and the Malian kingdom's birth, years of competition and fighting took place in the lands west of the upper Niger River. A series of fierce battles took place, and in the 13th century C.E., a group known as the Soso emerged victorious. The Soso's new lands, which had once belonged to the kingdom of Ghana, were like giant pots of gold. But before the Soso could settle in and enjoy the wealth, the great "sorcerer-king" Sundiata

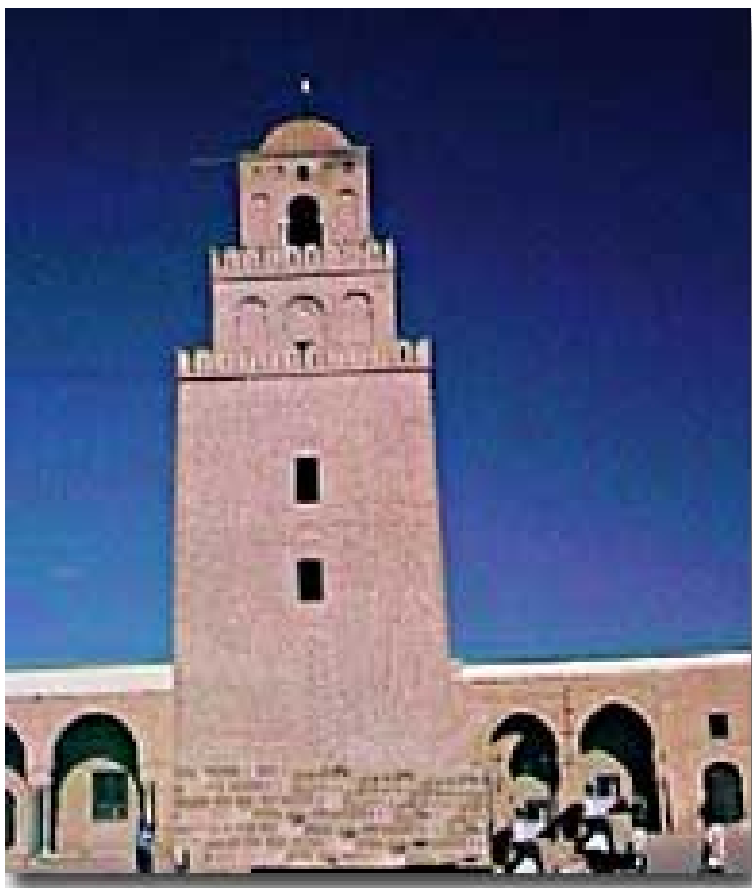


FIGURE 6.11

A view of the minaret of the Great Mosque at Kairouan, Tunisia. Minarets are towers in mosques from which Muslims are called to prayer five times each day. Kairouan is said to be the fourth holiest city in Islam.



FIGURE 6.12

Mansa Musa, greatest king of Mali, is shown on this Spanish map of Africa

moved in to take over.

The Lion King

Sundiata claimed that Mali was his by right of inheritance and in 1230 A.D he defeated the Soso and took back the land. According to legend, Sundiata's rival, King Sumanguru, was also a sorcerer. Sumanguru conjured up the heads of eight spirits for assistance. Sundiata had stronger magic. He defeated the eight heads and then shot an arrow, which grazed Sumanguru's shoulder, draining him of all remaining magic. With a pat on the back, Sundiata declared himself ruler, or *mansa*, of the region and set up capital in the city of Niani.



FIGURE 6.13

The mosque at Timbuktu was the heart of the kingdom of Mali. The empire of Mali expanded after the fall of Ghana, reaching its height under the rule of Kankan Musa (c. 1312-1327 C.E.). Many monumental mosques were constructed during the reign of Mansa Kankan Musa who is still remembered as a great Islamic ruler.

A Golden Pilgrimage

Through involvement in the gold trade that swept through Africa and reached all the way to Europe, Mansa Musa led Mali to great riches. The region's prosperity was nothing new, but based on Egyptian records, Mansa Musa's display and distribution of the wealth was unprecedented.

In 1324, the great Mansa Musa set out on a pilgrimage to Mecca. Decked out in his finest clothes, he passed through Cairo with 500 slaves, each of whom carried a six-pound staff of gold. Backing them up were 100 camels, carrying in sum over 30,000 more pounds of the precious metal.

In Mansa Musa's Hands

Aside from being generous, Mansa Musa made an important mark in Mali by introducing the kingdom to Islam and making it one of the first Muslim states in northern Africa. He incorporated the laws of the Koran into his justice system. Cities such as Timbuktu and Gao were developed into international centers of Islamic learning and culture. Elaborate mosques and libraries were built. The university arose in Timbuktu might well have been the world's first. The cities became meeting places for poets, scholars, and artists.

Though not everyone accepted the new faith and culture, a strong relationship between religion and politics quickly developed. Mansa Kankan Musa ruled with all the ideals of a fine Muslim king. He died in the mid-14th century, and Mali was never quite the same. Internal squabbling between ruling families weakened Mali's governing and its network of states started to unravel. Then, in 1430, a group of Berbers seized much of Mali's territory, including Timbuktu.

Islam in East Africa: 8th - 11th century

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Great Zimbabwe

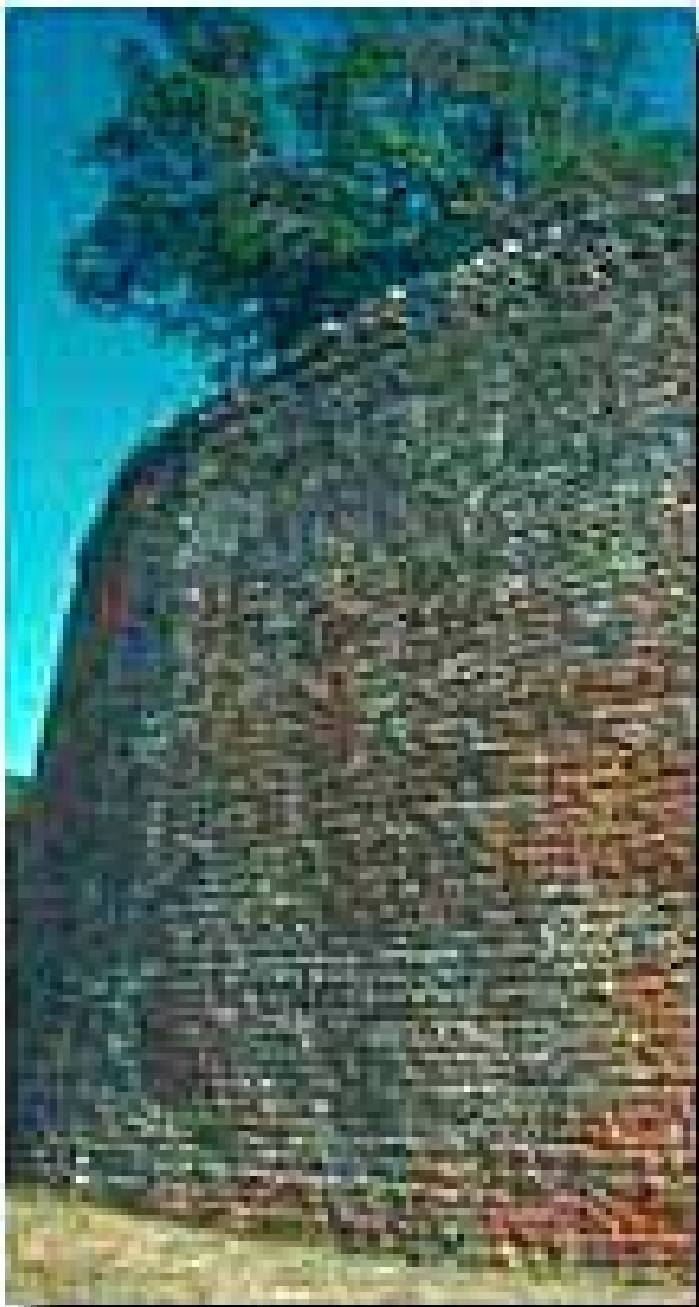
The House of Rock

It's not the name of a dance club or a new band. It's actually a translation of the Shona word, "Zimbabwe." Though not the best illustration of the modern African nation, this phrase is a perfect description of the ancient city within its borders known as Great Zimbabwe. Sixty acres of immense stone ruins comprise the city and tell the story of the people who created and resided in it some 900 years ago.

For a long time, many Westerners argued that such amazing structures could not have been crafted in Africa without European influence or assistance. These notions reflect ethnocentrism, or the tendency to view one's own culture as the best and others as inferior. With the help of modern dating techniques, today's archaeologists have been able to disprove these arguments and expose the truth. Africans, and Africans alone, were responsible for building this astounding and complex city.

Shona Settlement

The first inhabitants of Great Zimbabwe were Shona-speaking peoples who likely settled in the region as early as 400 C.E. Back then, the land was full of possibilities: plains of fertile soil to support farming and herding, and mineral rich territories to provide gold, iron, copper, and tin for trading and crafting. It was fine place for the Shona to call home.

**FIGURE 6.14**

The word "Zimbabwe" is thought to be derived from a Shona phrase meaning "stone enclosure" or "house of rock."

Over the years, descendants of the Shona made transitions from simple farming communities to more complex, stratified societies. By 1000 C.E., the population of Great Zimbabwe was divided and ranked by status — from elite leaders and their cattle to the peasants who did all the work. Cattle were very desirable and actually more valuable than most of the workers.

In response to the changing social, political, and economic landscape, new buildings were gradually built. Tremendous stone houses were constructed by the peasants for their kings. Sophisticated workplaces were designed for conducting trades such as blacksmithing.

The buildings were made of heavy granite blocks, stacked tightly together. Stones were arranged carefully, and no mortar was used to seal them together.

The largest and most impressive building was an elliptical structure known today as the Great or Western Enclosure. The remains of its outer wall measure over 800 feet long and up to 32 feet high. The wall enclosed several huts and a tall, cone-shaped tower. Archaeologists and anthropologists believe that the enclosure was the city's center and was occupied only by the elite. It was the dividing line between the rich and the rest.

Several clues led to this theory. First, remnants of exotic items from overseas were found within the enclosure. Second, no evidence of cooking was found within the walled area. Most likely, this means that food was prepared elsewhere by servants and delivered to the wealthy inhabitants upon demand. And third, evidence of only 100-200 residents is shown, while many thousands occupied the city.

Where did everyone else live? They lived in mud huts surrounding the enclosure. Although the huts were not quite as glamorous as the granite "palaces," they were well constructed.

Long Live Rock

By 1200 C.E., the city had grown strong, and was well known as an important religious and trading center. Some believe that religion triggered the city's rise to power, and that the tall tower was used for worship. The people of Great Zimbabwe most likely worshiped Mwari, the supreme god in the Shona religion.

Discoveries of Chinese porcelain, engraved glass from the Middle East, and metal ornaments from West Africa provide evidence that Great Zimbabwe participated in a comprehensive trade network during the 13th and 14th centuries. Gold was probably its chief export and East African cities — especially those along the coast that had overseas connections — were most likely its primary trading partners.



FIGURE 6.15

Long looted by treasure hunters, thrill-seekers, and lay archaeologists, it has been only in past two decades that the ruins of the stone city of Great Zimbabwe have begun to reveal their secrets of past African culture and history.

Zimbabwe's prosperity continued until the mid-15th century. At this time, the city's trade activity declined and the people began to migrate elsewhere. The exact cause of the evacuation remains a puzzle, but many scientists agree that a decline in soil quality and fertility was probably a major factor. The Kingdom of Great Zimbabwe has declined, but the House of Rock still stands.

Slave Trade

South of the Mediterranean, the dynasties of Arabs along the coast stimulate an African slave trade. The town of Zawila develops in the Sahara in about 700 specifically as a trading station for slaves. Captured in the region around Lake Chad, they are sold to Arab households in a Muslim world which by the 8th century stretches from Spain to Persia.

Slavery is an accepted part of life in Arabia during the time of Muhammad, in the 7th century, and the Qur'an offers no arguments against the practice. It merely states, particularly in relation to female slaves, that they must be well treated. In general that has been the case, compared with the barbaric treatment of slaves in some Christian communities.



FIGURE 6.16

West African slaves were marched to the coast for transport. An estimated 10 to 12 million West Africans were sold into slavery for the Americas and another 12 to 20 million were sent east to Arab lands.

1. Copied content specific questions

(ISN) Discussion and Study Questions

1. Guiding Questions

(ISN) Tech Activities

Technology assignment that makes them do something with a computer

Vocabulary

Quizlet flashcards for Kingdoms of Africa

TABLE 6.3:

TABLE 6.3: (continued)

Battuta, Ibn	A Muslim explorer considered to be one of the greatest travelers of all time. He would travel over 75,000 miles during a 30 year period and visit most of the known Islamic world as well as many non-Muslim lands.
Ghana and Mali	A successive series of prosperous West African kingdoms lasting from A.D. 750 to 1600. Their power was based primarily on the control of trans-Saharan gold-salt trade routes.
Gold-Salt Trade	A trade network centered in the West African kingdoms of Ghana, Mali, and Songhai where people north of the Sahara traded with people south of the Sahara.
Mansa Musa	Muslim ruler of the Mali empire from 1312-1337. During his reign, Timbuktu became a center of Muslim learning and culture. His famous pilgrimage to Mecca in which he gave away gifts of gold are believed to have devalued the gold price for over a decade.
Sahara	The world's largest hot desert, it covers most of Northern Africa and is almost as large as the United States. It would play a critical role throughout history as a challenging geographic barrier between Northern and Sub-Saharan Africa.
Savanna	Regions of sub-Saharan Africa characterized by flat, grass-covered plains, nearly treeless in some places but generally having a mix of widely spaced trees and bushes.
Timbuktu	One of the most important cities and trading centers of the Mali kingdom that attracted scholars from around the known world.

Internet Resources

<http://www.historyworld.net/wrldhis/PlainTextHistories.asp?groupid=513&HistoryID=aa56xtgreater rack=pthc#ixzz3erguyGGD>

- Five Bedouin societies were camel herders/pastoralists. Their migrations through the Silk Road and Trans-Saharan Route helped build a commercial network system that connected Eurasia and Africa. Frequent conflict over water, territory, and trade routes were common.
- Mohammed united the Bedouins and cities of Mecca and Medina under the Quran. Islam is a Universalizing religion that seeks converts on ideas of equality before Allah. Islam's origins began with Abraham and the Persian religion of Zoroastrianism
- Theocratic empires under the rule of a caliph, and the governorship of viziers dominated the Middle East both politically and economically. These empires expanded the ideas of Islam from India to Europe and Africa
- African kingdoms developed out of contact with Muslim merchants. These contacts and the gold and salt trade. Created powerful and wealthy empires in West Africa. Mansa Musa's, a Malian emperor, pilgrimage to Mecca was a hallmark event in their shared history.

6.4 References

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Chapter Six: Post-Classical Asia and Beyond

Chapter Outline

- 7.1 MUSLIM GUNPOWDER EMPIRES**
 - 7.2 CHINESE RENAISSANCE**
 - 7.3 MONGOL EMPIRE (YUAN) TO MING**
 - 7.4 JAPAN REFLECTS CHINESE CULTURE**
 - 7.5 REFERENCES**
-

Post-Classical refers to the years of 600CE to 1450CE, Mediterranean Classical Powerhouse Rome has collapsed and in their crisis grew economic and political opportunity; Arabia of the Middle East which you read about in the previous chapter took the lead and in doing so spread Islam.

Keeping with the region of the Middle East and the Islamic Empires a new champion of Islam from the steppes of Central Asia, the Turkish empires better known as the Muslim Gunpowder Empires will rule the Middle East drive deep into Europe, Africa, and South Asia.

In East Asia the Tang and Song Dynasties of China, have reestablished traditional/classical ways of governing. Buddhism has made its mark on China and its neighbors, rebuilding and rediscovery are fueling a Renaissance that will begin in China and impact all of Eurasia.

Across the Sea of China to Feudalistic Japan and its Shogunate. A new and uniquely independent culture is forming similar to Medieval Europe. Mostly, isolated from outside ideas, many Chinese philosophies and Buddhism and other culturally aspects linger from their initial envoys and times of sharing with China.

Back to China to examine the rise and spread of the Mongol Empire and the return of Classical based Chinese dynasties of the Ming and the Qing. The Mongols were pastoralists from the Central Asian Steppes, that were part of a long history of peaceful trade usually tribute based coupled with raiding of trade routes and siege of major cities. Their empire will stretch from China through the Middle East into Russia. Their fall in China will return Confucianism and the Ming expeditions explore out into the seas and just as the Europeans are about to begin their explorations the Ming and China will isolate itself once again.

7.1 Muslim Gunpowder Empires

6.1 Muslim Gunpowder Empires

Student Learning Objectives

- explain the political, economic, and social impact of Islam on Europe, Asia, and Africa.[WHS.4D]
- describe the interactions among Muslim, Christian, and Jewish societies in Europe, Asia, and North Africa.[WHS.4E]
- describe the interactions between Muslim and Hindu societies in South Asia.[WHS.4F]
- explain the impact of the Ottoman Empire on Eastern Europe and global trade.[WHS.7D]
- describe the historical origins, central ideas, and spread of major religious and philosophical traditions, including Buddhism, Christianity, Confucianism, Hinduism, Islam, Judaism, Sikhism, and the development of monotheism.[WHS.23A]
- identify examples of religious influence on various events referenced in the major eras of world history.[WHS.23B]
- identify significant examples of art and architecture that demonstrate an artistic ideal or visual principle from selected cultures.[WHS.26A]
- analyze examples of how art, architecture, literature, music, and drama reflect the history of the cultures in which they are produced.[WHS.26B]
- analyze information by sequencing, categorizing, identifying cause-and-effect relationships, comparing, contrasting, finding the main idea, summarizing, making generalizations and predictions, drawing inferences and conclusions, and developing connections between historical events over time.[WHS.29F]
- use social studies terminology correctly.[WHS.30A]
- use standard grammar, spelling, sentence structure, and punctuation.[WHS.30B]
- interpret and create written, oral, and visual presentations of social studies information.[WHS.30C]

Setting the Stage in Anatolia: pre-11th century

Anatolia, linking Asia and Europe, has a long and distinguished record as a centre of civilization - from one of the world's first towns (Catal Huyuk), through the successive periods of Hittites and Trojans, Ionians and Lydians, Romans and Byzantines.

But the region acquires its present identity and name, as Turkey, more recently - with the arrival of Turkish tribes to confront the Byzantine empire in the 11th century AD.

Byzantines and Turks: 1064-1071

In 1064 the Seljuk Turks, under their sultan Alp Arslan, invade Armenia - for many centuries a disputed frontier region between the Byzantine empire and neighbors to the east. Alp Arslan follows his success here with an attack on Georgia, in 1068. These acts of aggression prompt a response from the Byzantine emperor, Romanus IV Diogenes.

The armies meet in 1071 at Manzikert, near Lake Van. The battle, a resounding victory for the Seljuks, is a turning point in the story of the Byzantine empire. Within a few years there are Turkish tribes in many parts of Anatolia. Some of them are bitter enemies of the Seljuks, but the Seljuks are now the main power in this borderland between Islam and Christianity.

The Seljuks and the sultanate of Rum: 11th - 13th c.

Rum, meaning Rome, is the word used by the Turks for Byzantium (whose officials still describe themselves as Romans, in keeping with the origins of the Byzantine empire). Pressing deep into Anatolia, after the victory at Manzikert in 1071, the Seljuks reach Konya in the following year and Nicaea, much closer to Constantinople, in about 1080. They make Nicaea their capital until it is recovered by the Byzantines during the first crusade, in 1097. In 1099 Konya, strategically placed in the center of Anatolia, becomes the Seljuk capital.

The Seljuks describe their new territory, at the heart of the old Byzantine empire, as the sultanate of Rum.

Throughout the 12th and 13th century Anatolia is in turmoil. Turkish tribes fight among themselves. The Byzantines try to recover their land. Crusaders, passing through and from 1204 occupying Constantinople, complicate the picture.

But the new and overriding feature is that Anatolia is now largely occupied by Turks. This fact enters the languages of the period. In addition to its many other names, the region begins to be referred to as Turkey - the land of the Turks. The new identity survives the arrival of the Mongols in the 13th century and the end of the Seljuk dynasty in the early 14th century. By then another Turkish tribe, the Ottomans, are making their mark.

Read more: <http://www.historyworld.net/wrldhis/PlainTextHistories.asp?groupid=3133&HistoryID=ac94>rack=pthc#ixzz3gXJ>

The Ottoman Turks: 13th - 14th century

During the 13th century, when many Turkish emirates are being established in Anatolia, a petty chieftain by the name of Ertughrul wins control over a limited area around Söğüt, between Ankara and Constantinople. He is succeeded in about 1285 by his son Osman, whose name is a Turkish version of the Arabic Othman. Through Osman, seen later as founder of the dynasty, his people become known as the Ottoman Turks.

Most of the Turks of Anatolia live in a style in keeping with their origins, as fierce nomads of the steppes. Riding out to war is their everyday activity. But they are also keen Muslims. They see themselves as ghazi, an Arabic word for warrior but with religious connotations.

Turks setting out on a ghaza (armed raid) are indulging in an expedition of plunder but also in a jihad (holy war). It is a potent combination. The enfeebled Byzantine Empire to the west of their territory - crippled, ironically, by the Christian fourth crusade - provides the Ottoman Turks with a natural target.

Progress is at first slow. The Ottoman horsemen lack the equipment to take fortified Byzantine towns. Instead they plunder the surrounding countryside, effectively strangling their victims into submission. Bursa, the first important Byzantine stronghold to the west, falls to them in 1326, the year of Osman's death.

After the fall of Bursa the Ottoman advance quickens. Nicaea yields in 1331 and Nicomedia in 1337. In that direction a narrow neck of land leads directly to Constantinople, but the Ottomans prefer a roundabout route. In 1354 they cross into Europe at the other end of the Sea of Marmara, capturing Gallipoli. Eight years later Adrianople falls to them, severing the main route westwards from Constantinople.

A stranglehold is being applied to the Byzantine capital itself, but the Turks look first for plunder in an easier direction. They continue westwards into the Balkans, where their successes prompt the formation of the formidable Ottoman fighting force known as the Janissaries.

The Turks in the Balkans: 1389 - 1402

A victory at Kosovo in 1389 brings Serbia under Ottoman control as a vassal state. The Ottoman sultan Murad I dies on the battlefield of Kosovo and is succeeded by his son Bayazid I, whose name Yildirim ('Thunderbolt') reflects his early military successes. The Slav kingdom of Bulgaria is fully occupied by 1393. In the following year Bayazid begins the long expected blockade of Constantinople. A Hungarian army marching as a crusade against the Turks

is heavily defeated at Nicopolis in 1396. Meanwhile the sultan campaigns south into Greece. But then the Balkans and Constantinople are given a sudden reprieve.

Bayazid is confronted by a major threat in Anatolia - the arrival of Timur.

Devshirme and the Millet System

Devshirme (literally "collecting" in Turkish), also known as the blood tax or tribute in blood, was chiefly the annual practice by which the Ottoman Empire sent military to abduct boys, sons of their Christian subjects (Rum millet and Armenians) in the villages of the Balkans and Anatolia. The ideal age of a recruit was between 7 and 10 years of age, although they recruited much younger boys. The devshirme system was locally resented and was resisted, even to the point of disfiguring their sons. Nonetheless, many were then converted to Islam with the primary objective of selecting and training the ablest children for the military or civil service of the Empire, notably into the Janissaries.

The Ottoman Empire, beginning with Murad I, felt a need to "counteract the power of (Turkic) nobles by developing Christian vassal soldiers and converted kapıkulları as his personal troops, independent of the regular army." The elite forces, which served the Ottoman Sultan directly, were divided into two main groups: cavalry and infantry.[b] The cavalry was commonly known as the Kapıkulu Süvari (The Cavalry of the Servants of the Porte) and the infantry were the popular Yeni Çeri (transliterated in English as Janissary), meaning "the New Corps".

At first, the soldiers to serve in these corps were selected from the slaves captured during warfare. However, the system commonly known as devşirme was soon adopted: in this system children of the rural Christian populations of the Balkans—particularly Albanians, Serbs, and northern Greeks—were conscripted before adolescence and were brought up as Muslims. Upon reaching adolescence, these children were enrolled in one of the four imperial institutions:

1. The Palace
2. The Scribes,
3. The Religious
4. The Military

Those enrolled in the Military would become either part of the Janissary corps, or part of any other corps. The brightest were sent to the Palace institution (Enderun), and were destined for a career within the palace itself where the most able could aspire to attain the very highest office of state, that of Grand Vizier, the Sultan's immensely powerful chief minister and military deputy.

In the Ottoman Empire, a millet was a separate legal court pertaining to "personal law" under which a confessional community (a group abiding by the laws of Muslim Sharia, Christian Canon law, or Jewish Halakha) was allowed to rule itself under its own system.

People were bound to their millets by their religious affiliations (or their confessional communities), rather than their ethnic origins, according to the millet concept. The head of a millet – most often a religious hierarch such as the Greek Orthodox Patriarch of Constantinople or, in earlier times, the Patriarch of the East – reported directly to the Ottoman Sultan. The millets had a great deal of power – they set their own laws and collected and distributed their own taxes. All that was required was loyalty to the Empire. When a member of one millet committed a crime against a member of another, the law of the injured party applied, but the ruling Islamic majority being paramount, any dispute involving a Muslim fell under their sharia-based law.

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Timur and the Chagatai Turks: 14th century

The regions north and south of the Hindu Kush, approximating to modern Uzbekistan and Afghanistan, form an indeterminate part of the empire of Genghis Khan. They are inherited by descendants of his son Chagatai, but the district is fought over by many rival cousins. Here, more than anywhere in the Mongol empire, the Turkish influence is all-pervasive. By the end of the 14th century even the fiercely competitive petty princes of the region are vague as to whether they are Mongols or Turks - a fact reflected in their contradictory name. They are known as Chagatai Turks.

The greatest of them is born near Samarkand in 1336. His name is Timur, but he is more familiar in the west as Tamerlane.

Timur is known in his local variety of Turkish as Timur i Leng, meaning Timur the Lame. It is this phrase which has been transliterated in European accounts as Tamerlane (also spelt Tamburlaine).

Timur sees himself as restoring the great Mongol empire. Like Genghis Khan, two centuries earlier, he spends the first half of his life establishing control over local rivals. He is almost fifty when he begins, in 1383, an astonishing two decades of far-flung military campaigns. During them he reconquers, single-handed, the western half of the Mongol empire.

Timur's conquests:1383 - 1405

Timur begins his campaign with the capture in 1383 of Herat, a city on the border of Afghanistan and Iran which will later, under his own descendants, become a great centre of Persian culture. In the next two years he subdues the whole of eastern Persia.

By 1394 he has extended his rule throughout Persia and Mesopotamia and up between the Black Sea and Caspian into Armenia, Azerbaijan and Georgia. In 1396 he storms into Russia and occupies Moscow for a year.

Timur's rule is brutal. In Persia frequent uprisings are put down with a severity similar to that of Genghis Khan. Populations of entire cities are massacred, and Timur develops an effective new form of memento mori. The skulls of the dead form the masonry for towers, firmly cemented together to stand as cautionary tales.

In 1398 Timur outdoes one of Genghis Khan's expeditions. He invades India, but unlike his predecessor he does not stop at the Indus. He marches on to Delhi and devastates the city. He then spends several months collecting treasure, which he carries home on 120 elephants.

Home is Samarkand, the city closest to his birthplace. Timur is busy turning it into a great center of Muslim architecture and art. Together with the Indian elephants come the best craftsmen of Delhi, who will be set to work in Samarkand - where they join, in 1399, a community of skilled captives from previous expeditions.

The conqueror himself, now in his mid-sixties, has more practical business to attend to. Before the end of 1399 he marches west, to restore order in his outlying provinces.

The conqueror's declining years: 1401-1405

In 1401, in Syria, Timur defeats a Mameluke army from Egypt. He then takes and destroys Damascus, despatching a new consignment of talented craftsmen back to Samarkand. Later in the same year Baghdad is stormed and sacked, and 20,000 of its population massacred. In 1402 the aged warrior advances into Anatolia. He defeats an army of Ottoman Turks near Ankara, capturing their sultan, Bayazid I (who dies in Timur's care). He then moves on west, as far as the Aegean, to take Izmir from the Knights of Rhodes.

By 1404 he is back in Samarkand. But even now, two years short of seventy, he is not ready to settle. He has set his sights on an even more ambitious project.

Late in 1404 Timur rides east to invade China. He gets no further than Chimkent before he falls ill, in January 1405,

and dies.

Though he has reconquered much of the western Mongol empire, it is the example of Samarkand which most influences his descendants (known as the Timurids). His domed mausoleum, the Gur Amir, decorated with blue ceramic tiles, begins the tradition of Muslim buildings developed at Herat and Isfahan. A century later, an inherited interest in art brings superb results at the court of a family descended from both Timur and Genghis Khan - the Moghul emperors of India, whose name perpetuates the memory of the Mongol dynasty.

The Timurid tradition: 1405-1510

Shahrukh, Timur's favourite son, is his family's greatest patron of the arts. From about 1405 he rebuilds Herat, devastated by his father in 1383, and actively encourages the Persian school of miniature painting - which has already begun to flourish under the patronage of the Mongol Il-Khans.

With some difficulty Shahrukh maintains control over the empire conquered by his father in central Asia and Persia. In subsequent generations the descendants of Timur fight constantly among themselves over their shared inheritance, weakening their joint defense against their enemies. But Herat remains a centre of Timurid civilization until it falls, in 1510, to the founder of the new Safavid dynasty.

Read more: <http://www.historyworld.net/wrldhis/PlainTextHistories.asp?historyid=ac86#ixzz3gSysAUBN>

Retrenchment and recovery: 1402 - 1481

The Ottoman domain shrinks drastically after Bayazid's defeat and capture by Timur in 1402. The many small emirs of Turkey reassert their independence, as do the Balkan states. The three sons of Bayazid are left with only the family's central territories round the southern and western sides of the sea of Marmara. They fight each other in a civil war which is won by the youngest, Mehmed I, in 1413.

From this unpromising position, the son and grandson of Mehmed (Murad II and Mehmed II, whose combined reigns span nearly seventy years) achieve an astonishing recovery for the Ottoman state - posing an ever greater threat to the Byzantine empire.

Murad patiently reasserts control over much of western Anatolia, and makes equivalent headway in the Balkans. Serbia is brought back into the Ottoman fold (Murad marries a Serbian princess in 1433). Much of Bulgaria also is recovered. A strong counter-attack down the Danube in 1443 by an army of Hungarians and Poles is at first successful, until the Ottoman Turks win a decisive victory at Varna in 1444.

This steady process is continued by Murad's son, Mehmed II.

Mehmed II conquers Athens and almost the whole of the Greek peninsula in 1458-60. He then engages in a prolonged war with Venice, winning many valuable ports along the Adriatic coast. In 1463-4 he captures Bosnia where a large number of nobles convert to Islam, unlike neighbouring Serbia which remains largely Greek Orthodox - a distinction with resonance in more recent history. By the time of Mehmed's death, in 1481, Anatolia has also been recovered. Even regions north of the Black Sea are vassal states.

But the achievement which gives Mehmed his title of Fatih (Conqueror), and his secure place in history, has been his capture in 1453 of Constantinople.

Fall of Constantinople: 1453

A month after his twenty-first birthday, in April 1453, Mehmed II applies to Constantinople the stranglehold which has been a tacit threat for nearly a century, ever since the Ottoman capture of Adrianople (Edirne in its Turkish name) in 1362. He initiates a tight blockade of the city by both sea and land.

The inhabitants, as often before, place their faith in their immensely strong city walls. Only on the harbour side are

these walls vulnerable, and the harbour (the long creek known as the Golden Horn) is protected by a great chain preventing enemy ships from entering. But the young sultan has an answer to that.

At dawn, one Sunday morning in May, the defenders on the walls are surprised to see Muslim ships in the harbor. During the night they have been dragged on wheeled carriages, on a temporary wooden roadway, over a 200-foot hill. Over the next few days cannon are moved into place, including one 19-ton bombard. At sunset on May 28 the attack begins. Every bell in the city rings the alarm. Santa Sophia is full of people praying and singing Kyrie Eleison (Lord, have mercy).

By dawn the Turks are in the city. The last Byzantine emperor, Constantine XI, has died in the fighting.

Mehmed, the sultan, goes straight to Santa Sophia to hear a proclamation from the pulpit - that there is no God but Allah, and Muhammad is his prophet. The great church, for many centuries the most magnificent in Christendom, now begins its career as a mosque. And Constantinople gradually acquires a new name; the urban area, widely referred to in everyday Greek as *in polis* (in the city), becomes Istanbul.

The Ottoman army is allowed three days of pillage (a depressing convention of medieval warfare), but Mehmed keeps it under tolerable control. He has acquired a capital for his empire. He intends to preserve and improve it.

In an honorable Muslim tradition, he plans a multicultural and tolerant city. The population is much reduced, after decades of fear and uncertainty, so Mehmed brings Greeks from the Aegean (soon another part of his domain) to revive the place. The Greek Orthodox patriarch is left in charge of his flock. And when the Jews in Spain are expelled, in 1492, many of them come to Istanbul where it is official policy to welcome them.

Mehmed launches into a busy building program, founding several mosques and beginning Topkapi Sarayi in 1462 as his own palace. Constantinople, transformed into Istanbul, is set to be a great imperial center again. It has exchanged one empire for another, Byzantine for Ottoman.

Read more: <http://www.historyworld.net/wrldhis/PlainTextHistories.asp?HistoryID=ac94&graphid=fqk#fqk#ixzz3gSpKx4hC>

Suleiman the Magnificent

Suleiman the Magnificent developed the power of the Ottomans to its greatest extent, he captured Belgrade, subjugated Hungary, besieged Vienna (1529) and conquered parts of North Africa. During the sixteenth century the Ottoman fleet made them masters of the Mediterranean.

The conquered territories were divided into military fiefs. The sultan began the practice of exacting an annual tribute of Christian children to provide a loyal corps of palace soldiers. The Janissary, as the new troops were called, soon became the terror of Europe. But the very strength of the Turkish military organisation led to internal weakness. The slave army, numbering up to 100,000 men, became a state within a state. To protect themselves from palace coups, the reigning sultan confined his brothers to celibacy in walled gardens. As a result, when later sultans were succeeded by a brother, the fledgling ruler was ignorant of his responsibility.

The first signs of the empire's weakness became apparent during the Great Turkish War (1683-99), which began with the second siege of Vienna and ended with the transfer of most of Hungary from Ottoman to Austrian hands.

Gradually, portions of the empire began to break away. By 1850, Egypt and Arabia gained autonomy, and Algeria was controlled by France. In the Balkans Greece won independence in 1830. The Ottoman Empire which suffered a series of defeats by Austrian and Russian armies, was reluctant to modernize its institutions because pious Moslems felt that the whole Islamic character of the state would be endangered.

The Crimean War, where Ottomans were fighting together with French and British forces, ended with a victory over the Russians. Ironically, the victory cost the Turks more than earlier defeats at Russians hands had ever done, because it became clear that the survival of the Ottoman empire depended on the support of one or another of the European Great powers.

Britain and France had an interest to prevent the collapse of the Turkish empire because they considered it a block against the expansion of Russia or Austria into the Balkans. Until the 1870's Great Britain played the role of primary

protector of the Sultan; later the Germans played the same role.

http://www.hyperhistory.com/online_n2/History_n2/a.html

Ismail I and the Safavids: 1501-1524

After four centuries of dominance by powerful intruders (Seljuk Turks, Mongols), Persia acquires in the 16th century a new dynasty from the heartland of the classical Persian empire.

Azerbaijan was the territory of the Medes, founders of Iran's first empire. Recently it has become the center of a Sufi sect, established by Sheikh Safi al-Din. His descendants, known from his name as the Safavids, govern the city of Ardabil as a small theocratic state. In the 15th century they develop a passionate commitment to the Shi'a version of Islam (the family claims descent from one of the twelve Shi'a imams - see The Shi'as). The characteristics of Iran in the late 20th century have their roots in Azerbaijan 500 years ago.

One of the sheikh's descendants, Ismail, drastically enlarges the family's power in the early 16th century. At the age of fourteen he leads the local tribes in the capture of Tabriz, where he is enthroned in 1501 as the shah of Azerbaijan. (Ismail is not alone in teenage achievements of this kind; four years previously Babur, also aged fourteen, briefly captures Samarkand.)

Ismail extends his control over much of Mesopotamia and Persia, using the Shi'a faith as a rallying cry. By the end of his reign Shi'ism, a minority sect within Islam, has become the faith of the majority of Persians. In this process conversion and compulsion often go together. But a newly defined nation is now able to identify its enemies as the Sunnis.

Sunnis are pressing against Persia from both west and east, but the more immediate threat is from the east. Uzbek tribes, under the leadership of Shaibani Khan, are moving southwest from Samarkand and Bukhara. By 1507 Shaibani has reached Herat, which he captures in that year.

Ismail confronts the Uzbeks at Merv in 1510 and wins a resounding victory. Shaibani is taken and killed (his skull, set in gold, becomes one of Ismail's favorite drinking cups). Another Sunni ruler to the east of Persia is Babur, now established in Kabul. But Babur has no aggressive intentions against Persia. Ismail contents himself with diplomatic efforts to convert him to the Shi'a faith.

The real Sunni threat now comes from the Ottoman Turks. Recent military successes have secured the western boundary of their empire, in the Balkans. Now they find they have a strong and aggressive neighbor in Persia, heretical in his religious beliefs and with his power base (Azerbaijan) and his capital (Tabriz) close to their own regions of Anatolia.

A clash is inevitable. It occurs at Çaldıran in 1514. Ismail is defeated; his tribesmen are no match for the highly trained janissaries, and unlike the Turks he has no artillery. But this encounter between Ottoman and Persian is only the beginning of a long struggle, in which Persian fortunes in the east are intimately linked to those of the Balkans in the west.

Abbas I: 1587-1629

When Shah Abbas begins his reign in 1587, at the age of sixteen, he is confronted by exactly the problem which his great-grandfather Ismail I faced eighty years previously. Ottoman Turks are pressing in from the northwest at the same time as Uzbeks from the northeast.

The young shah's solution is to make a disadvantageous treaty with the Turks, in 1590, surrendering valuable territory but leaving himself free to confront the Uzbeks. But first he undertakes a reorganization of the Persian army, replacing a feudal system of tribal levies with professional troops paid from the imperial treasury.

The military reforms benefit from Persia's experience against the better trained and better equipped Turks, and also - rather oddly - from the practical advice of an Englishman, Sir Robert Shirley, who arrives as a member of an English

embassy in 1599 and stays in Persia for eight years.

The resulting army has three specialist regiments - cavalry, musketeers and artillerymen. Their successes enable Shah Abbas to extend the Persian Empire as far as Kandahar in the east, while in the west recovering Mesopotamia and the regions ceded to the Turks in the treaty of 1590.

The proximity of the Turks has made Tabriz, the original base of the Safavid dynasty, dangerously insecure. In 1548 the capital has already been moved southeast to Kazvin by Tahmasp I, son of Ismail I.

Shah Abbas goes further in the same direction when he moves the capital in 1598 to Isfahan. Here he creates, during the remaining 30 years of his life, a splendid city of elegant domes. Isfahan comes to symbolize the Persian style in the same way as the Shi'a doctrine, introduced by Abbas's great-grandfather, becomes part of the nation's identity. This region has had 2500 years of richly varied history, but modern Iran is essentially a Safavid creation.

Isfahan: 17th century

Isfahan is already a city of ancient history and considerable wealth when Shah Abbas decides, in 1598, to turn it into a magnificent capital. It has a Masjid-i-Jami, or Friday Mosque, dating from the Seljuk period (11th-12th century), still surviving today and noted for its fine patterned brickwork. And it has a thriving school of craftsmen skilled in the making of polychrome ceramic tiles.

Shah Abbas favors in architecture what comes to seem almost the theme of his city - gently curving domes covered in a glorious array of Isfahan's colored tiles.

The new center of the city is a vast rectangular space, the Maidan-i-Shah (Royal Parade), designed for parades and polo. At its southern end there rises the most magnificent of Isfahan's swelling blue domes, on the Masjid-i-Shah (Royal Mosque). The tiles are shaped where necessary to fit the curve of the dome, as are those which clad the mosque's circular minarets. The dome is reflected in a great pool in the courtyard.

On the east of the Maidan-i-Shah is a smaller blue dome, on the Mosque of Sheikh Lutfullah - built by Shah Abbas in honor of his father-in-law and used as his private chapel. There are other glorious buildings in Isfahan, but these domes have become the trademark of Persian Islamic architecture.

Pampered heirs: 17th century

In both Turkey and Persia a major change is made in royal protocol during the first half of the 17th century. The development is the same in each place, and it has a profound effect on future sultans and shahs.

In Turkey it has been an official policy of state for each new sultan, on achieving power, to kill his brothers and nephews. Without a system of primogeniture, the crown goes to the strongest among the candidates within the ruling family. Once a winner has emerged, this drastic measure is a way of ensuring an untroubled reign. The sultan Mehmed III, winning power in 1595, murders his unusually large family of nineteen brothers.

In Persia this principle of violence is not enshrined in law, but in practice the result is similarly brutal. Shah Abbas, ruling in the early 17th century, blinds and imprisons his deposed father, his two brothers and one of his sons.

Shah Abbas in Persia and his contemporary, Ahmed I, in Turkey independently put in place a more merciful system. Abbas decrees that in future all royal princes will live in the harem, out of harm's way, until such time as the ruling shah dies. Ahmed's solution in Turkey is similar, but each prince here is to have a pavilion of his own in a walled garden (the merciful Ahmed was five, in 1595, when his father killed his nineteen uncles).

The result is the same in both empires. Less royal blood is shed but the standard of leadership declines. Sultans and shahs, previously on the battlefield from their teens, learning the harsh ways of the world, now emerge in a state of sheltered ignorance to take up the responsibilities of power. The politics of the harem impinge upon, and sometimes even replace in importance, the politics of the real world (see Harems and Eunuchs).

In Persia the Safavids retain the throne for a century after this change. In Turkey the royal line survives three times

as long, to the end of the Ottoman Empire. But the heyday of each dynasty has passed.

Decline of the Safavids: 1722-1736

The first major threat to the enfeebled Safavid dynasty comes in 1722 when Afghan rebels march west and capture Isfahan. This disaster is soon followed by the simultaneous invasion of Persia by Russia and Turkey. Each is determined to prevent the other gaining an advantage in this strategic region, but in 1724 they agree to divide the spoils. Both remain in possession of part of the Persian Empire.

The shah is briefly saved from this unwelcome situation by Nadir Quli Beg, leader of a gang of tribal brigands. By birth a Turk, from the Meshed region, he brings 5000 men to the support of the shah in 1726.

The brigand proves a brilliant general. Transforming the Persian army, he leads a disciplined body of men to victory over the Afghan rebels holding Isfahan. He then drives the Turks out of the western regions of Persia. And by the mere threat of war he persuades the Russians to relinquish the territories they have seized.

But brigands acquiring this much power are not easily controlled. In 1736 Nadir Quli Beg deposes the last Safavid shah and takes the throne for himself, changing his name to Nadir Shah.

Nadir Shah: 1736-1747

Nadir Shah, in a reign of eleven years, devotes himself to conquest with the single-minded determination of Timur, the last great conqueror to sweep through these regions.

First, after a long siege in 1736, he recovers Kandahar - the stronghold of the Afghan chieftains who have until recently been in possession of Isfahan. With Afghanistan safely back under imperial control, Nadir Shah is next tempted further east (like Timur before him) into the fabulously wealthy empire of India. The Moghul dynasty, possessing probably a greater number of precious stones than any other ruling family in the world, is itself in a feeble state. A visit to Delhi is irresistible - as is Nadir Shah himself.

In December 1738 Nadir Shah crosses the Indus at Attock. Two months later he defeats the army of the Moghul emperor, Mohammed Shah. In March he enters Delhi. The conqueror has iron control over his troops and at first the city is calm. It is broken when an argument between citizens and some Persian soldiers escalates into a riot in which 900 Persians are killed. Even now Nadir Shah forbids reprisals until he has inspected the scene. But when he rides through the city, stones are thrown at him. Someone fires a musket which kills an officer close to the shah.

In reprisal he orders a massacre. The killing lasts for a day. The number of the dead is more than 30,000.

Amazingly, when the Moghul emperor begs for mercy for his people, the Persian conqueror is able to grant it. The killing stops, for the collection of Delhi's valuables to begin.

Untold wealth travels west with the Persians. The booty includes the two most spectacular possessions of the Moghul emperors - the Peacock Throne, commissioned by Shah Jahan, and the Koh-i-Nur diamond. Nadir Shah is able to send a decree home from Delhi remitting all taxes in Persia for three years. In addition to the jewels and the gold, he takes with him 1000 elephants, 100 masons and 200 carpenters. The parallel with the visit of Timur, 341 years previously, is almost exact.

But Timur was at least creating a capital city at Samarkand. Nadir Shah has little interest in any activity other than conquest. He takes Bukhara in 1740 and continues to campaign (though with diminishing success and increasing ferocity) until his death in 1747, stabbed in his tent by an assassin.

Nadir Shah's achievement has been to reassemble by conquest the Persian Empire. After his death it rapidly falls apart again. The eastern part now begins its separate existence as Afghanistan. The west enjoys a rare period of peace under a leader of the Zand tribe, Karim Khan, who rules from 1757 to 1794 with his capital at Shiraz. He is followed by the last of Persia's lengthy dynasties, the Qajars.

Read more: <http://www.historyworld.net/wrldhis/PlainTextHistories.asp?gtrack=pthc&ParagraphID=hin#hin#ixzz3gXqZSOzr>

Mughal Empire in India

Babur in Kabul: 1504-1525

Babur, founder of the Mughul dynasty in India, is one of history's more endearing conquerors. In his youth he is one among many impoverished princes, all descended from Timur, who fight among themselves for possession of some small part of the great man's fragmented empire. Babur even captures Samarkand itself on three separate occasions, each for only a few months. The first time he achieves this he is only fourteen.

What distinguishes Babur from other brawling princes is that he is a keen observer of life and keeps a diary. In it he vividly describes his triumphs and sorrows, whether riding out with friends at night to attack a walled village or mooning around for unrequited love of a beautiful boy.

Babur's 'throneless times', as he later describes these early years, come to an end in 1504 when he captures Kabul. Here, at the age of twenty-one, he is able to establish a settled court and to enjoy the delights of gardening, art and architecture in the Timurid tradition of his family.

With a powerful new Persian dynasty to the west (under Ismail I) and an aggressive Uzbek presence to the north (under Shaibani Khan), Babur's Kabul becomes the main surviving centre of the Timurid tradition. But these same pressures mean that his only chance of expanding is eastwards - into India.

Babur feels that he has an inherited claim upon northern India, deriving from Timur's capture of Delhi in 1398, and he makes several profitable raids through the mountain passes into the Punjab. But his first serious expedition is launched in October 1525.

Some forty years later (but not sooner than that) it is evident that Babur's descendants are a new and established dynasty in northern India. Babur thinks of himself as a Turk, but he is descended from Genghis Khan as well as from Timur. The Persians refer to his dynasty as Mughal, meaning Mongol. And it is as the Moghul emperors of India that they become known to history.

Babur in India: 1526-1530

By the early 16th century the Muslim sultans of Delhi (an Afghan dynasty known as Lodi) are much weakened by threats from rebel Muslim principalities and from a Hindu coalition of Rajput rulers. When Babur leads an army through the mountain passes, from his stronghold at Kabul, he at first meets little opposition in the plains of north India.

The decisive battle against Ibrahim, the Lodi sultan, comes on the plain of Panipat in April 1526. Babur is heavily outnumbered (with perhaps 25,000 troops in the field against 100,000 men and 1000 elephants), but his tactics win the day.

Babur digs into a prepared position, copied (he says) from the Turks - from whom the use of guns has spread to the Persians and now to Babur. As yet the Indians of Delhi have no artillery or muskets. Babur has only a few, but he uses them to great advantage. He collects 700 carts to form a barricade (a device pioneered by the Hussites of Bohemia a century earlier).

Sheltered behind the carts, Babur's gunners can go through the laborious business of firing their matchlocks - but only at an enemy charging their position. It takes Babur some days to tempt the Indians into doing this. When they do so, they succumb to slow gunfire from the front and to a hail of arrows from Babur's cavalry charging on each flank.

Victory at Panipat brings Babur the cities of Delhi and Agra, with much booty in treasure and jewels. But he faces a stronger challenge from the confederation of Rajputs who had themselves been on the verge of attacking Ibrahim Lodi.

The armies meet at Khanua in March 1527 and again, using similar tactics, Babur wins. For the next three years Babur roams around with his army, extending his territory to cover most of north India - and all the while recording

in his diary his fascination with this exotic world which he has conquered.

Humayun: 1530-1556

Babur's control is still superficial when he dies in 1530, after just three years in India. His son Humayun keeps a tentative hold on the family's new possessions. But in 1543 he is driven west into Afghanistan by a forceful Muslim rebel, Sher Shah.

Twelve years later, renewed civil war within India gives Humayun a chance to slip back almost unopposed. One victory, at Sirhind in 1555, is enough to recover him his throne. But six months later Humayun is killed in an accidental fall down a stone staircase. His 13-year-old son Akbar, inheriting in 1556, would seem to have little chance of holding on to India. Yet it is he who establishes the mighty Moghul Empire.

Akbar: 1556-1605

In the early years of Akbar's reign, his fragile inheritance is skilfully held together by an able chief minister, Bairam Khan. But from 1561 the 19-year-old emperor is very much his own man. An early act demonstrates that he intends to rule the two religious communities of India, Muslim and Hindu, in a new way - by consensus and cooperation, rather than alienation of the Hindu majority.

In 1562 he marries a Rajput princess, daughter of the Raja of Amber (now Jaipur). She becomes one of his senior wives and the mother of his heir, Jahangir. Her male relations in Amber join Akbar's council and merge their armies with his.

This policy is very far from conventional Muslim hostility to worshippers of idols. And Akbar carries it further, down to a level affecting every Hindu. In 1563 he abolishes a tax levied on pilgrims to Hindu shrines. In 1564 he puts an end to a much more hallowed source of revenue - the jizya, or annual tax on unbelievers which the Qur'an stipulates shall be levied in return for Muslim protection.

At the same time Akbar steadily extends the boundaries of the territory which he has inherited.

Akbar's normal way of life is to move around with a large army, holding court in a splendid camp laid out like a capital city but composed entirely of tents. His biographer, Abul Fazl, describes this royal progress as being 'for political reasons, and for subduing oppressors, under the veil of indulging in hunting'.

A great deal of hunting does occur (a favorite version uses trained cheetahs to pursue deer) while the underlying political purpose - of warfare, treaties, marriages - is carried on.

Warfare brings its own booty. Signing a treaty with Akbar, or presenting a wife to his harem (his collection eventually numbers about 300), involves a contribution to the exchequer. As his realm increases, so does his revenue. And Akbar proves himself an inspired administrator.

The empire's growing number of provinces are governed by officials appointed only for a limited term, thus avoiding the emergence of regional warlords. And steps are taken to ensure that the tax on peasants varies with local circumstances, instead of a fixed proportion of their produce being automatically levied.

At the end of Akbar's reign of nearly half a century, his empire is larger than any in India since the time of Asoka. Its outer limits are Kandahar in the west, Kashmir in the north, Bengal in the east and in the south a line across the subcontinent at the level of Aurangabad. Yet this ruler who achieves so much is illiterate. An idle schoolboy, Akbar finds in later life no need for reading. He prefers to listen to the arguments before taking his decisions (perhaps a factor in his skill as a leader).

Akbar is original, quirky, willful. His complex character is vividly suggested in the strange palace which he builds, and almost immediately abandons, at Fatehpur Sikri.

Fatehpur Sikri: 1571-1585

In 1571 Akbar decides to build a new palace and town at Sikri, close to the shrine of a Sufi saint who has impressed him by foretelling the birth of three sons. When two boys have duly appeared, Akbar's masons start work on what is to be called Fatehpur ('Victory') Sikri. A third boy is born in 1572.

Akbar's palace, typically, is unlike anyone else's. It resembles a small town, made up of courtyards and exotic free-standing buildings. They are built in a linear Hindu style, instead of the gentler curves of Islam. Beams and lintels and even floorboards are cut from red sandstone and are elaborately carved, much as if the material were oak rather than stone.

The palace and mosque occupy the hill top, while a sprawling town develops below. The site is only used for some fourteen years, partly because Akbar has overlooked problems of water supply. Yet this is where his many and varied interests are given practical expression.

Here Akbar employs translators to turn Hindu classics into Persian, scribes to produce a library of exquisite manuscripts, artists to illustrate them (the illiterate emperor loves to be read to and takes a keen interest in painting). Here there is a department of history under Abul Fazl; an order is sent out that anyone with personal knowledge of Babur and Humayun is to be interviewed so that valuable information is not lost.

The building most characteristic of Akbar in Fatehpur Sikri is his famous diwan-i-khas, or hall of private audience. It consists of a single very high room, furnished only with a central pillar. The top of the pillar, on which Akbar sits, is joined by four narrow bridges to a balcony running round the wall. On the balcony are those having an audience with the emperor.

If required, someone can cross one of the bridges - in a respectfully crouched position - to join Akbar in the center. Meanwhile, on the floor below, courtiers not involved in the discussion can listen unseen.

In the diwan-i-khas Akbar deals mainly with affairs of state. To satisfy another personal interest, in comparative religion, he builds a special ibadat-khana ('house of worship'). Here he listens to arguments between Muslims, Hindus, Jains, Zoroastrians, Jews and Christians. The ferocity with which they all attack each other prompts him to devise a generalized religion of his own (in which a certain aura of divinity rubs off on himself).

The Christians involved in these debates are three Jesuits who arrive from Goa in 1580. As the first Europeans at the Moghul court, they are a portent for the future.

Jahangir: 1605-1627

Akbar is succeeded in 1605 by his eldest and only surviving son, Jahangir. Two other sons have died of drink, and Jahangir's effectiveness as a ruler is limited by his own addiction to both alcohol and opium. But the empire is now stable enough for him to preside over it for twenty-two years without much danger of upheaval.

Instead he is able to indulge his curiosity about the natural world (which he records in a diary as vivid as that of his great-grandfather Babur) and his love of painting. Under his keen eye the imperial studio brings the Moghul miniature to a peak of perfection, maintained also during the reign of his son Shah Jahan.

Moghul miniatures: 16th - 17th century

When Humayun wins his way back into India, in 1555, he brings with him two Persian artists from the school of Bihzad. Humayun and the young Akbar take lessons in drawing. Professional Indian artists learn too from these Persian masters.

From this blend of traditions there emerges the very distinctive Moghul school of painting. Full-bodied and realistic compared to the more fanciful and decorative Persian school, it develops in the workshops which Akbar establishes in the 1570s at Fatehpur Sikri.

Akbar puts his artists to work illustrating the manuscripts written out by scribes for his library. New work is brought to the emperor at the end of each week. He makes his criticisms, and distributes rewards to those who meet with his approval.

Detailed scenes are what Akbar likes, showing court celebrations, gardens being laid out, cheetahs released for the hunt, forts being stormed and endless battles. The resulting images are a treasure trove of historical detail. But as paintings they are slightly busy.

Akbar's son Jahangir takes a special interest in painting, and his requirements differ from his father's. He is more likely to want an accurate depiction of a bird which has caught his interest, or a political portrait showing himself with a rival potentate. In either case the image requires clarity and conviction as well as finely detailed realism.

The artists rise superbly to this challenge. In Jahangir's reign, and that of his son Shah Jahan, the Moghul imperial studio produces work of exceptional beauty. In Shah Jahan's time even the crowded narrative scenes, so popular with Akbar, are peopled by finely observed and convincing characters.

Shah Jahan and Aurangzeb: 1627-1707

During the reigns of Shah Jahan and his son Aurangzeb, the policy of religious toleration introduced by Akbar is gradually abandoned. It has been largely followed by Shah Jahan's father, Jahangir - though at the very start of his reign he provides the Sikhs with their first martyr when the guru Arjan is arrested, in 1606, and dies under torture.

In 1632 Shah Jahan signals an abrupt return to a stricter interpretation of Islam when he orders that all recently built Hindu temples shall be destroyed. A Muslim tradition states that unbelievers may keep the shrines which they have when Islam arrives, but not add to their number.

Direct provocation of this kind is untypical of Shah Jahan, but it becomes standard policy during the reign of his son Aurangzeb. His determination to impose strict Islamic rule on India undoes much of what was achieved by Akbar. An attack on Rajput territories in 1679 makes enemies of the Hindu princes; the reimposition of the *jizya* in the same year ensures resentment among Hindu merchants and peasants.

At the same time Aurangzeb is obsessed with extending Moghul rule into the difficult terrain of southern India. He leaves the empire larger but weaker than he finds it. In his eighties he is still engaged in permanent and futile warfare to hold what he has seized.

In the decades after the death of Aurangzeb, in 1707, the Moghul empire fragments into numerous semi-independent territories - seized by local officials or landowners whose descendants become the rajas and nawabs of more recent times. Moghul emperors continue to rule in name for another century and more, but their prestige is hollow.

Real power has declined gradually and imperceptibly throughout the 17th century, ever since the expansive days of Akbar's empire. Yet it is in the 17th century that news of the wealth, splendor, architectural brilliance and dynastic violence of the Moghul dynasty first impresses the rest of the world.

Europeans become a significant presence in India for the first time during the 17th century. They take home descriptions of the ruler's fabulous wealth, causing him to become known as the Great Moghul. They have a touching tale to tell of Shah Jahan's love for his wife and of the extraordinary building, the Taj Mahal, which he provides for her tomb.

And as Shah Jahan's reign merges into Aurangzeb's, they can astonish their hearers with an oriental melodrama of a kind more often associated with Turkey, telling of how Aurangzeb kills two of his brothers and imprisons his ageing father, Shah Jahan, in the Red Fort at Agra - with the Taj Mahal in his view across the Jumna, from the marble pavilions of his castle prison.

Moghul domes: 1564-1674

The paintings commissioned by the Moghul emperors are superb, but it is their architecture which has most astonished the world - and in particular the white marble domes characteristic of the reign of Shah Jahan.

There is a long tradition of large Muslim domes in central Asia, going as far back as a tomb in Bukhara in the 10th century. But the Moghuls develop a style which is very much their own - allowing the dome to rise from the building in a swelling curve which somehow implies lightness, especially when the material of the dome is white marble.

The first dome of this kind surmounts the tomb of Humayun in Delhi, built between 1564 and 1573. The style is then overlooked for a while - no doubt because of Akbar's preference for Hindu architecture, as in Fatehpur Sikri - until Shah Jahan, the greatest builder of the dynasty, develops it in the 17th century with vigor and sophistication.

His first attempt in this line is also his masterpiece - a building which has become the most famous in the world, for its beauty and for the romantic story behind its creation.

Throughout his early career, much of it spent in rebellion against his father, Shah Jahan's greatest support has been his wife, Mumtaz Mahal. But four years after he succeeds to the throne this much loved companion dies, in 1631, giving birth to their fourteenth child. The Taj Mahal, her tomb in Agra, is the expression of Shah Jahan's grief. Such romantic gestures are rare among monarchs, and certainly none has ever achieved its commemorative purpose so brilliantly.

There is no known architect for the Taj. It seems probable that Shah Jahan himself takes a leading role in directing his masons - particularly since his numerous other buildings evolve within a related style.

The Taj Mahal is built between 1632 and 1643. In 1644 the emperor commissions the vast Friday Mosque for his new city in Delhi. In 1646 he begins the more intimate Pearl Mosque in the Red Fort in Agra. Meanwhile he is building a new Red Fort in Delhi, with white marble pavilions for his own lodgings above massive red sandstone walls. At Fatehpur Sikri he provides a new shrine for the Sufi saint to whom his grandfather, Akbar, was so devoted.

All these buildings contain variations on the theme of white and subtly curving domes, though none can rival Shah Jahan's first great example in the Taj.

Aurangzeb, Shah Jahan's son, does not inherit his father's passionate interest in architecture. But he commissions two admirable buildings in the same tradition. One is the Badshahi Mosque in Lahore, begun in 1673; even larger than his father's Friday Mosque in Delhi, it rivals it in the beauty of its domes. The other, begun in 1662, goes to the other extreme; the tiny Pearl Mosque in the Red Fort in Delhi, begun in 1662 for Aurangzeb's private worship, is a small miracle of white marble.

It is these marble highlights which catch the eye. But the Red Forts containing the two Pearl Mosques are themselves extraordinary examples of 17th century castles.

The Moghuls after Aurangzeb: 18th century

When the Moghul emperor Aurangzeb is in his eighties, and the empire in disarray, an Italian living in India (Niccolao Manucci) predicts appalling bloodshed on the old man's death, worse even than that which disfigured the start of Aurangzeb's reign. The Italian is right. In the war of succession which begins in 1707, two of Aurangzeb's sons and three of his grandsons are killed.

Violence and disruption is the pattern of the future. The first six Moghul emperors have ruled for a span of nearly 200 years. In the 58 years after Aurangzeb's death, there are eight emperors - four of whom are murdered and one deposed.

This degree of chaos has a disastrous effect on the empire built up by Akbar. The stability of Moghul India depends on the loyalty of those ruling its many regions. Some are administered on the emperor's behalf by governors, who are members of the military hierarchy. Others are ruled by princely families, who through treaty or marriage have become allies of the emperor.

In the 18th century rulers of each kind continue to profess loyalty to the Moghul emperor in Delhi, but in practice they behave with increasing independence. The empire fragments into the many small principalities whose existence will greatly help the British in India to gain control, by playing rival neighbors off against each other.

In the short term, though, there is a more immediate danger. During the 1730s a conqueror in the classic mold of Genghis Khan or Timur emerges in Persia. He seizes the Persian throne in 1736, taking the title Nadir Shah.

Later that year he captures the stronghold of Kandahar. The next major fortress on the route east, that of Kabul, is still in Moghul hands - a treasured possession since the time of Babur. Nadir Shah takes it in 1738, giving him control of the territory up to the Khyber Pass. Beyond the Khyber lies the fabulous wealth of India. Like Genghis Khan in 1221, and Timur in 1398, Nadir Shah moves on.

In December 1738 Nadir Shah crosses the Indus at Attock. Two months later he defeats the army of the Moghul emperor, Mohammed Shah. In March he enters Delhi. The conqueror has iron control over his troops and at first the city is calm. It is broken when an argument between citizens and some Persian soldiers escalates into a riot in which 900 Persians are killed. Even now Nadir Shah forbids reprisals until he has inspected the scene. But when he rides through the city, stones are thrown at him. Someone fires a musket which kills an officer close to the shah.

In reprisal he orders a massacre. The killing lasts for a day. The number of the dead is more than 30,000.

Amazingly, when the Moghul emperor begs for mercy for his people, the Persian conqueror is able to grant it. The killing stops, for the collection of Delhi's valuables to begin.

Untold wealth travels west with the Persians. The booty includes the two most spectacular possessions of the Moghul emperors - the Peacock Throne, commissioned by Shah Jahan, and the Koh-i-Nur diamond. Nadir Shah is able to send a decree home from Delhi remitting all taxes in Persia for three years. In addition to the jewels and the gold, he takes with him 1000 elephants, 100 masons and 200 carpenters. The parallel with the visit of Timur, 341 years previously, is almost exact.

Read more: <http://www.historyworld.net/wrldhis/PlainTextHistories.asp?historyid=ab99#ixzz3gY4cd7nU>

(ISN) Interactive Student Notebook Assignments

1. Copied content specific questions

(ISN) Discussion and Study Questions

1. Guiding Questions

(ISN) Tech Activities

Vocabulary

Quizlet Flashcard Vocabulary for Muslim Gunpowder Empires

TABLE 7.1:

Akbar the Great	A Mughal ruler and grandson of Babur who ruled from 1542 to 1605. He united Northern India by conquering neighboring Muslim and Hindu states. He is noted for halting the persecution of Hindus.
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TABLE 7.1: (continued)

Janissaries	Originally slaves of the sultan and drawn from the people of conquered Christian territories, members of an elite force of soldiers in the Ottoman Empire that became a powerful political force within the Ottoman state.
Mughal Empire	("Mongols" Empire) a Muslim-Indian Empire originally established by Asian nomads who, taking advantage of the growing weakness of the Gupta Empire, invaded the Indian subcontinent in the 16th century and established an empire that would last from 1526 to 1837. Eventually it became one of the gunpowder Empires.
Ottoman Empire	One of the largest and longest lasting empires in history (623 years), it lasted from 1299 until the monarchy was abolished in 1922 and the nation of Turkey was established. One of the "Gunpowder Empires."
Safavid Empire	One of the Islamic "gunpowder empires" that established the school of Shiite Islam as its official religion, marking one of the most important turning points in Muslim history. At its height, this empire expanded their control over all of modern Iran, Iraq, Afghanistan and beyond.
Shah	"King" in Persian, the title of the ruler of certain South Asian and Central Asian countries, especially Persia (modern Iran).
Sikhism	A nonviolent religious ideology that blends elements of Buddhism, Hinduism and Sufism. The belief system is predominant in the Punjab region of India.
Suleiman the Magnificent	Sultan of the Ottoman Empire from 1520 to 1566 who presided over the apex of the Ottoman Empire's military, political, and economic power. He is also known as "The Lawgiver" for his complete reconstruction of the Ottoman legal system.
Sultan	The title of certain Muslim rulers who claimed almost full sovereignty without claiming the overall title of caliphate; a powerful governor of a Turkish-Muslim province within the caliphate.
Sultanates Turkish	Muslim provinces ruled by a sultan.
Taj Mahal	Located in Agra, India, it is considered by many to be one of the most beautiful tombs in the world, built by the Mughal emperor Shah Jahan for his deceased wife.
Tamerlane (or Timur)	A 14th century Muslim-Mongol conqueror who briefly restored the Mongol Empire established by Genghis Khan. He referred to himself as "the sword of Islam." He conquered both Russia and Persia, swept through northern India, and then crushed the Ottomans, briefly halting their expansion.
vizier	A prime minister in a Muslim kingdom or empire.

Internet Resources

7.2 Chinese Renaissance

6.2 Chinese Renaissance

Student Learning Objectives

At the end of this section the student will be able to

- summarize the major political, economic, and cultural developments in Tang and Song China and their impact on Eastern Asia.[WHS.4H]
- create and interpret thematic maps, graphs, and charts to demonstrate the relationship between geography and the historical development of a region or nation.[WHS.15A]
- analyze and compare geographic distributions and patterns in world history shown on maps, graphs, charts, and models.[WHS.15B]
- interpret maps, charts, and graphs to explain how geography has influenced people and events in the past.[WHS.16C]
- describe the changing roles of women, children, and families during major eras of world history.[WHS.24A]
- analyze examples of how art, architecture, literature, music, and drama reflect the history of the cultures in which they are produced.[WHS.26B]
- identify the origin and diffusion of major ideas in mathematics, science, and technology that occurred in river valley civilizations, classical Greece and Rome, classical India, and the Islamic caliphates between 700 and 1200 and in China from the Tang to Ming dynasties.[WHS.27A]
- analyze information by sequencing, categorizing, identifying cause-and-effect relationships, comparing, contrasting, finding the main idea, summarizing, making generalizations and predictions, drawing inferences and conclusions, and developing connections between historical events over time.[WHS.29F]
- use social studies terminology correctly.[WHS.30A]
- use standard grammar, spelling, sentence structure, and punctuation.[WHS.30B]
- interpret and create written, oral, and visual presentations of social studies information.[WHS.30C]
- transfer information from one medium to another.[WHS.30D]

Tang Dynasty —The Golden Age

In the chaos that reigned after the fall of the Han dynasty in 220 C.E., no one knew if a unified China would ever again be possible. Warring clans, political murders, and foreign invaders characterized the next four centuries in which the Three Kingdoms (220-280 C.E.), the Western and Eastern Jin (265-420 C.E.), and the Northern and Southern dynasties (420-588 C.E.) did little to build upon the accomplishments of earlier Chinese culture.

The feuding clans of China were finally united once again in 589 C.E. by Wen-ti and the Sui dynasty (581-617 C.E.), a ruthless leadership often compared to the Legalist Qin regime. The Sui dynasty accomplished great feats, including another restoration of the Great Wall of China and the construction of the Great Canal linking the eastern plains to the northern rivers. However, the Sui taxed peasants heavily, and forced them into hard labor. Lasting only 36 years, the Sui dynasty weakened after suffering heavy losses in fighting against Korea. It fell apart when the general population lost faith in the government and revolted.

History Repeating

The rise of the Tang dynasty in China mirrored the rise of the Han over 800 years earlier. Like the Han dynasty before them, the Tang dynasty was created after the fall of a ruthless leadership. And like the Han before them, the



FIGURE 7.1

T'ai Tsung was the most out-standing and dynamic ruler of the Tang dynasty and one of the greatest rulers of China.

Tang dynasty had their own powerful leader, Emperor Tai-tsung.

The first emperor of the Tang dynasty, Kao-tsu (618-626 C.E.), continued many of the practices begun during the Sui dynasty. He granted equal amounts of land to each adult male in return for taxes and continued the trend of local government rule. Kao-tsu also created a monetary system of copper coins and silk ribbons. He wrote a set of laws,

revised every two decades that lasted into the Ming dynasty of the 14th century.

One of Kao-tsu's sons, General Li Shih-min, succeeded in eliminating all political rivals of the Tang and established firm control of the Tang dynasty over the newly reunified China. He then proceeded to murder his brothers, and forced his father to abdicate the throne to him. Preferring his temple name, Tai-tsung took the throne in 626 C.E. The Golden Age of China had begun.

The Fruits of Labor

Tai-tsung maintained many of the political policies already in place. He shrank the government at both the central and state levels. The money saved by using a smaller government enabled Tai-tsung to save food as surplus in case of famine and to provide economic relief for farmers in case of flooding or other disasters. Civil exams based on merit were used once again and resulted in wise court officials

The only major military pressure came from the Turkish frontier, but the Turks were defeated by 657 C.E., beginning 150 years of Tang control over the region. As a result of these improvements and victories, the common people were successful and content. It was during this successful era that woodblock printing and gunpowder were invented.

Meanwhile, the borders of the Tang dynasty expanded far into Korea and central Asia. China became even larger during the Tang dynasty than it had been during the Han. The Chinese regularly communicated with lands as far west as Persia, present-day Afghanistan, and the Byzantine Empire. Goods and, more importantly, ideas continued to be exchanged on the Silk Road.

The Melting Pot Boils Over

The capital cities of the Tang dynasty, Ch'ang-an and Loyang, became melting pots to many cultures and a large number of beliefs such as Zoroastrianism and Islam. Buddhist missionaries had begun the difficult journey from northern India to China as early as the 1st century C.E., but it was not until the Tang dynasty that Buddhism reached its height of popularity in China. By the mid-7th century, new Buddhist schools of thought had developed a distinctly Chinese flavor, including the Ch'an school, which later evolved into Zen Buddhism.

Chinese trade routes during the Tang dynasty

The Tang dynasty was a period of expansion, especially in trading with foreign lands. Caravan routes traveled as far as Syria for items ranging from glassware and tapestries to jasmine and other exotic herbs.

However, during the late Tang period the economy was suffering. The emperor Wu-tsung, a devout Taoist, attempted to eliminate Buddhism from 843 to 845 C.E. by closing thousands of temples in order to take control of their wealth. Although the attempt to destroy Buddhism lasted only a short time, the religion never recovered, instead beginning a steady decline in China. The decline of Buddhism and conflicts between the Chinese and foreign traders marked the beginning of a change in Chinese attitudes. After hundreds of years of cultural exchange, by 836 C.E. no foreigners would be welcome in China.

Poetic Justice

A great contribution of the Tang dynasty came years after the death of Tai-tsung, when the dynasty was at its political and economic height. The Tang dynasty was a golden age of art and literature for the Chinese. Li Po, Tu Fu, and Wang Wei were poets renowned for the simplicity and naturalism of their writings. The poetry and art of the times however were deeply affected by the rebellion of northeastern troops against court officials in the capital city of Ch'ang-an in 756 C.E. Named after the leader of the rebel troops, the An Lu-shan Rebellion caused the deaths of countless people, including members of the royal family, and marked the beginning of the end for the Tang dynasty.

The decline of the dynasty increased during the second half of the 9th century as factions within the central government began feuding. These feuds led to political plots and scandals, with assassinations not uncommon. The dynasty split into ten separate kingdoms as the central government weakened. After a series of collapses beginning around 880 C.E., northern invaders finally destroyed the Tang dynasty. The Golden Age was over.

The Song empire: 960-1279

The rapid succession of the Five Dynasties is brought to an end by a warlord who wins power in 960. He establishes the sixth in the sequence on a more firm footing, as the Song dynasty. He does so by reducing the power of regional commanders (keeping the best regiments under his own command at the center) and by giving greater authority to the civilian administration.

As a result this is the heyday of the Confucians. Ever since the Han dynasty, scholar officials have supposedly been selected by merit in the civil-service exams (see Chinese examinations). But heredity and corruption have often frustrated this intention, reserving the jade insignia of office for the families of the powerful rather than the talented. Now, under the Song emperors, the search for talent becomes rigorous. As an early Song ruler puts it, 'bosoms clothed in coarse fabrics may carry qualities of jade', and he is determined that such bosoms shall not 'remain unknown'.

The result is a China weaker in military terms than its predecessors but of greater sophistication. The territory controlled by the Song emperors is gradually reduced under pressure from less civilized intruders, particularly from the north. But enough remains to be the basis of a strong economy and a rich urban culture.

Northern Song:960-1127

For the first half of the dynasty, known as Northern Song, the capital is at Kaifeng - an important center where the Grand Canal joins the Yellow River. The city includes 16 square miles within its walls and has an estimated population of more than a million people. It is not the only one of its kind. By the end of the dynasty Soozhou, Hangzhou and Canton (already the port for foreign merchants) are all of this size.

In these great cities the Chinese enjoy the fruits of trade (now carried in exceptionally large merchant ships, and often negotiated in paper money), the benefits of technology (such as printing) and the aesthetic delights of pottery, painting and poetry.

These pleasures are interrupted from time to time by the demands of the Khitan, a tribe from eastern Mongolia who have settled in north China and have established their own version of a Chinese dynasty (the Liao, 907-1125). The Khitan are the first to make a capital city in what is now Beijing. They are such troublesome neighbors that the Song regularly make large payments to them (of silk, grain, copper and silver) in return for peace.

A more drastic interruption occurs when another aggressive group from the northern steppes, the Jurchen, overwhelm the Liao dynasty in 1125. Two years later they capture the Song capital, Kaifeng, and carry off the Song emperor and 3000 of his court. But even this disaster proves only a dislocation.

Southern Song: 1127-1279

A prince of the imperial family, avoiding capture at Kaifeng, establishes a new administration at the other end of the Grand Canal, at Hangzhou. Here the Southern Song continue for another 150 years, in territory reduced to a mere fraction of the China of the T'ang empire.

But civilized Chinese life thrives in the exceptionally beautiful city of Hangzhou, at the heart of China's richest agricultural region - the rice fields of the south. It will continue to thrive until the arrival of another intruder, of a different caliber from all previous northern barbarians. Though not Chinese, he becomes emperor of China. He is perhaps the only emperor in Chinese history whose name is widely known - Kublai Khan.

Paper money in China: 10th - 15th century

Paper money is first experimented with in China in about 910, during the Five Dynasties period. It is a familiar currency by the end of the century under the Song dynasty. Another three centuries later it is one of the things about China which most astonishes Marco Polo (see Bank notes in China).

He describes in great detail how the notes are authenticated, and then unwittingly touches on the danger lurking within the delightful freedom to print money. He says that the emperor of China makes so many notes each year that he could buy the whole treasure of the world, 'though it costs him nothing'. By the early 15th century inflation has become such a problem that paper currency is abolished in the Ming empire.

Chinese publishing: 10th - 11th century

Printing from wood blocks, as in the Diamond Sutra, is a laborious process. Yet the Chinese printers work wonders. In the 10th and 11th centuries all the Confucian classics are published for the use of scholar officials, together with huge numbers of Buddhist and Daoist works (amounting to around 5000 scrolls of each) and the complete Standard Histories since the time of Sima Qian.

The carving of so many characters in reverse on wood blocks is an enormous investment of labor, but the task is unavoidable until the introduction of movable type. This innovation, once again, seems to have been pioneered in China but achieved in Korea.

In the heyday of classical Chinese culture, a civilized gentleman - meaning a Confucian official - should be adept in three different artistic fields. When he settles down before a fresh sheet of paper and dips his brush in the ink (ground from a block of pigment by a servant), no one can be certain whether he is about to pen an impromptu poem, paint a quick impression of a romantic landscape or fashion some traditional phrase in exquisite Chinese characters.

The three skills, all expressed in the beauty of brush strokes, are closely linked. A 'soundless poem' is a conventional Chinese term for a picture. And a typical poem by the Song master Ou-yang Hsiu Sounds like a painting.

Poetry and painting in Song China (960-1279) are largely social activities, both in the creation and in the appreciation of the work. On a convivial occasion, with wine flowing, Confucians will compete with each other in writing or painting. In more sober vein, among connoisseurs, a collector will bring the scrolls from their boxes and will unroll them to be admired and discussed.

China's past is also now a theme for connoisseurs, in a fashion pioneered by Ou-yang Hsiu (and echoed centuries later in Italy during the Renaissance). Ou-yang Hsiu clambers 'on precarious cliffs and inaccessible gorges, in wild forests and abandoned tombs' to make rubbings which he publishes, in about 1000 portfolios, as his *Collection of Ancient Inscriptions*.

Inevitably much of the painting done by enthusiastic amateurs is dull and conventional. This is particularly true during the reign of the emperor Hui Tsung. Himself a talented painter, of a carefully exact kind, he sets up an official academy of painting.

Those who want to get on at court are unlikely to disagree with the emperor on matters of artistic style. Others, opting out of the system, come under the influence of Chan or Zen Buddhism with its emphasis on freedom of expression. The Chan painters of the Song dynasty, using a few quick brushstrokes to capture a fleeting visual moment, provide one of the most brilliant interludes in the story of Chinese art.

Pottery of the Song dynasty: 10th - 13th century

Of the many arts which thrive in China at this time, Song ceramics are outstanding. The simple shapes of the pottery and porcelain of this dynasty, and the elegance of the glazes (usually monochrome), have set standards of refinement admired in subsequent centuries throughout the world.

Among the best known of these wares are the celadons, with their thick transparent green glazes, which are made at Longquan, near the southern Song capital of Hangzhou. Also influential are the black wares known as temmoku, popular with Buddhist monks for the tea ceremony and exported in large quantities for this purpose to Japan.

A tower clock in China: 1094

After six years' work, a Buddhist monk by the name of Su Song completes a great tower, some thirty feet high, which is designed to reveal the movement of the stars and the hours of the day. Figures pop out of doors and strike bells to signify the hours.

The power comes from a water wheel occupying the lower part of the tower. Su Song has designed a device which stops the water wheel except for a brief spell, once every quarter of an hour, when the weight of the water (accumulated in vessels on the rim) is sufficient to trip a mechanism. The wheel, lurching forward, drives the machinery of the tower to the next stationary point in a continuing cycle.

This device (which in Su Song's tower must feel like a minor earthquake every time it slams the machinery into action) is an early example of an escapement - a concept essential to mechanical clockwork. In any form of clock based on machinery, power must be delivered to the mechanism in intermittent bursts which can be precisely regulated. The rationing of power is the function of the escapement. The real birth of mechanical clockwork awaits a reliable version, developed in Europe in the 13th century.

Meanwhile Su Song's tower clock, ready for inspection by the emperor in 1094, is destroyed shortly afterwards by marauding barbarians from the north.

The Chinese junk: 12th century - 15th century

The design of the Chinese junk (a western word from the Malayan *djong*, meaning 'boat') is perfected during the later part of the Song dynasty, when the loss of the northern empire increases the importance of overseas trade. A merchant fleet, and a navy to defend it, become essential. The resulting junk is an ideal craft for the South China seas.

The region suffers violent typhoons, so a strong hull is essential. The Chinese achieve this by means of the bulkhead - a partition across the interior of the hull, and sometimes along its length as well. Bulkheads make the hull rigid and also provide watertight compartments - invaluable when a leak at sea needs repair.

The Chinese junk has other pioneering features later copied elsewhere. Traditionally built without a keel (allowing access to shallow waters), the junk is ill-equipped to sail a straight course until an important innovation of the Song period - the addition of the stern post rudder. This is a large heavy board which can be lowered on a sternpost when the junk moves into deep water. Coming below the bottom of the boat, and capable of hinging on its post, it fulfills the function both of keel and rudder.

Until this time, throughout the world, the conventional method of steering a boat has been by means of a long oar projecting from the stern.

Another important innovation on the Chinese junk is multiple masts. Marco Polo describes sea-going junks as having four masts, with a further two which can be raised when required. Each mast has square-rigged sails. They concertina on themselves, when reefed, in the manner of a Venetian blind.

These ships are huge. Marco Polo claims that sixty private cabins for merchants can be built on the deck, and archaeological evidence suggests that by the 15th century a large merchant junk is about 450 feet from the bow to

the high poop in the stern - six times the length of the contemporary Portuguese caravel. In 1973 the discovery of a junk of the 13th-century confirms much of what Marco Polo reports from the time of Kublai Khan.

Read more: <http://www.historyworld.net/wrldhis/PlainTextHistories.asp?groupid=174&HistoryID=aa21>rack=pthc#ixzz3gdFN>

Footbinding

Footbinding is the practice of binding a young girl's feet with cloth in order to restrict their size and control their appearance. Footbinding was practiced in China from the 10th century until the 20th century.

Footbinding was initially reserved for the elites, particularly in north China, but by the 12th century, it had become popular among women of all social classes, including the poor.

Like many other markers of beauty that are associated with the wealthy, bound feet were considered beautiful partly because a woman with bound feet could not work (and often could not walk), demonstrating her high status and wealth. In addition, in China, to have bound feet meant that a woman was disciplined, virtuous, and that she was brought up correctly. Parents looking for brides for their sons would find all of these traits attractive, so bound feet would not only be a sign of status but a marker of marriageability. The fact that a girl with bound feet could not walk also most likely meant that she was a virgin, making her even more attractive.

Girls' feet were typically bound at the age of five or six, with tightly wound strips of cloth. Often the big toe was left unbound, but the other toes were folded down under the sole of the foot. Over a period of months and years, the bandages would be removed and the foot rewrapped. The result was that the feet would break and become more deformed as the girl reached adulthood, but would remain small and bent over. Many girls walked on their heels because the pain in the toes was so severe, leading to very hard heels. (Once the healing process was over, however, and the bones had healed into their new position, the pain was no longer a problem.) Other results included infection, paralysis, and muscular atrophy. Different-sized feet were called different names with the lotus of gold (which measured three inches) being the most sought after.

Because of this intense attention on the feet, bound or lotus feet were fetishized, as were the lotus shoes made for them. There are questions today as to whether men were sexually aroused by the sight, touch, or smell of the feet. Some reports indicate that men fondled and licked the feet, while others indicate that the somewhat rotten smell had to be masked by perfume and that men would never see a woman's feet at all. In either case, prostitutes (both male and female) and concubines adopted the practice to make themselves more beautiful and sexually attractive.

Footbinding was prohibited in China in 1911 but continued in isolated regions well into the 1930s. When the Revolutionary Party, which banned footbinding, found women in villages with bound feet, they forced them to unbind them, which caused almost as much pain as the initial binding. Unbound feet were known as "liberated feet" and some grew as much as an inch after unbinding. In 1998, the last factory to manufacture shoes for women with bound feet ended production. Some effects of footbinding are permanent: some elderly Chinese women today suffer from disabilities related to bound feet.

DeMello, Margo. (2015). footbinding. In *Daily Life through History*. Retrieved July 22, 2015, from <http://dailylife.abcclio.com/>

Vocabulary

[Quizlet Flashcards for Chinese Renaissance](#)

TABLE 7.2:

foot-binding	A Chinese custom of binding the feet of young girls painfully tight to prevent further growth.
Grand Canal	Located in China, the longest canal or artificial river in the world.

TABLE 7.2: (continued)

scholar-gentry	A class of powerful, well-to-do people who enjoy a high social status, especially, civil servants appointed by the emperor of China to perform day-to-day governance of the Empire.
Song Dynasty	A Chinese dynasty that succeeded the Tang, lasting from 960 to 1279, that continued the Golden Age of Chinese culture. The period was marked by significant social and economic progress, including the first use of paper currency, standardized coins, the compass, gunpowder, and typography and noted for its outstanding scholars and poets.
Tang Dynasty	A Chinese dynasty that lasted from A.D. 618 - 907 and brought forth a period of peace and prosperity referred to as a Golden Age. This dynasty restored order to China after the earlier Hun invasions that brought about the collapse of the Han. This dynasty was also noted for its expansion into Korea, Manchuria and parts of Central Asia, restoring Confucian texts and civil service exams, establishing a census, and building public works.

7.3 Mongol Empire (Yuan) to Ming

6.3 Mongol Empire (Yuan) to Ming

Student Learning Objectives

At the end of this section the student will be able to

- identify major causes and describe the major effects of the following important turning points in world history from 600 to 1450: the spread of Christianity, the decline of Rome and the formation of medieval Europe; the development of Islamic caliphates and their impact on Asia, Africa, and Europe; the Mongol invasions and their impact on Europe, China, India, and Southwest Asia.[WHS.1C]
- summarize the changes resulting from the Mongol invasions of Russia, China, and the Islamic world.[WHS.4K]
- explain Ming China's impact on global trade.[WHS.7E]
- create and interpret thematic maps, graphs, and charts to demonstrate the relationship between geography and the historical development of a region or nation.[WHS.15A]
- analyze and compare geographic distributions and patterns in world history shown on maps, graphs, charts, and models.[WHS.15B]
- interpret maps, charts, and graphs to explain how geography has influenced people and events in the past.[WHS.16C]
- identify the origin and diffusion of major ideas in mathematics, science, and technology that occurred in river valley civilizations, classical Greece and Rome, classical India, and the Islamic caliphates between 700 and 1200 and in China from the Tang to Ming dynasties.[WHS.27A]
- analyze information by sequencing, categorizing, identifying cause-and-effect relationships, comparing, contrasting, finding the main idea, summarizing, making generalizations and predictions, drawing inferences and conclusions, and developing connections between historical events over time.[WHS.29F]
- use social studies terminology correctly.[WHS.30A]
- use standard grammar, spelling, sentence structure, and punctuation.[WHS.30B]
- interpret and create written, oral, and visual presentations of social studies information.[WHS.30C]
- transfer information from one medium to another.[WHS.30D]

Rise of the Mongol Empire

As Europe lived through its High Middle Ages, the Mongol Empire, the largest contiguous land empire in history, began to emerge and would exist throughout the 13th and 14th centuries. Beginning in the Central Asian steppes, at its greatest extent it included all of modern-day Mongolia, China, parts of Burma, Romania, Pakistan, Siberia, Ukraine, Belarus, Cilicia, Anatolia, Georgia, Armenia, Persia, Iraq, Central Asia, and much or all of Russia,. Many additional countries became tributary states of the Mongol Empire.

The empire unified the nomadic Mongol and Turkic tribes of historical Mongolia under the leadership of Genghis Khan, who was proclaimed ruler of all Mongols in 1206. The empire grew rapidly under his rule and then under his descendants, who sent invasions in every direction. The vast transcontinental empire connected the east with the west with an enforced Pax Mongolica, or Mongol Peace, allowing trade, technologies, commodities, and ideologies to be disseminated and exchanged across Eurasia.

Mongol invasions and conquests progressed over the next century, until 1300, by which time the vast empire covered much of Asia and Eastern Europe. Historians regard the Mongol raids and invasions as some of the deadliest and most terrifying conflicts in human history. They spread panic ahead of them and induced population displacement

on an unprecedented scale.

The Beginnings of the Mongol Empire

Before Genghis Khan became the leader of Mongolia, he was known as Temujin. When his young wife Börte was kidnapped by a rival tribe, Temujin united the nomadic, previously ever-rivaling Mongol tribes under his rule through political manipulation and military might. He defeated the tribe that had captured Börte and rescued her.



FIGURE 7.2

Genghis Khan Genghis Khan as portrayed in a 14th-century Yuan-era album. He was the first leader of the unified Mongols and first emperor under the Mongolian Empire.

As Temujin gained power, he forbade looting of his enemies without permission, and he implemented a policy of sharing spoils with his warriors and their families instead of giving it all to the aristocrats. Because of this, he was a popular leader. However, these policies brought him into conflict with his uncles, who were also legitimate heirs to Mongol succession, as well as his generals.

War ensued, and Temujin prevailed, destroying all the remaining rival tribes from 1203–1205 and bringing them under his sway. In 1206, Temujin was crowned as the leader of the Great Mongol Nation. It was then that he assumed the title of Genghis Khan, meaning universal leader, marking the start of the Mongol Empire.

Innovations Under Genghis Khan

Genghis Khan innovated many ways of organizing his army, dividing it into decimal subsections of 10; 100; 1,000; and 10,000. He also founded the Imperial Guard. He rewarded loyalty with high positions as heads of army units and households, even though many had originally been from very low-rank clans.

He proclaimed a new law of the empire and codified everything related to the everyday life and political affairs of the people. He outlawed the theft of other's properties, fighting among themselves, and hunting animals during the breeding season.

He also made changes regarding women in Mongol society. He forbade the selling of women, and continued to encourage the age-old tradition of allowing women to discuss major, public decisions. For example, unlike other Mongols and leaders in the region, Ghengis allowed his wives to sit at the table with him and encouraged them to voice their opinions. Apparently, they helped him decide the next khan. He eventually also allowed widows to choose to remarry—which was previously uncommon—to help keep them from poverty and other social ills.

He appointed his adopted brother as supreme judge, ordering him to keep records of the empire. He decreed religious freedom and supported domestic and international trade. He exempted the poor and the clergy from taxation. Because of this, Muslims, Buddhists, and Christians from Manchuria, North China, India, and Persia in fact joined Genghis willingly long before his foreign conquests. He also encouraged literacy, adopting the Uyghur script, which would form the Empire's Uyghur-Mongolian script.

The Mongol Empire Under Genghis Khan

Genghis Khan initially forged the initial Mongol Empire in Central Asia with the unification of the Mongol and Turkic confederations on the Mongolian plateau in 1206. The Mongols invaded westward into Central Asia with the conquests of the Western Xia Dynasty in 1209, the Jin Dynasty in 1234, the Kara-Khitan Khanate in 1218, and the Khwarazmian Empire in 1221.

These conquests seriously depopulated large areas of Islamic central Asia and northeastern Iran, since any city or town that resisted the Mongols was subject to destruction. Each soldier was required to execute a certain number of persons, with the number varying according to circumstances. For example, after the conquest of the city of Urgench, each Mongol warrior, in an army that might have consisted of 20,000 soldiers, was required to execute 24 people.

By 1260, the armies of the Mongol Empire had swept with overwhelming force out of the Asian steppes, utterly destroyed ancient and powerful kingdoms in the Middle East, and reached as far west as Egypt and Poland before halting their advance. During the same period, Mongol assaults on China replaced the Sung Dynasty with the Yuan Dynasty. The Mongols' military tactics, based on the swift and ferocious use of mounted cavalry, crushed even the strongest European and Islamic forces that took the field against them. They also learned primitive cannon and firearm technologies and brought these to the West.

Conquest of the Western Xia Dynasty

With the political rise of Genghis Khan in 1206 CE, the Mongol Empire shared its western borders with the Western Xia Dynasty of the Tanguts. To the east and south was the Jin Dynasty of northern China.

Genghis Khan first planned for war with the Western Xia, correctly believing that the young, more powerful ruler of the Jin Dynasty would not come to the Western Xia Dynasty's aid. Despite initial difficulties in capturing the Western Xia's well-defended cities, Genghis Khan forced their surrender by 1209 CE.

Conquest of the Jin Dynasty

In 1211 CE, after the conquest of Western Xia, Genghis Khan moved to conquer the Jin Dynasty. The Jin's army commander made a tactical mistake in not attacking the Mongols at the first opportunity. Instead, he sent a messenger to Mongols. But the messenger defected and told the Mongols that the Jin Dynasty army was waiting for them on the other side of the Badger Pass. This was where the Mongols massacred thousands of Jin troops.

In 1215 CE Genghis captured and sacked the Jin capital of Zhongdu (modern-day Beijing). This forced the Emperor Xuanzong to move his capital south, abandoning the northern half of his kingdom to the Mongols. Between 1232 CE and 1233 CE, Kaifeng fell to the Mongols under the reign of Genghis' third son, Ögedei Khan. The last major battle between the Jin and the Mongols was the siege of Caizhou in 1234 CE, which marked the collapse of the Jin Dynasty.

Conquest of the Kara-Khitai Khanate

The Mongol Empire conquered the Kara-Khitai Khanate, an empire of formerly nomadic people in Central Asia, in the years 1216-1218 CE. The khanate was under the rule of Prince Küchlüg, who had converted to Buddhism and begun persecuting the Muslim majority among the Khitai. This alienated him from most of his people.

The Kara-Khitai attracted Genghis Khan's attention when they besieged Almaliq, a city belonging to vassals of the Mongol Empire. Genghis Khan dispatched an army, who, under the command of General Jebe, defeated the Kara-Khitai at their capital, Balasagun, and Küchlüg fled. Jebe gained support from the Kara-Khitai populace by announcing that Küchlüg's oppressive policy of religious persecution had ended. When his army followed Küchlüg to Kashgar in 1217, the populace revolted and turned on Küchlüg, forcing him to flee again for his life. Jebe pursued Küchlüg into modern Afghanistan. According to Persian historian Ata-Malik Juvayni, a group of hunters caught Küchlüg in 1218 and handed him over to the Mongols, who promptly beheaded him.

With Küchlüg's death, the Mongol Empire secured control over the Kara-Khitai and surrounding areas. The Mongols now had a firm outpost in Central Asia directly bordering the Khwarazmian Empire, in Greater Iran. Relations with the Khwarazms would quickly break down, leading to the Mongol invasion of that territory in 1219.

Conquest of the Khwarazmian Empire

In the early 13th century, the Khwarazmian Empire was governed by Shah Ala ad-Din Muhammad. Genghis Khan saw the potential advantage in Khwarazmia as a commercial trading partner using the Silk Road, and he sent a caravan to establish official trade ties with the empire. However, a Khwarazmian governor attacked the caravan, claiming that it contained spies. Genghis Khan sent a second group of ambassadors to meet the Shah himself instead of the governor. The Shah had all the men shaved and the Muslim ambassador beheaded and sent his head back with the two remaining ambassadors.

Outraged, Genghis Khan organized one of his largest and most brutal invasion campaigns, consisting of 200,000 soldiers in three divisions. He left a commander and troops in China, designated his successors to be his family members, and set out for Khwarazmia. Before he left, he divided his empire among his sons and immediate family and declared that his heir should be his charismatic third son, Ögedei. His invasion of Khwarazmia would last from 1219-1221 CE. His son Jochi led the first division into the northeast, and the second division under Jebe marched secretly to the southeast to form, with the first division, a pincer attack on Samarkand. The third division under Genghis Khan and Tolui moved in from the northwest. The Shah's army, in contrast, was fragmented, a decisive factor in their defeat—the Mongols were not facing a unified defense.

This conquest, even by the Mongols' standards, was brutal. They attacked the Khwarazm capital, Samarkand, using African prisoners as body shields. The people of Samarkand were ordered to evacuate and assemble outside the city, where they were killed and pyramids of severed heads raised as a symbol of victory. Genghis Khan also ordered the wholesale massacre of many of the civilians in cities he conquered and enslaved the rest of the population. He

executed the Khwarazm governor by pouring molten silver into his ears and eyes. Eventually the Shah fled rather than surrender, and he died shortly after, possibly killed by the Mongols. After their victory, Genghis Khan ordered two of his generals and their forces to completely destroy the remnants of the empire, including not only royal buildings but entire towns, populations, and even vast swaths of farmland.

In the city of Bukhara, Genghis Khan had the city's surviving population assemble in the town's mosque, where he declared that he was the flail of God, sent to punish them for their sins.

The assault on the wealthy trading city of Urgench proved to be the most difficult battle of the Mongol invasion. Mongolian casualties were higher than normal; they were not accustomed to city fighting. As usual, young women and children were given to the Mongol soldiers as slaves and the rest of the population was massacred. Persian scholar Juvayni states that 50,000 Mongol soldiers were given the task of executing 24 Urgench citizens each, which would mean that 1.2 million people were killed. The sacking of Urgench is considered one of the bloodiest massacres in human history.

During the invasion of Transoxania in 1219, along with the main Mongol force, Genghis Khan used a Chinese specialist catapult unit in battle. They were used again in 1220 in Transoxania. The Chinese may have used the catapults to hurl gunpowder bombs. In fact, historians have suggested that the Mongol invasion had brought Chinese gunpowder weapons to Central Asia. One of these was the huochong, a Chinese mortar.

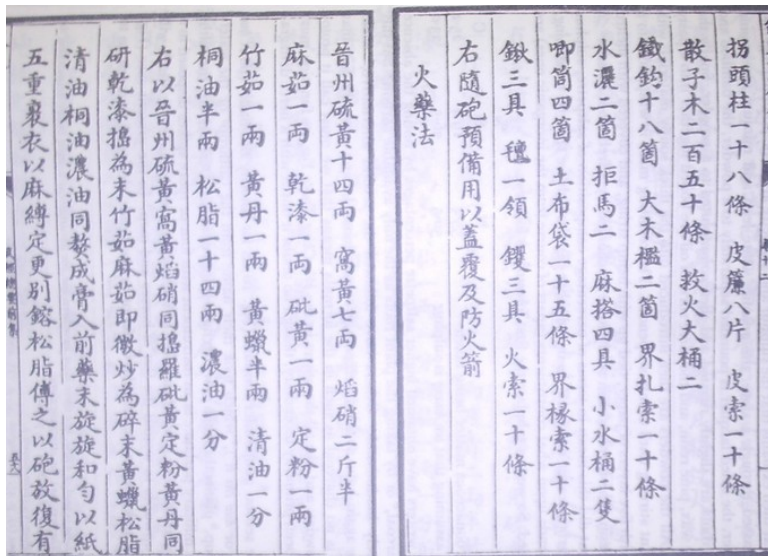


FIGURE 7.3

Chinese Formula for Gunpowder The earliest known written formula for gunpowder, from the Chinese *Wuji Zongyao*, a military compendium, of 1044 CE.

By the time of Genghis Khan's death in 1227, the Mongol Empire ruled from the Pacific Ocean to the Caspian Sea, an empire twice the size of the Roman Empire and Muslim Caliphate.

Pushing Further West

The Mongols conquered the areas today known as Iran, Iraq, Syria, Caucasus and parts of Turkey. Further Mongol raids reached southwards as far as Gaza into the Palestine region in 1260 and 1300. The major battles were the Siege of Baghdad in 1258, when the Mongols sacked the city that for 500 years had been the center of Islamic power, and the Battle of Ain Jalut in 1260, when the Muslim Egyptians were for the first time able to stop the Mongol advance.

The Mongols were never able to expand farther west than the Middle East due to a combination of political and environmental factors, such as lack of sufficient grazing room for their horses.

Expansion of the Mongol Empire Under Ögedei

Ögedei, Genghis Khan's third son, took over from his father and ruled the Mongol Empire from 1227 CE-1241 CE. One of his most important contributions to the empire was his conquest of Eastern Europe. These conquests involved the invasions of Russia, Hungary, Volga Bulgaria, and Poland. Over the course of three years (1237–1240), the Mongols would annihilate all the major East Slavic cities except for Novgorod and Pskov. As a result of the successful invasions, many of the conquered territories would become part of the Mongol Empire.



FIGURE 7.4

"Coronation of gedei" "Coronation Of Ögedei," 1229, by Rashid al-Din Source: Boundless. "The Mongol Empire Under Ögedei: Conquest of Eastern Europe."

The operations were masterminded by General Subutai and commanded by Batu Khan and Kadan, both grandsons of Genghis Khan. The Mongols had acquired Chinese gunpowder, which they deployed in battle during the invasion of Europe to great success, in the form of bombs hurled via catapult. The Mongols are in fact credited for introducing gunpowder and associated weapons into Europe.

Invasion and Conquest of Russian Lands

Ögedei Khan ordered his nephew (and grandson of Genghis Khan) Batu Khan to conquer Russia in 1235. (The territory was then called Rus' and encompassed modern-day Russia, Ukraine, Poland, Belarus, and the Baltic states.

) The main force arrived at Ryazan in December 1237. Ryazan refused to surrender, and the Mongols sacked it and then stormed through other Russian cities. Russian armies were defeated, and Grand Prince Yuri was killed in 1238. Major Russian cities—such as Vladimir, Torzhok, and Kozelsk—were captured.

Afterward, the Mongols turned their attention to the steppe, crushing various tribes and sacking Crimea to the west. They returned to Russia in 1239 and sacked several more cities. Most Russian princes fled. The Mongols sacked Kiev in 1240.

Invasion into Central Europe

The Mongols invaded Central Europe with three armies. One army defeated the fragmented Poland at the Battle of Legnica in 1241. Two days later the armies regrouped and crushed the Hungarian army at the Battle of Mohi, killing half the Hungarian population. In 1242, the Mongols extended their control into Austria and Dalmatia and Moravia. Where they found local resistance, they ruthlessly killed the population. Where the locale offered no resistance, they forced the men into servitude in the Mongol army.



FIGURE 7.5

The Battle of Legnica A depiction of the Battle of Legnica by Matthäus Merian the Elder, painted 1630

End of the Mongol Advance

The Mongols had pushed into Hungary, and were prepared to go into Western Europe. Hungarians who had survived the initial attack, or never engaged in battle, had begun a guerilla attack lead by survivors of the Hungarian royal family. The Mongols, even though still strong, were suffering defeats during these attacks. They never had a chance to regroup: Ögedei died in December 1241 after binge drinking during a hunting trip. Upon hearing the news, the Mongol forces halted their westward expansion and hastened back the thousands of miles to Karakorum, their capital in Mongolia, to elect his successor, sparing Western Europe from further violence.

Möngke the popular ruler of the Mongol Empire

From Ögedei's death in 1241 CE until 1260 CE the Mongol Empire was ruled under the regency of Ögedei's widow, Töregene Khatun. She set the stage for the ascension of her son, Güyük, as Great Khan, and he would take control

in 1246. He and Ögedei's nephew Batu Khan (both grandsons of Genghis Khan) fought bitterly for power; Güyük died in 1248 on the way to confront Batu.

Another nephew of Ögedei's (and so a third grandson of Genghis Khan's), Möngke, then took the throne in 1251, with Batu's approval. In 1255, well into Möngke's reign, Batu had repaired his relationship with the Great Khan and so finally felt secure enough again to prepare to return to invading westward into Europe. Fortunately for the Europeans, however, he died before his plans could be implemented.

The Mongol Empire Under Möngke

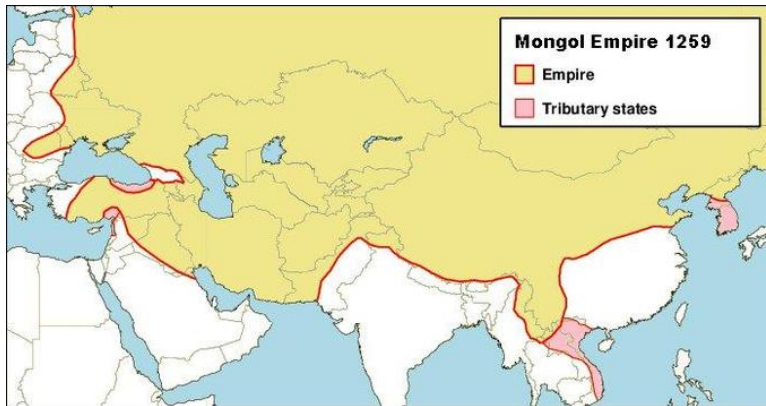


FIGURE 7.6

The Empire Under Möngke Map showing the borders of the Mongol Empire during the reign of Möngke Khan. "Mongol Empire."

Möngke forbade extravagant spending and limited gifts to the princes. He made merchants subject to taxes. He prohibited the demanding of goods and services from civilian populations by merchants, and he punished the unauthorized plundering of civilians by generals and princes (including his own son).

In 1253, Möngke established the Department of Monetary Affairs to control the issuance of paper money in order to eliminate the over issue of currency that had been a problem since Ögedei's reign. He standardized a system of measurement based on the silver ingot. Möngke recognized that if he did not meet Güyük's financial obligations, it would make merchants reluctant to continue business with the Mongols. Like many other rules around the world at this time, his hope was to take advantage of the budding commercial revolution in Europe and the Middle East. So he paid out all debts drawn by high-rank Mongol elites to these merchants. Ata-Malik Juvaini, a 13th-century Persian historian, commented on the virtue of this move, saying, "And from what book of history has it been read or heard...that a king paid the debt of another king? "

The Mongol Empire's administration followed a trend that was occurring in the Western Europe, where kings and emperors were finding efficient ways to manage their administrative and legal systems and fund crusades, conquests, and wars. From 1252–1259, Möngke conducted a census of the Mongol Empire including Iran, Afghanistan, Georgia, Armenia, Russia, Central Asia and North China. The new census counted not only households but also the number of men aged 15–60 and the number of fields, livestock, vineyards, and orchards.

Möngke tried to create a fixed poll tax collected by imperial agents, which could forward to the needy units. He taxed the wealthiest people most severely. But the census and taxation sparked popular riots and resistance in the western districts. These rebellions were ultimately put down, and Möngke would continue to rule until his death in 1259.

The Mongol Empire Under Kublai Khan: The Yuan Dynasty

Möngke's death in 1259 led to civil war between his two younger brothers, Kublai Khan and Ariq Böke. Kublai Khan emerged victorious and established the Yuan Dynasty in China in 1271, perhaps the Mongols' greatest triumph,

though it would eventually be overthrown in 1368 by the native Han Chinese, who would launch their own Ming Dynasty.



FIGURE 7.7

Kublai Khan A portrait of a young Kublai Khan by Anige, a Nepali artist in Kublai's court.

The Mongols under Kublai Khan's Yuan Dynasty invaded Sakhalin Island between 1264 and 1308. They also invaded Burma in 1277, 1283 and 1287, resulting in Burma's capitulation and the disintegration of the Pagan Kingdom. The invasions of Vietnam and Java resulted in defeat for the Mongols, although much of South Asia agreed to pay tribute in order to avoid further bloodshed.

In the south, after the fall of Xiangyang in 1273, the Mongols sought the final conquest of the Song Dynasty in South China. In 1271, Kublai renamed the new Mongol regime in China as the Yuan Dynasty, and he sought to strengthen his image as Emperor of China in order to win the control of the millions of Chinese. Kublai moved his headquarters to Dadu, what later became the modern city of Beijing. His establishment of a capital there was a controversial move to many Mongols who accused him of being too closely tied to Chinese culture.

The Mongols were eventually successful in their campaigns against China; the Chinese Song imperial family ultimately surrendered to the Yuan in 1276, making the Mongols the first non-Chinese people to conquer all of China. However, Kublai Khan's costly invasions of Burma, Annam, Sakhalin and Champa secured only the vassal status of those countries, and Mongol invasions of Japan (1274 and 1280) and Java (1293) failed.

Kublai Khan made significant reforms to existing institutions under the Yuan Dynasty. He divided the Dynasty's territory into a central region and peripheral regions that were under the control of various officials. He created an academy, offices, trade ports and canals, and sponsored arts and science. Mongol records also list 20,166 public schools created during his reign. He also, along with engineers, invented the Muslim trebuchet (hui-hui pao), a counterweight-based weapon that was highly successful in battle. He also continued to welcome trade and travel throughout his empire. Marco Polo; his father, an Italian merchant; and his father's trade partner traveled to China during this time, met Kublai Khan and lived amongst his court. Polo generally praised the wealth and extravagance of Khan and the Mongol Empire. Some historians also speculate that trade was so accessible between the empire and Europe, that it may have contributed to the flow of disease, especially the black plague in the mid-1300s.

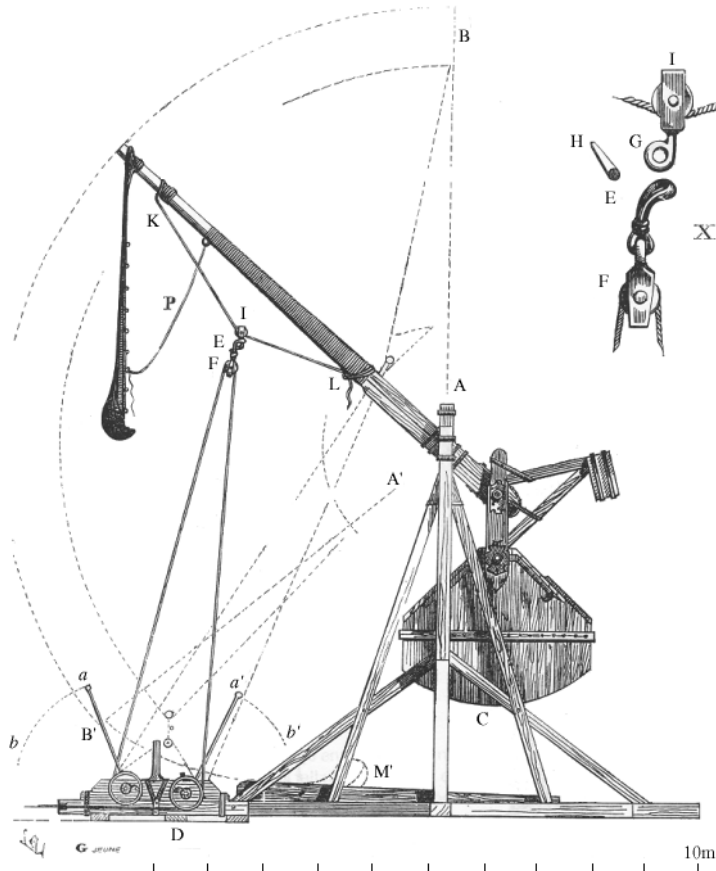


FIGURE 7.8

Trebuchet The scheme of the "Muslim trebuchet" (hui-hui pao), invented during Kublai Khan's rule.

The Development of the Mongol Empire into 4 Khanates

By the time of Kublai's death in 1294, the Mongol Empire had fractured into four separate empires, that was based on administrative zones Ghengis had created. The four empires were known as khanates, each pursuing its own separate interests and objectives: the Golden Horde Khanate in the northwest, the Chagatai Khanate in the west, the Ilkhanate in the southwest, and the Yuan Dynasty, based in modern-day Beijing. In 1304, the three western khanates briefly accepted the rule of the Yuan Dynasty in name, but when the Dynasty was overthrown by the Han Chinese Ming Dynasty in 1368, the Mongol Empire finally dissolved.

(ISN) Interactive Student Notebook Assignments

1. Copied content specific questions

**FIGURE 7.9**

Map showing changes in borders of the Mongol Empire from founding by Genghis Khan in 1206, Genghis Khan's death in 1227 to the rule of Kublai Khan (1260–1294). (Uses modern day borders) Mongol Empire By 1294 the empire had split into: Golden Horde Chagatai Khanate Ilkhanate Yuan Dynasty (Great Khanate)

(ISN) Discussion and Study Questions

1. Guiding Questions

(ISN) Tech Activities

Technology assignment that makes them do something with a computer

Vocabulary

[Quizlet Flashcard Vocabulary for The Mongols/Yuan to Ming](#)

TABLE 7.3:

Chinggis Khan	A Mongol leader who united the various Mongol tribes in the 13th century, made himself master of Mongolia, and then set out on a path of conquest, eventually establishing the largest uninterrupted land empire in all of world history.
Kublai Khan	A Mongol ruler and grandson of Ghengis Khan who reunited Northern and Southern China and established the Mongolian Yuan Dynasty over China.
Ming Dynasty	A Chinese dynasty that overthrew the Yuan Dynasty (Mongols) in 1368 and ruled until 1644, a 300 year period marked by peace and prosperity. Notable accomplishments of this dynasty were geographic expansion into Korea, Burma and Vietnam, the construction of the Forbidden City in Beijing, the explorations of Zheng He, and the beginning of early trade with Europeans along China's coastal ports.

TABLE 7.3: (continued)

Mongol Empire	Established in the 13th and 14th centuries by nomadic Asian tribes, this empire eventually grew to become the largest uninterrupted land empire in history, eventually establishing the Yuan dynasty in China, controlling Russia for 2 centuries, and assuming control over much of the Middle East.
Polo, Marco	A European merchant from Venice who, in the 1270's, journeyed along the Silk Road and visited China. The descriptions he wrote of his travels would inspire great curiosity among Europeans about Chinese culture and wealth.
Yuan Dynasty	A Mongol dynasty in China formally established by Kublai Khan in 1271 and lasting until 1368 when the Ming dynasty would finally restore Chinese control. It was the only foreign dynasty to rule over all of China (with key help from Chinese officials).
Zheng He	A Chinese explorer who, beginning in 1405 (before Europeans began sailing beyond their borders), sailed to India and as far as Arabia and eastern Africa in order to expand China's tribute system. His expeditions were notable for the sheer size of the fleets and the lengthy distances traveled.

Internet Resources

7.4 Japan Reflects Chinese Culture

6.4 Japan Reflects Chinese Culture

Student Learning Objectives

At the end of this section the student will be able to

- describe the major characteristics of and the factors contributing to the development of the political / social system of feudalism and the economic system of manorialism.[WHS.4C]
- describe the historical origins, central ideas, and spread of major religious and philosophical traditions, including Buddhism, Christianity, Confucianism, Hinduism, Islam, Judaism, Sikhism, and the development of monotheism.[WHS.23A]
- identify examples of religious influence on various events referenced in the major eras of world history.[WHS.23B]
- summarize the fundamental ideas and institutions of Eastern civilizations that originated in China and India.[WHS.25A]
- analyze information by sequencing, categorizing, identifying cause-and-effect relationships, comparing, contrasting, finding the main idea, summarizing, making generalizations and predictions, drawing inferences and conclusions, and developing connections between historical events over time.[WHS.29F]
- use social studies terminology correctly.[WHS.30A]
- use standard grammar, spelling, sentence structure, and punctuation.[WHS.30B]
- interpret and create written, oral, and visual presentations of social studies information.[WHS.30C]
- transfer information from one medium to another.[WHS.30D]

Japan: An Island Nation (The Archipelago)

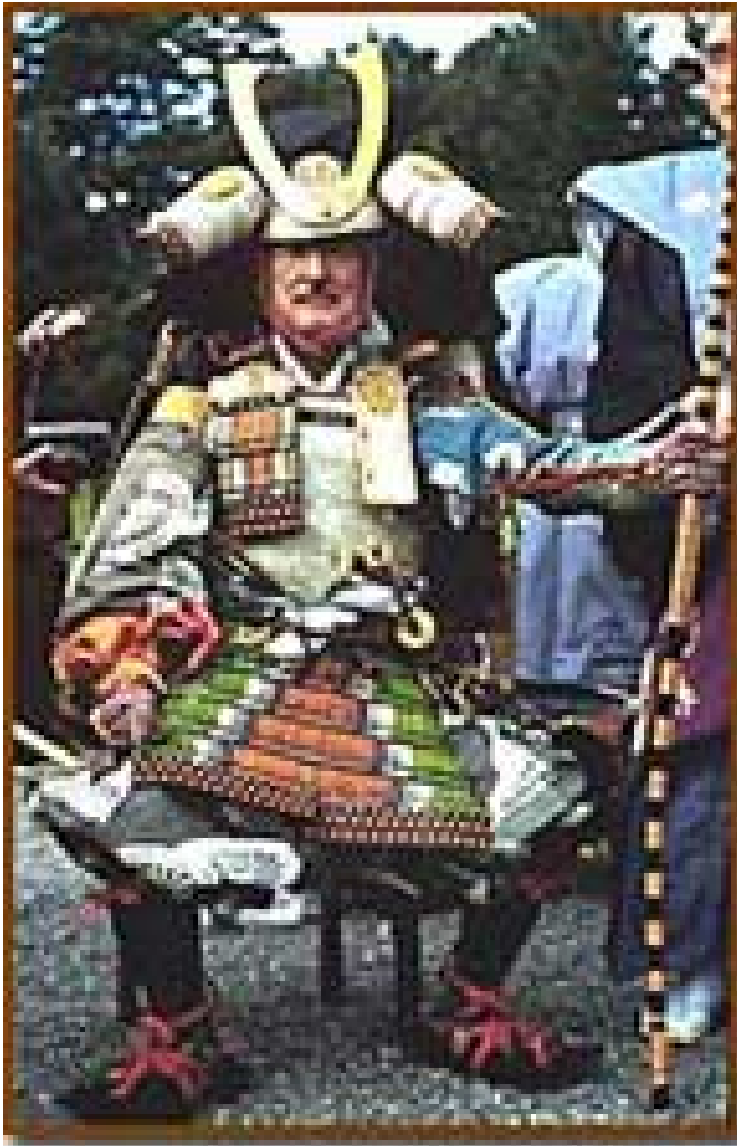
Today, this chain of almost 7,000 large and small islands, collectively called the Japanese archipelago, sweeps down from the eastern tip of Siberia in the north to the northern edge of Taiwan in the south.

Comparing this impressive stretch to the lengthy eastern coast of the United States, Japan would extend from Maine to Miami. With a total land area that is slightly smaller than California, Japan is a very long but also very skinny country.

The largest and most notable parts of the island chain are the vast agricultural island of Hokkaidô, the main island of Honshû, the small but spirited island of Shikoku, the historically significant island of Kyûshû, and the tropical paradise of Okinawa.

As part of the volcanic Ring of Fire that encircles the Pacific Ocean, Japan has its share of volcanoes, earthquakes, and tsunami. Mountains define the lay of the land: 80 percent of the country is too mountainous to be suitable for agriculture.

Japan's rocky terrain impeded smooth transportation and easy communication among different parts of the land, especially in earlier times. These difficulties contributed to a sense of regionalism that later played a significant role in Japan's feudal period.

**FIGURE 7.10**

Japan's samurai warriors had a strict code of conduct. They were the protectors of the Japanese people and the masters of the martial arts.

Perfect Proximity

Japan's location just off the fringe of continental Asia made it an ideal place for its unique culture to develop. The islands are situated close enough to China and Korea to benefit from the cultural and technological innovations of those great civilizations, but far enough removed across perilous seas to resist significant political and military domination from the two powers.

Japan has been commonly viewed as an isolated island nation with a single language and culture shared by a uniform population. From ancient times, though, Japan has been home to more than one ethnic group. The Ainu, a race of Caucasoid peoples whose origins are still shrouded in mystery, settled a significant portion of the north.

Korean immigrants have been crossing the sea to reside in Japan ever since they learned the islands existed. Japan's rich history of cultural exchange is not limited to interactions with its Chinese and Korean neighbors. Since the 16th century C.E., Portuguese and Dutch visitors brought European trade and culture to the Japanese isles. This vibrant tradition of international commerce and communication significantly shaped Japan's history and culture.



FIGURE 7.11

Although Japan is roughly the size of California, its geographical features are very different. The surrounding Sea of Japan and Pacific Ocean made foreign invasion difficult, while the mountains covering the land made unification on the island difficult as well.

So, what of this land where the ancient and the present collide every day? Pokémon and fuel-efficient cars are aspects of Japanese culture that can be seen in the modern world. But the ancient history of Japan reveals innovations and traditions that run much, much deeper.

Japanese Religion and Spirituality

If a tree falls in the woods and no one is around to hear it, does it make a sound?

Since ancient times, Japanese philosophers have pondered basic, unanswerable questions about their natural environment. The early Japanese believed that the world around them was inhabited by gods and spirits, from streaks of mist obscuring jagged mountain peaks to water cascading over secluded waterfalls. Almost every aspect of Japan's stunning natural beauty evoked a sense of awe and wonder among its people.

The Way of the Gods

Ancient Japanese elevated this fascination with nature into what was later called Shinto, the Way of the Gods. This belief system that imbued every mountain, every stream, and even impressive trees with a spirit. These deities, known as kami, were considered cheerful and friendly to humans. If kept satisfied, they would watch over human affairs and refrain from causing natural disasters.

But the kami also would not hesitate to unleash their wrath if humans violated their cardinal rule of physical and spiritual cleanliness. To appease the kami, worshipers avoided defiling holy places by undergoing thorough ritual purification before passing beneath the torii, the gate leading into the sacred precinct of a Shinto shrine. Clean humans meant happy kami, and happy kami meant a peaceful realm.

**FIGURE 7.12**

Its towering majesty and near-perfect symmetry make Mt. Fuji stand out — even in a heavily mountainous country like Japan. At 12,388 feet, the imposing mountain inspires spiritual awe, and many consider the lengthy hike up its slope a religious pilgrimage.

Although its origins are obscure, Shinto helped forge national and political unity by emphasizing Japan's divine beginnings through myths and legends. For example, the Shinto creation myth tells of a pair of deities called Izanagi and Izanami who created the islands of Japan when droplets of water dripped down from Izanagi's spear. After the couple descended from the heavens to live on the islands, they had numerous divine offspring, including the sun goddess Amaterasu, the most important deity in Shinto.

Later generations of Japanese emperors claimed their divinity — and therefore their right to rule — by tracing their imperial lineage back to Amaterasu herself. As a direct descendent of the sun goddess, the emperor became a Living God who was to be worshiped along with his all-illuminating divine ancestor.

The Buddha Has Landed

Shinto was already well established as the national religion when Buddhism was transmitted from China (via Korea) to Japan in the 6th century C.E. As Buddhism gained popularity, it occasionally clashed with Shinto, but it did not displace the pre-existing religion. Rather, the two overlapped and complemented each other.

With its abundant scripture and rigid ethical code, Buddhism used precise terms to articulate concepts that Shinto had left vague. Whereas Shinto was generally life-affirming and flexible about human conduct (except in matters of purity), Buddhist philosophy provided a moral framework for the universe and addressed questions about death, reincarnation, and punishment for wrongdoing that Shinto failed to answer in detail.

The Buddhist teachings of impermanence (that nothing lasts forever) and emptiness (that nothing really has its own substance) became ingrained in Japanese thought and shaped subsequent philosophy, art, and literature.

One Hand Clapping

As in China, Buddhism developed in Japan with numerous sects vying for supremacy. Of the schools that did not die out and still exist today — such as Tendai, Shingon, Nichiren, and Zen — the Zen sect is probably the most distinctive.

The word "Zen" comes from the Sanskrit word *dhyana* (absorption), which reflects the attitude with which the practitioner should approach his or her pursuit of spiritual enlightenment. This goal is achieved through *zazen* (sitting Zen), a form of meditation in which the practitioner sits for hours on end in an attempt to free the mind from the fetters of worldly concerns.

**FIGURE 7.13**

Kūkai (774-835) was a prominent Buddhist monk who established the Shingon — or "True Word" — sect in Japan. Not only was he a central figure in religious history, but he also left his mark on Japanese culture as a master calligrapher, an astute scholar, and a brilliant linguist.

A Zen master tries to help a novice break through the delusions and illusions of the mind to discover the true nature of things by employing kōans, seemingly paradoxical or nonsensical riddles intended to disrupt the mind's normal thinking process. "What is the sound of one hand clapping?" Anyone who has ever been asked this question has experienced the conundrum of a kōan.

A Chinese Flavor

Although Shinto and the various sects of Buddhism have dominated the hodgepodge that is Japanese spiritual life, other belief systems — mostly of Chinese origin — have influenced the way in which the Japanese have viewed the world.

Confucianism, the philosophy and religion based on the ethical and humanitarian teachings of Confucius, gained a foothold in Japan in the 7th century C.E. Its political theories and family values have persisted for centuries, and even became the official ideology of the state during the Tokugawa period (1600-1868).

Other significant belief systems have been Chinese astrology and feng-shui (earth study), as well as a host of other

Chinese folk beliefs and practices.

The Land of Wa

The first written records about and by the Japanese date from this time. Contemporary Chinese histories describe Japan (or the "Land of Wa") as a tributary nation ruled by an unmarried queen named Pimiko who occupied herself with magic and sorcery. Japanese historical chronicles explored the country's origins and elaborated on the legendary roots of the Japanese rulers through stories.

By the Yamato period (552-710), the hundreds of clans scattered throughout the country were unified under a single clan, the Yamato, who traced their lineage to the sun goddess Amaterasu. This connection made them powerful political and religious leaders with the divine responsibility to protect the nation.

Ten Thousand Leaves

A notable figure of the late Yamato period was Prince Shôtoku (573-622), a patron of Buddhism and man of letters who governed as regent. Under his rule, Japan based its first centralized government and constitution on Confucian models, Buddhist temples multiplied, and official relations with China expanded through frequent delegations.

The twin influences of Chinese culture and Buddhism define the late Yamato and Nara (710-84) periods. A writing system was developed by adopting Chinese characters to represent the native Japanese language. With this advancement, literature flourished, culminating in the Manyôshû, (Collection of Ten Thousand Leaves), a compilation of poetry gathered from across the realm.

The expanding impact of Buddhism led to the crowning achievement of Nara culture: the casting of the Great Buddha, a statue 53 feet high and made up of 1,000,000 pounds of metal.

Vying for Power

The shift of the capital from Nara to what is now Kyoto marks the beginning of the Heian period (794-1185), a time of increasing political uncertainty but also great cultural achievement. The emperor and various aristocratic families of the court ruled Japan but were often more concerned with aesthetics and political and romantic intrigue than with governing the realm.

The most influential of these families were the Fujiwara, a powerful faction that engaged in marriage politics and manipulated emperors to hold sway at court.

As aristocratic government eroded under the Fujiwara, new forces emerged: the warrior class, headed by the mighty Taira and Minamoto families, slowly extended its power through the provinces and later Kyoto itself. An increasingly powerful Buddhist clergy also asserted itself: politically, by allowing former emperors to take control of temples, and militarily, by organizing armies of "warrior monks" who fought to preserve a temple's interests.

High Art

Culture and the arts, however, benefited from the lax rule of the aristocracy. Poets perfected the waka, or Japanese verse, as a literary form, and made it a basis for courtly communication and competition. The Tale of Genji (Genji Monogatari) by Murasaki Shikibu, considered the world's first novel, paints a detailed and delicate picture of life and love at court. Example of a waka poem.

Daini no Sanmi

As Mount Arima sends its rustling winds across Ina's bamboo plains,
I will be just as steadfast and never will forget you.

Lady Kataiko, 11th century.



FIGURE 7.14

Sei Shônagon, author of *The Pillow Book*, was a rival of Murasaki, author of *The Tale of Genji*. Japanese women wrote much of the classic Japanese literature during the feudal period because it was considered beneath a man at court to write in any language but Chinese.

Aristocratic refinement shaped Japanese etiquette and aesthetics in ways that persist even today. Modern Japanese sigh just as wistfully as their aristocratic Heian ancestors about *mono no aware*, "the fleeting nature of things," even as they make merry and watch cherry blossoms scatter in the breeze.

Being a warrior in feudal Japan was more than just a job. It was a way of life. The collapse of aristocratic rule ushered in a new age of chaos — appropriately called the Warring States period (c.1400-1600) — in which military might dictated who governed and who followed.

The samurai warriors, also known as *bushi*, took as their creed what later became known as the "Way of the Warrior" (*Bushidô*), a rigid value system of discipline and honor that required them to live and die in the service of their lords.

**FIGURE 7.15**

While most samurai warriors were men, some women were renowned for their skill in battle. A monument was erected to honor Nakano Takeko — a female warrior — at the Hokai temple in Fukushima prefecture because she asked her sister to behead her rather than die dishonorably from a gunshot wound in captivity.

If commanded, true bushi were expected to give their lives without hesitation. Any form of disgrace — cowardice, dishonor, defeat — reflected poorly on the lord and was reason enough for a bushi to commit suicide by seppuku, or ritual disembowelment. In return for this devotion, the lord provided protection, financial security, and social status — in short, a reason to live.

The bushi swore unwavering loyalty to their immediate masters in the chain of command. But this wasn't always easy. Frequently, switched loyalties and shifting alliances forced the bushi to decide between obeying the daimyō (baron) or following their more immediate lord.

Shôgun Might

The daimyô reported to the shôgun, more out of political and military necessity than out of loyalty. The shôgun became the most dominant feudal lord by subduing the other daimyô and receiving from the emperor the impressive title "Barbarian-Quelling Generalissimo." Not that the emperor wielded any sort of political power — the awesome military might of the shôgun often left the emperor little choice but to grant the title.



FIGURE 7.16

Although elegant and refined in appearance, Japanese castles were used as military installments. The wood used in their construction allowed these castles to withstand Japan's many earthquakes, but made them susceptible to fire at the same time.

The shogunal rule of the bakufu, (tent government) began in earnest with the Kamakura period (1185-1333), when the Minamoto clan defeated its bitter rival, the Taira family.

When Mongol invaders tried to land in western Japan, they were repelled by the Kamakura bakufu — with the help of kamikaze, powerful storms thought to be of divine origin. Despite this seeming divine favor, though, the bakufu could not withstand the unstable political situation on the domestic front.



FIGURE 7.17

The Kinkakuji — or "Golden Pavilion" — was originally built as a villa for the third Ashikaga shogun, Yoshimitsu. Upon his death, the eye-catching structure became a Zen Buddhist temple — creating an unusual combination of extravagant decor and minimalist doctrine.

The next to ascend to power were the Ashikaga, who established the Muromachi bakufu (1336-1573). The third Ashikaga shôgun, Yoshimitsu (1358-1408), was a patron of the arts and oversaw such cultural achievements as the

construction of the picturesque Kinkakuji (Golden Pavilion) and the flowering of Nô drama as the classical theater of Japan. The greatest figure in Nô was Zeami Motokiyo (1363-1443), whose aesthetic and critical theories defined the genre and influenced subsequent performing arts.

The downfall of the Ashikaga came about with the rise of the first of three "Great Unifiers" who sought to consolidate power. Oda Nobunaga (1534-1582) was a minor daimyô who embarked on a ruthless campaign for control that culminated in the removal of the last Ashikaga shôgun.

It was under Nobunaga's watch that Europeans first arrived in Japan, and he took full advantage of their presence. Part of his military success came from his use of firearms, brought to Japan by the Portuguese, which allowed him swift and complete dominance.



FIGURE 7.18

Japan was a land of mystery to foreign explorers such as the English and Dutch, as shown by this somewhat inaccurate 17th-century map.

Nobunaga's hostility toward Buddhism, which he expressed by burning countless monasteries and slaughtering monks, made him receptive to the influx of Jesuit missionaries from Spain and Portugal.

When Nobunaga's tenure ended in betrayal and death, the next leader who rose from the ensuing chaos was Toyotomi Hideyoshi (1537-1598), one of Nobunaga's loyal vassals.

Originally a peasant of humble origins, Hideyoshi surged through the ranks to become a leading general. His hunger for power knew no bounds. He organized two invasions of Korea (both failed) and schemed to make the Spanish Philippines, China, and even India part of his empire.

Hideyoshi's obsession with complete control pushed him to execute Christian missionaries and even to order the great master of the tea ceremony, Sen no Rikyû (1522-91), to commit suicide for no apparent reason. But because of his peasant origins, Hideyoshi was never able to become shôgun, and instead he became regent to the emperor.

After Hideyoshi's death, another power struggle ensued, in which two factions battled over the realm. The side led by the powerful daimyô Tokugawa Ieyasu (1542-1616) prevailed, and within a short time the mighty Tokugawa bakufu was established in Edo — now known as Tokyo. Centuries of strife were finally over; for the next 300 years, peace and order would rule the land.

Tennô (Emperor): Symbolic ruler of Japan, descended from and representative of Shintô deities; during the feudal

period, mostly a figurehead.

Shōgun (Generalissimo): Head of bakufu military government, with the power to oversee national affairs; receives title from emperor; usually the strongest daimyō.

Daimyō (Lord of a domain) Powerful warlord with control over territories of varying size; strength frequently determined by the domain's kokudaka (tax based upon rice production).

Kerai or Gokenin (Vassal) Loyal to the daimyō; receives fiefs or rice stipends from the daimyō; some comparable in strength to lesser daimyō.

Samurai (Warrior): Loyal to daimyo, similar to a vassal provide service as warriors.

Bugyō (Magistrate): Appointed by the shōgun to oversee a specific government post (e.g., finance, construction), a large city (e.g., Edo, Nagasaki), or a region.

Daikan (Intendant): Appointed by the daimyō or the shōgun to collect taxes and oversee administration of local regions.

Shōya (Village headman): Commoner appointed by the daimyō or the shōgun to represent the bakufu at the village level.

Many of the throwing, grappling, choking, and falling techniques in the martial art of judo were culled from the various forms of jujitsu that existed in Japan since the medieval period.

It slices, it dices, it chops, it skewers. The samurai's sword, or katana, was one of the most elegant and deadly weapons in military history. A warrior's sword was his most prized possession. More than just the means of his livelihood, it was a symbol of his status.

No true samurai would enter combat by flailing his katana around wildly. A graceful weapon calls for an equally sophisticated way of handling it. Swordsmanship was a crucial skill that required not only combat prowess but also strict discipline and philosophical balance. This made Zen Buddhism, with its emphasis on spontaneity and physical and mental toughness, the ideal philosophical backdrop for a swordsman's training.

The Mind Is Sharper Than the Sword

Zen not only helped a warrior solidify his resolve to do battle, it also helped him keep his wits about him.

Jujitsu, in its present form, was developed by samurai warriors. They developed an unarmed form of combat because they were forbidden to wear weapons and feared their military skills would become obsolete.

Although warriors were also expected to be handy with the bow and arrow, the spear and the quarterstaff, it was sword handling that set the elite samurai apart from the common footsoldier.

The fascination with swordsmanship persists to this day. Because waving around an authentic katana is expensive, dangerous, and probably illegal, today people have been get their swordfighting fix through kendo.

In this less lethal martial art, opponents wear heavy padding and solid headgear and strike each other with bamboo sticks instead of swords. This way, they can escape combat with only bruises and aches instead of slashes and gashes.

But the sword wasn't the only weapon in a Japanese warrior's arsenal. The samurai were also proficient in hand-to-hand combat, using ancient techniques collectively known as jujitsu. The objective of the various forms of jujitsu was to use an opponent's strength against him by employing handholds and deft maneuvers to throw the opponent off balance.

Judo and aikido, popular throughout the world as techniques for self-defense, were derived from older forms of

**FIGURE 7.19**

Kendo swords and armor have passed through many changes throughout the centuries. Armor, in particular, underwent many developments from the 10th through 12th centuries.

jujitsu as practiced by samurai masters

Other forms of martial arts that took root in Japan were imported from Asian neighbors. Most notably, karate, (empty hands), originated in China or India and was transmitted to Japan via the Ryukyu Empire (present-day Okinawa). When that once-independent kingdom was taken over by a daimyo from Kyushu in 1609, the Ryukyuan people were forced to surrender their weapons.

Instead of remaining defenseless, they secretly developed a fighting style that combined their native martial arts with forms from China, such as Shaolin Temple kung fu, to create an effective method of unarmed combat. This did not

remain a secret for long, though, and the art of karate spread far beyond the island.

Many of the martial arts that were either developed in Japan or adopted by the Japanese from elsewhere have become a global pastime. Judo is an Olympic sport, and aikido and karate have devoted practitioners throughout the world.

Although the samurai of old have become the new corporate "warriors" of Japanese big business, the flickering embers of the samurai spirit are fanned when someone in the world bows to their sensei (teacher), and learns a grip or form that a Japanese master developed centuries ago.

Busy streets crowded with pedestrians. Shopping opportunities for all budgets, from large merchant houses that pamper their clientele to vendors hawking their wares on the street. Events for all during the day followed by a vibrant nightlife after the sun goes down. A lively theater scene, with superstars in top acts playing to packed houses.



FIGURE 7.20

The bustling commercial district around the Nihombashi bridge in Edo was home to the Echigoya merchant house, run by the wealthy Mitsui family. Today, the Nihombashi area still feels the influence of the Mitsui — the head office of the Mitsui Bank and the Mitsukoshi Department Store occupy the original site of the Echigoya.

Sound like a guidebook description of New York, London, or Paris? Perhaps. But these images also depict a typical day in Edo, the bustling capital of the Tokugawa shogunate.

Before Tokugawa Ieyasu, Edo was a remote fishing village of little significance. But once the Tokugawa bakufu moved in, Edo became the center of political and cultural life — so much so that the duration of Tokugawa rule is also known as the Edo period (1600-1868).

For the first time in centuries, Japan was relatively peaceful. The strict political and social policies of Ieyasu and subsequent shoguns ushered in a golden age of economic and cultural prosperity. To maintain this so-called Pax Tokugawa, the bakufu instituted its sakoku (closed-country) policy in an attempt to keep foreign powers out of Japan. The Spanish, the English, and the Portuguese were expelled as subversive influences. Christianity was banned, and Japanese Christians were hunted down and persecuted.



FIGURE 7.21

Dutch traders were the only Europeans allowed to remain in Japan under the Tokugawa shogunate's sakoku policy, but even they were restricted to Dejima, an artificial island constructed in Nagasaki harbor.

But sakoku was far from pure isolationism. Japan still conducted frequent but strictly regulated trade with Korea and China. And not all Europeans were driven out: the Dutch were allowed to maintain a small trading post on an artificial island in Nagasaki harbor.

Samurai Growing Soft

With peace came a growing problem: a large population of warriors with nothing to do. The official class system sanctioned by the bakufu placed samurai at the top, followed by farmers and artisans, with merchants at the bottom.



FIGURE 7.22

Of the many popular entertainments available to the residents of Edo, kabuki was perhaps the most spectacular. Lavish costumes, colorful sets, catchy music, and engrossing plots meant theaters packed with devoted fans.

But social reality contradicted this hierarchy. With growing boredom and shrinking stipends, lower-ranking samurai often found themselves borrowing money from wealthy merchants. Although traditional ideas of status still held, the actual balance of power was beginning to shift.

Merchant prosperity fostered the rise of commoner culture, giving rise to popular entertainments and diversions that even the samurai class couldn't resist.

Puppets, Poems, Sumo, and Sushi?

The jôruri, or puppet theater, offered elaborate plots and masterful puppeteering. Puppet theater is one of the most entertaining but technically demanding performing arts.



FIGURE 7.23

This Japanese woodblock print, one of the 36 Views of Mt. Fuji by the famous artist Hokusai, was made by carving a block of wood. Ink would then be rolled or painted on the block and paper would be pressed onto the painted surface to get a print. At first the prints were all black and white, but eventually a process for making color prints was developed.

The greatest jôruri playwright, Chikamatsu Monzaemon (1653-1724), crafted historical dramas and tragic romances that were wildly popular, in his day and beyond.

The flash and excitement of the Kabuki theater drew throngs of enthusiasts, and many performers became full-fledged celebrities. Lead actors were heartthrobs, and male actors who performed female roles — called *onnagata* — also enjoyed a die-hard following.

Stories of star-crossed romance, betrayal, political intrigue, and love suicides kept the crowds hungry for more.

The likenesses of pop icons such as favorite Kabuki actors and sumo wrestlers could be widely distributed thanks to the development of the woodblock print.

This innovation allowed for mass reproductions of images and text, such as *ukiyo-e* paintings of the "floating world" — referring to the pleasure quarters of Edo — as well as works of popular fiction.

The more serious literary arts also flourished. The haiku poem — a short verse made up of only 17 syllables — was perfected by Matsuo Bashô (1644-1694) as an elegantly simple way to express subtle and elusive emotions.

An old pond
A frog leaps in
The water resounds.

-Matsuo Basho, 1644-1694



MEDIA

Click image to the left or use the URL below.

URL: <http://www.ck12.org/flx/render/embeddedobject/162844>

**FIGURE 7.24**

When the U.S. Navy steamed into Edo Bay in 1853 under orders from President Millard Fillmore and commanded by Commodore Matthew Perry, all of Japan was thrown into a panic. Although the Tokugawa shogunate had already started to flounder, the arrival of Perry's heavily-armed "Black Ships" signalled the beginning of the end of the Edo period.

1. Copied content specific questions

(ISN) Discussion and Study Questions

1. Guiding Questions

(ISN) Tech Activities

Technology assignment that makes them do something with a computer

Vocabulary

Quizlet Flashcards of Japan Reflects Chinese Culture

TABLE 7.4:

bushido	The strict code of behavior followed by samurai warriors in Japan. Loosely analogous to the concept of chivalry among the Medieval European knights of the Middle Ages.
daimyo	A Japanese feudal lord who commanded a private army of samurai.
samurai	Professional warriors who served Japanese feudal lords.
Shogun	Feudal Japan, a supreme military commander who ruled in the name of the emperor.

Internet Resources

- Islam continues to be a driving force its influence will be felt in Vienna and the Mediterranean under the control of the Ottomans and in India under the control of the Mughals.
- China recovers from the fall of the Han dynasty and dynastic rule is restored with its other classical Chinese elements. The Tang will create a massive trade empire along the silk road. Foreign influence from the ~~320~~ road will allow Buddhism to flourish. The Song retreat slowly to the south from northern nomadic invasion.

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CHAPTER

8

Chapter Seven: Renaissance and Reformation

Chapter Outline

- 8.1 EUROPEAN TRANSITIONS**
 - 8.2 THE EUROPEAN RENAISSANCE, ITALIAN AND NORTHERN**
 - 8.3 THE PROTESTANT REFORMATION AND CATHOLIC COUNTER-REFORMATION**
 - 8.4 REFERENCES**
-

Beginning in the 1300's, a period of great intellectual and artistic creativity emerged in several city states of northern Italy. This legacy of achievement still influences us today. A more secular society emerged in which educated people gradually began to reject medieval values, inspired by and looking to the classical past for ideas. Church authority and traditions would increasingly be questioned, leading to the Protestant Reformation and religious wars that would destroy the religious unity that had existed in Europe during the previous Medieval Era. Secular rulers would increase their power at the expense of the Church, leading to the emergence of the modern nation-state.

During the 14th century, events were taking place in Europe that would forever change its landscape, encourage a questioning of Church authority, and help bring about the end of the 1,000 year medieval period. Four events in particular helped bring about the end of the medieval period in Europe.

Beginning in the 1300's, a reawakened interest in classical art and knowledge emerged in the city-states of northern Italy. A more secular society emerged, inspired by humanist ideas. The era would witness an explosion of artistic and intellectual innovation and creativity.

Revolutionary changes emerged in Christian Europe during the 16th century. Criticism of Church authority and traditions led to the Protestant Reformation that would end the religious unity of Europe and lead to devastating wars between Catholics and Protestants. The Reformation would help strengthen the power of secular rulers, paving the way for the emergence of the modern nation-state.

8.1 European Transitions

7.1 European Transitions

Student Learning Objectives

At the end of this section the student will be able to

- identify major causes and describe the major effects of the following important turning points in world history from 1450 to 1750: the rise of the Ottoman Empire, the influence of the Ming dynasty on world trade, European exploration and the Columbian Exchange, European expansion, and the Renaissance and the Reformation.[WHS.1D]
- explain how the Crusades, the Black Death, the Hundred Years' War, and the Great Schism contributed to the end of medieval Europe.[WHS.4G]
- describe the historical origins, central ideas, and spread of major religious and philosophical traditions, including Buddhism, Christianity, Confucianism, Hinduism, Islam, Judaism, Sikhism, and the development of monotheism.[WHS.23A]
- analyze information by sequencing, categorizing, identifying cause-and-effect relationships, comparing, contrasting, finding the main idea, summarizing, making generalizations and predictions, drawing inferences and conclusions, and developing connections between historical events over time.[WHS.29F]
- use social studies terminology correctly.[WHS.30A]
- use standard grammar, spelling, sentence structure, and punctuation.[WHS.30B]
- interpret and create written, oral, and visual presentations of social studies information.[WHS.30C]

During the 14th century, events were taking place in Europe that would forever change its landscape, encourage a questioning of Church authority, and help bring about the end of the 1,000 year medieval period. Four events in particular helped bring about the end of the medieval period in Europe.

The Great Famine (1313 - 1322)

A period of unusually strong rains in Europe led to flooding. Eventually, crops spoiled and livestock drowned, resulting in the **Great Famine**. Farm animals that were needed for work were slaughtered for food, and seed grain was eaten. This shortage of grain increased prices by the more six times. Millions of people died from the famine and began the question the Church why this catastrophe was happening.

The Black Death (1347 – 1351)

The **Black Death**, or **bubonic plague**, struck only 25 years after the Great Famine. Rats with fleas carrying the disease entered Europe from Asia on trading ships. Between 1347 and 1351, 25 million people, about one-third of Europe's population, died in this epidemic.

People were buried in mass graves without receiving any blessing from the Church. Some blamed the Jews for poisoning wells; others claimed the plague was God's punishment for sinful living. Once again, the Church appeared helpless before this second great catastrophe of the 14th century.

“Daily life, such as it had become, was balanced by daily death. Acquaintances disappeared and dreadful signs appeared on front doors, warning visitors away. The shouts of street vendors hawking their wares were replaced by the coarse calls of "Bring out the dead!" Two-wheeled tumbrels piled high with corpses and the dying creaked along the streets in the place of carts brimming with fresh groceries and other merchandise. Fires burned not to cook food or warm bodies, but to incinerate victims' belongings, punish criminals, or fumigate the supposedly "poisonous" atmosphere. In the face of pestilence people's faith in doctors and Catholic priests waned, and for many it shifted to self-help medical books and Protestantism.”

Byrne, Joseph. "Black Death: Overview." Daily Life through History. ABC-CLIO, 2015. Web. 22 July 2015.



FIGURE 8.1

This image depicts victims of the plague being buried. The people that are being buried are the people of Tournai in 1349. This image also depicts that they make coffins out of pieces of lumber. The lumber is being brought in by men on the left of the picture to make the coffins. Then there are people that are digging holes for the coffins to go into. Then two people are placing the coffins placed into the holes that were dug. It also depicts that socially many people died because of the Black Death. It also shows the economic affect because so many people had to work just to bury the people.

Ultimately, the plague caused a serious shortage of labor in Europe resulting in many peasants escaping serfdom, as landowners and towns, needing laborers, offered them freedom in exchange for work. The manorial system that relied on an abundance of free labor, was nearing an end.

The Hundred Years War (1337 – 1453)

This war between England and France, lasting on and off for 116 years, began when an English king claimed the throne of France after the death of the French king. The conflict is especially noteworthy for stirring nationalist feelings amongst the combating nations and reducing the importance of knights in battle, as each king developed a standing army of foot soldiers. New weapons, especially the long-bow and canon, helped render both knights and castles less effective. The era of medieval warfare was nearing an end. **Joan of Arc**, a young French maiden, rallied French troops around the heir to the French throne. She turned the tide in favor of the French when she successfully drove the English out of the city of Orleans and crowned the new French king at Rheims Cathedral. Later, Joan was capture and burned a the stake by the English as a witch. But within 20 years after her death, the war was over. From this point forward, England and France emerged as distinct nations.

The Great Schism (1378 – 1417)

In 1305, a Frenchman was elected Pope and moved the Papacy from Rome to Avignon, France. Then, in 1378, an Italian was elected as Pope who decided to move the Papacy back to Rome. French cardinals claimed this election was unlawful and elected a French Pope to keep the Papacy in France. The true Pope of the Catholic Church was left uncertain. This **schism**, or split, greatly weakened Church authority. A Church Council made matter worse by electing a third Pope in 1409. Finally, a new Church Council deposed all three Popes, and elected a single Pope in 1417, but by then Church prestige had been greatly weakened.

(ISN) Interactive Student Notebook Assignments

1. Copied content specific questions

(ISN) Discussion and Study Questions

1. Guiding Questions

(ISN) Tech Activities

Technology assignment that makes them do something with a computer

Vocabulary

[Quizlet Vocabulary Flashcards for European Transitions](#)

TABLE 8.1:

Black Death	A disease originating in the 14th century in or near China that spread by way of the Silk Road or by ship and killed millions of people, including about one-third of Europe's population, contributing to the end of serfdom there.
Hundred Years' War	A conflict lasting 116 years (1337 to 1453) in which England and France fought on French soil for control of the French throne.
Great Schism	A religious split that occurred in the Catholic Church in which there were two competing Popes, one in Rome and the other in Avignon, France. The event would cause many to question Church authority.
Great Famine	An early 14th century famine that caused the deaths of millions in Europe and in which extremely high levels of crime, disease, infanticide and even cannibalism were recorded. The event caused many to question the power of Church authority.
Joan of Arc	Nicknamed "The Maid of Orleans," a 15th century French folk heroine. She was a peasant girl who, claiming divine guidance, led the French army to several important victories during the Hundred Years' War, paving the way for the crowning of Charles VII of France.

Internet Resources

8.2 The European Renaissance, Italian and Northern

7.2 European Renaissance, Italian and Northern

Student Learning Objectives

At the end of this section the student will be able to

- identify major causes and describe the major effects of the following important turning points in world history from 1450 to 1750: the rise of the Ottoman Empire, the influence of the Ming dynasty on world trade, European exploration and the Columbian Exchange, European expansion, and the Renaissance and the Reformation.[WHS.1D]
- explain the political, intellectual, artistic, economic, and religious impact of the Renaissance.[WHS.5A]
- explain the relationship among Christianity, individualism, and growing secularism that began with the Renaissance and how the relationship influenced subsequent political developments.[WHS.25C]
- identify significant examples of art and architecture that demonstrate an artistic ideal or visual principle from selected cultures.[WHS.26A]
- analyze information by sequencing, categorizing, identifying cause-and-effect relationships, comparing, contrasting, finding the main idea, summarizing, making generalizations and predictions, drawing inferences and conclusions, and developing connections between historical events over time.[WHS.29F]

Beginning in the 1300's, a reawakened interest in classical art and knowledge emerged in the city-states of northern Italy. A more secular society emerged, inspired by humanist ideas. The era would witness an explosion of artistic and intellectual innovation and creativity.

The term Renaissance literally means "rebirth." It is the period in European civilization immediately following the Middle Ages. The Renaissance lasted from approximately 1300 to 1600, during which time Europe witnessed an explosion of creativity after a long period of decline and stagnation. This era thus marks the transition from medieval to modern times in Europe. It emerged first in the city-states of Italy, in particular, Florence, Rome, and Venice, and eventually spread north. Its primary characteristic was a reawakened interest in the classical art and knowledge of the Greeks and Romans. Though the Western Roman Empire had suffered collapse during the Middle Ages, some Latin manuscripts survived within the monasteries, while scholars in the Eastern Roman empire, or Byzantium, had also managed to preserve classical writings. The Arab world was also instrumental in helping to preserve and pass on classical texts.

Renaissance interest in classical learning and art was more than just a fascination with ancient times, however. It led to a new movement known as **humanism** that focused on secular, or worldly, themes rather than on the religious ideas that had concerned medieval thinkers. Humanists believed in the idea of individualism that stressed the dignity and worth of the individual person and the importance of individual achievement. Renaissance thinkers believed that people should work hard to improve themselves by developing their talents through many activities such as politics, sports, the arts, and most importantly, education. No wonder that the self-portrait and the autobiography became so popular during this era. According to a text from the period, the ideal Renaissance young man should be educated in the Greek and Roman classics, be charming, polite, and witty, be able to dance, write poetry, sing and play music. He should be physically graceful and strong and be a skilled rider, wrestler, and swordsman. Upper-class women of the Renaissance were also expected to be well educated in classical literature and to be able to write well, paint, make music, dance, and be charming. The main difference in the expectations for men and women, however, was that a woman was not expected to seek fame as men did, and they were generally expected to inspire

great poetry and art, not create it. All things considered, most Renaissance women had less political, economic, and social influence than medieval women, even though they were certainly better educated.

Humanists also encouraged enjoyment of worldly goods and pleasures. The wealthy openly enjoyed material luxuries, fine music, and tasty foods. Though most people remained devout Catholics, they believed a person could love and enjoy life without offending God, an attitude that would have shocked most people in medieval times. Medieval thinkers had often appeared to be consumed with guilt over sin and were constantly focused upon the need to obtain God's forgiveness for their "wicked" ways. Humanists, on the other hand, celebrated everything human. An individual's desire for fame and wealth, for example, was no longer considered sinful, but actually encouraged. People began to show greater interest in this world than in the life hereafter.

Thus, a love for classical learning, the belief in self-improvement and achievement through many activities, especially education, and the enjoyment of secular pleasures are three important characteristics of the era. These three characteristics would be clearly reflected in the highly accomplished art of the period. Some more biased observers of the Renaissance would claim that the level of artistic achievement realized during this period has never been surpassed.

Italy's Advantages

While England and France were locked in the Hundred Years War, Italy had three advantages that fostered the Renaissance there: thriving cities, a wealthy merchant class, and the classical heritage of Greece and Rome.

Italy was strategically located on the Mediterranean Sea where, ever since the Crusades, trade between Asia and Europe had increased. Italian cities emerged as centers of banking, commerce, and handicrafts. The Popes in Rome collected revenues from throughout Europe, and individual city-states ran their own affairs, collecting taxes and raising their own armies. Thus, while cities were emerging in northern Italy, the rest of Europe remained mostly rural. It is in cities where people have better opportunities to exchange new ideas, creating an ideal breeding ground for an intellectual revolution.

Merchants became the wealthiest and most powerful class, and they came to dominate politics. Because they had to rely on their own wits, unlike nobles who inherited their social rank, they believed they deserved power and wealth because of their individual merit. This helped spur the Renaissance value of individualism. Renaissance Popes beautified Rome by spending large amounts of money for art. They, along with the wealthy merchant class became **patrons** of the arts by financially supporting artists. By having their portraits painted or by donating public art to the city, the wealthy demonstrated their own importance.

Another reason that the Renaissance began in Italy is that artists and scholars drew inspiration from the ruins of Rome that surrounded them. They were impressed by the achievements of pre-Christian artists, thinkers, writers, and engineers. Like the Greeks, Renaissance thinkers believed in the power of human reason, observation, and experience to explain the world rather than simply relying on traditional Church teachings.

A Revolution in Art

Before the Renaissance, art in Italy was greatly influenced by Byzantine styles. Religious paintings were typically flat and lifeless. In the 1300's, the painter **Giotto** began creating an entirely new style that resulted in more depth and roundness to his figures. His figures showed emotion and gestures.



MEDIA

Click image to the left or use the URL below.

URL: <http://www.ck12.org/flx/render/embeddedobject/167307>



FIGURE 8.2

Giotto – Massacre of the Innocents

Masaccio and other artists experimented with ways to show three-dimensional space on a two-dimensional surface. They developed the rules of **perspective** to make objects appear to recede in the distance until they reached a vanishing point.

Donatello made sculpture more realistic by carving natural postures and expressions that reveal personality. With his statue, *David*, he created the first large, free-standing nude since ancient times.

Leonardo Da Vinci was a painter, sculptor, inventor, engineer, and scientist. Thus, he is often referred to as the ideal “Renaissance man.” To understand human anatomy, he dissected human corpses. His notebooks include designs for a parachute, machine gun, war machines, and flying machines.

Among his many masterpieces, Leonardo painted the *Mona Lisa*, which has been acclaimed as “the best known, the most visited, the most written about, the most sung about, the most parodied work of art in the world.” The sitter’s mysterious smile and her unproven identity have made the painting a source of ongoing investigation and fascination.

Leonardo also painted *The Last Supper*, which captures the individual personalities and expressions of Jesus’ disciples after Jesus has announced that one of the will betray him.

Like Leonardo, **Michelangelo** could be considered a true Renaissance man as well. He was a painter, sculptor, architect, and poet. He is best known for the way he portrayed the human body in painting and sculpture. Influenced by classical art, he created figures that are forceful and show heroic grandeur and power. By doing this, he explored the Renaissance theme of human potential. Three of his most famous works are his sculptings the *Pieta* and *David* and his **fresco** paintings showing biblical scenes on the ceiling of the *Sistine Chapel*. A fresco painting is a painting made on fresh plaster.

**FIGURE 8.3**

Masaccio - St Peter Healing the Sick with his Shadow



Video

MEDIA

Click image to the left or use the URL below.

URL: <http://www.ck12.org/flx/render/embeddedobject/153276>

The painter, **Raphael**, studied the works of both Leonardo and Michelangelo. One of his favorite subjects was the Madonna and Child. He also filled the walls of Pope Julius II's library with several paintings, one of these being the *School of Athens* which, as the title alone suggests, conveys classical influence on the Renaissance. In the painting influential teachers, thinkers, and artists from ancient, classical, and Renaissance figures are brought together.

Renaissance Writers Change Literature

Renaissance writers increasingly wrote in the **vernacular**, the everyday language of one's homeland. While most serious poets of the age wrote in Latin, **Dante Alighieri** wrote *The Divine Comedy* in Italian. For this reason he is



FIGURE 8.4

Donatello, the bronze David (1440s?)
Museo Nazionale del Bargello h.158 cm

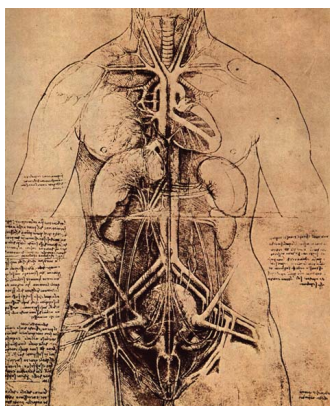


FIGURE 8.5

Drawing of a Woman's Torso-Leonardo da Vinci

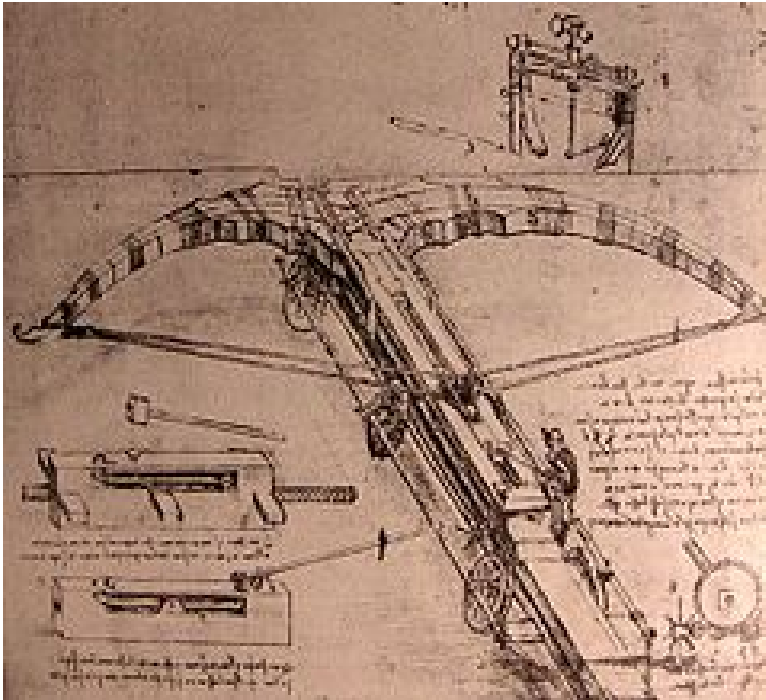


FIGURE 8.6

The original design of the giant crossbow
(Codex Atlanticus, f. 149a)

sometimes called the creator of modern Italian. His example encouraged other poets to write in their own vernacular languages, such as England's Geoffrey Chaucer and, later, Spain's Cervantes and the English poet and dramatist, **William Shakespeare**, who many consider to be the greatest writer of all time.

Machiavelli wrote *The Prince*, a guidebook in how to secure and maintain political power. Machiavelli argued that most successful rulers were not those who acted according to laws or conscience, but those who were willing to do whatever was necessary to hold and maintain power. He argued that "the end justifies the means." In other words, Machiavelli was not concerned with what was morally right but with what was politically effective. *The Prince*, is considered by many to be critical to the emergence of modern political science. His ideas mark the movement toward a more secular perspective of governing as opposed to the religious based teachings of the Medieval Church.

Renaissance writers were able to command a much wider audience because of a remarkable technological breakthrough, the **printing press**. **Johann Gutenberg** published the first full-size book printed with movable type around 1455. For the first time, books were cheap enough that many Europeans could buy them. This encouraged the spread of new ideas, and more people began to learn to read.

(ISN) Interactive Student Notebook Assignments

1. Copied content specific questions

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Technology assignment that makes them do something with a computer

Vocabulary

[Quizlet Vocabulary Flashcards for European Renaissance, Italian and Northern](#)



FIGURE 8.7

Mona Lisa, by Leonardo da Vinci, from C2RMF retouched.jpg



FIGURE 8.8

late 15th-century mural painting by Leonardo da Vinci in the refectory of the Convent of Santa Maria delle Grazie, Milan

**FIGURE 8.9**

The Pietà (1498–1499) is a work of Renaissance sculpture by Michelangelo Buonarroti, housed in St. Peter's Basilica, Vatican City.

TABLE 8.2:

da Vinci, Leonardo	An Italian Renaissance figure who's widely recognized genius in the diverse areas of art, invention, science and engineering lead many to refer to him as the epitome the Renaissance humanist ideal. His paintings, Last Supper and the Mona Lisa are arguably the most famous and recognized paintings in the world.
Gutenberg, Johann	Printed the first full-sized book printed with movable type and a printing press, the Gutenberg Bible.
Humanists	Renaissance thinkers who studied classical texts and focused on human potential and achievement.
Machiavelli, Niccolo	A Renaissance Italian writer whose primary work, The Prince, is considered by many to be critical to the emergence of modern political science. His ideas mark the movement toward a more secular perspective of governing as opposed to the religious based teachings of the Medieval Church.
Michelangelo	An Italian Renaissance sculptor, painter, architect, and poet, whose versatility in these disciplines lead many to consider him a contender for the title of the archetypal Renaissance man, along with Leonardo da Vinci. His notable works include his frescoes in the Sistine Chapel, and his sculptures, David, and Pieta.

TABLE 8.2: (continued)

Renaissance	A cultural movement that spanned the period roughly from the 14th to the 17th centuries. It began in the Italian city states in the Late Middle Ages and later spread to the rest of Europe. Characteristics of the movement include a rediscovery of classical learning, a growing spirit of inquiry, and advancements in painting and architecture.
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FIGURE 8.10

David is a masterpiece of Renaissance sculpture created between 1501 and 1504, by Michelangelo.



FIGURE 8.11

The School of Athens, or Scuola di Atene in Italian, is one of the most famous frescoes by the Italian Renaissance artist Raphael. It was painted between 1509 and 1511

Internet Resources

7.2 The Italian Renaissance

Concept: European Renaissance [WHS.1D, WHS.5A, WHS.25C, WHS.26A, WHS.29F]

Cluster Preface/Summary:

Beginning in the 1300's, a reawakened interest in classical art and knowledge emerged in the city-states of northern Italy. A more secular society emerged, inspired by humanist ideas. The era would witness an explosion of artistic and intellectual innovation and creativity.

The term Renaissance literally means "rebirth." It is the period in European civilization immediately following the Middle Ages. The Renaissance lasted from approximately 1300 to 1600, during which time Europe witnessed an explosion of creativity after a long period of decline and stagnation. This era thus marks the transition from medieval to modern times in Europe. It emerged first in the city-states of Italy, in particular, Florence, Rome, and Venice, and eventually spread north. Its primary characteristic was a reawakened interest in the classical art and knowledge of the Greeks and Romans. Though the Western Roman Empire had suffered collapse during the Middle Ages, some Latin manuscripts survived within the monasteries, while scholars in the Eastern Roman empire, or Byzantium, had also managed to preserve classical writings. The Arab world was also instrumental in helping to preserve and pass on classical texts.

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Merchants became the wealthiest and most powerful class, and they came to dominate politics. Because they had to rely on their own wits, unlike nobles who inherited their social rank, they believed they deserved power and wealth because of their individual merit. This helped spur the Renaissance value of individualism. Renaissance Popes beautified Rome by spending large amounts of money for art. They, along with the wealthy merchant class became **patrons** of the arts by financially supporting artists. By having their portraits painted or by donating public art to the city, the wealthy demonstrated their own importance.

Another reason that the Renaissance began in Italy is that artists and scholars drew inspiration from the ruins of Rome that surrounded them. They were impressed by the achievements of pre-Christian artists, thinkers, writers, and engineers. Like the Greeks, Renaissance thinkers believed in the power of human reason, observation, and experience to explain the world rather than simply relying on traditional Church teachings.

A Revolution in Art

Before the Renaissance, art in Italy was greatly influenced by Byzantine styles. Religious paintings were typically flat and lifeless. In the 1300's, the painter **Giotto** began creating an entirely new style that resulted in more depth and roundness to his figures. His figures showed emotion and gestures.

8.3 The Protestant Reformation and Catholic Counter-Reformation

7.3 The Protestant Reformation and Catholic Counter-Reformation

Student Learning Objectives

At the end of this section the student will be able to:

- identify major causes and describe the major effects of the following important turning points in world history from 1450 to 1750: the rise of the Ottoman Empire, the influence of the Ming dynasty on world trade, European exploration and the Columbian Exchange, European expansion, and the Renaissance and the Reformation.[WHS.1D]
- explain the political, intellectual, artistic, economic, and religious impact of the Reformation.[WHS.5B]
- describe the historical origins, central ideas, and spread of major religious and philosophical traditions, including Buddhism, Christianity, Confucianism, Hinduism, Islam, Judaism, Sikhism, and the development of monotheism.[WHS.23A]
- describe the major influences of women such as Elizabeth I, Queen Victoria, Mother Teresa, Indira Gandhi, Margaret Thatcher, and Golda Meir during major eras of world history.[WHS.24B]
- explain the impact of the printing press on the Renaissance and the Reformation in Europe.[WHS.27C]
- analyze information by sequencing, categorizing, identifying cause-and-effect relationships, comparing, contrasting, finding the main idea, summarizing, making generalizations and predictions, drawing inferences and conclusions, and developing connections between historical events over time.[WHS.29F]
- use social studies terminology correctly.[WHS.30A]
- use standard grammar, spelling, sentence structure, and punctuation.[WHS.30B]
- interpret and create written, oral, and visual presentations of social studies information.[WHS.30C]
- transfer information from one medium to another.[WHS.30D]

Revolutionary changes emerged in Christian Europe during the 16th century. Criticism of Church authority and traditions led to the Protestant Reformation that would end the religious unity of Europe and lead to devastating wars between Catholics and Protestants. The Reformation would help strengthen the power of secular rulers, paving the way for the emergence of the modern nation-state.

By 1500, many forces had weakened the power of the Catholic Church. The most important of these forces were the new ideas of the Renaissance, the new technology of the printing press, and the increasing skepticism of Church authority generated from events such as the Great Schism and Black Death. There was also a growing awareness of widespread corruption with the Church. Many entered the clergy to gain power and wealth rather than because of faith. The Papacy experienced a growing loss of spiritual influence, as the Pope and members of the Church hierarchy acted more like secular princes than spiritual leaders. Church leaders were slow to respond to calls for reform.

In the early 16th century the Church had fallen into the practice of selling **indulgences**. Indulgences were pardons from punishment for committing a sin, allowing the sinner to enter Heaven. This practice brought in a great deal of revenue for the Church. The Pope was using money raised through the sale of indulgences to construct St. Peter's Basilica in Rome.

Martin Luther, an Augustinian monk, believed that neither priests nor the Pope had special powers, and he was deeply offended by the the selling of indulgences. In 1517, Luther posted **Ninety-Five Thesis**, or statements, on a church door in Germany that challenged the Pop's right to sell indulgences. Luther asserted that, "Those who believe

that they can be certain of their salvation because they have indulgence letters will be eternally damned, together with their teachers.”



FIGURE 8.12

Martin Luther; (10 November 1483 – 18 February 1546) was a German friar, priest and professor of theology who was a seminal figure in the Protestant Reformation

Luther's Ninety-Five Theses were more than just an attack on the selling of indulgences, however. Luther sought instead a full reform of the Church. His teachings rested on three main ideas:

- People could win salvation only by faith in God's gift of forgiveness. (The Church taught that faith *and* "good works" – your behavior, practicing the sacraments of the Church, etc. - were needed for salvation).
- All Church teachings should be clearly based on the words of the Bible. The Pope and church traditions were false authorities.
- All people with faith were equal. Therefore, people did not need priests to interpret the Bible for them.

Increasingly, the Pope realized that this monk was a serious threat. In one angry reply to Church criticism, Luther actually suggested that Christians drive the pope from the Church by force. In 1520, Pope Leo X issued a decree threatening Luther with excommunication unless he took back his statements. Instead, Luther gathered his students together around a bonfire in Wittenberg, Germany and threw the pope's decree into the flames. Leo **excommunicated** Luther (expelled him from the Church).

Luther was then summoned by the Holy Roman Emperor, Charles V, a devout Catholic, to stand trial in the German city of Worms. There he confronted the Emperor and other representatives of the German states. When told to **recant**, or take back, his statements, Luther refused, responding,

"I am bound by the Scriptures I have quoted and my conscience is captive to the Word of God. I cannot and I will not retract anything, since it is neither safe nor right to go against conscience. I cannot do otherwise, here I stand, may God help me. Amen."

A month after Luther made this speech, Charles issued the Edict of Worms that declared Luther an outlaw and a heretic. Accordingly, no one in the empire was to give Luther food or shelter. All his books were to be burned.

Luther, however, would be sheltered and protected within a castle by a powerful prince who supported his views. During the year Luther stayed here, he would translate the New Testament into the vernacular German. By the time he returned to Wittenberg in 1522, he discovered that many of his ideas were already being put into practice. Priests dressed in ordinary clothes and called themselves ministers. They led services in German instead of Latin. Some ministers had married, a practice not permitted to priests within the Catholic Church. With the New Testament now made available in German, each person could now read the Bible on his or her own. The reformers became known as **Protestants**, and many German princes adopted Protestantism. Eventually, the term Protestant was applied to Christians who belonged to non-Catholic churches. Instead of continuing to seek reforms within the Catholic Church, Luther and his followers became a separate religious group and established the **Lutheran Church**, the first of the Protestant churches that would eventually be established.

By 1524, German peasants, excited by Protestant talk of Christian freedom, demanded an end to serfdom. Bands of angry peasants went about the countryside raiding monasteries, pillaging, and burning. Luther, however, was horrified by the violence and sided with the Princes who had supported him, urging them to ruthlessly put down the revolt. Though he had attacked the Pope, he supported secular authority. As many as 100,000 people were massacred during this event known as the Peasant's Revolt.

While some German princes genuinely shared Luther's beliefs liked Luther's ideas for selfish reasons. They saw his teachings as a good excuse to seize Church lands and property and to assert their independence from Charles V. In 1529, German princes who remained loyal to the pope agreed to join forces against Luther's ideas. Holy Roman Emperor Charles V led the war against the Protestant princes of Germany. Even though he defeated them in 1547, he failed to force them back into the Catholic Church.

Weary of fighting, Charles ordered all German princes, both Protestant and Catholic, to assemble in the city of Augsburg. At that meeting, it was agreed that the churches in Germany could be either Lutheran or Catholic, but not Calvinist (see below). Furthermore, the prince of every state would decide the religion of his state. The **Peace of Augsburg** (1555) temporarily ended the religious wars in Germany, though war would reignite later in the first half of the 17th century during the **30 Years' War** in which Germany would be ravaged. It is estimated that about 2/3rds of the German population perished or fled Germany during this conflict. Many died due to disease and starvation as armies burned and destroyed crops. While Catholics and Protestants fought each other on the continent, in England, **King Henry VIII** had become concerned that his Queen, Catherine of Aragon would not be able to give birth to a male heir. When the Pope refused his request to annul the marriage so that he could remarry, Henry broke with the Catholic Church, closed the English monasteries, and seized all Church lands. In 1534, Parliament passed the **Act of Supremacy**, which declared the English King, not the Pope, to be the official head of the English Church. To raise money, Henry sold much of the land he had seized to nobles and to members of England's rising middle class. Suddenly there were many English landowners who stood to lose property if England returned to the Catholic Church. This group formed a solid base of support for the Protestant Reformation in England.

In most other ways, Henry remained more Catholic than Protestant. He insisted that English priests make no changes to Catholic rituals and doctrines. Henry, therefore, unlike Luther, broke ties with the Roman Catholic Church for political and personal reasons, not religious.

In **Geneva**, Switzerland **John Calvin** started a new Protestant Church. Calvin taught that since God was all-knowing, it was predestined (already decided by God) who would be saved and who would be damned. While faith was the key to salvation, it was God who gave faith to some and denied it to others. Only the "Elect" would be saved. Such ideas encouraged hard work and a strict moral code. In Geneva, worldly success was interpreted as a sign of God's favor.

The Catholic Counter-Reformation

As Protestantism swept across many parts of Europe, the Catholic Church reacted by making limited reforms, curbing earlier abuses, and combating the further spread of Protestantism. This movement is known as the **Catholic Counter-Reformation**.

**FIGURE 8.13**

Henry VIII (28 June 1491 – 28 January 1547) was King of England from 21 April 1509 until his death

Ignatius Loyola was one such leader of Catholic reform. He established the Society of Jesus whose members were commonly called **Jesuits** who sought to defend and spread the Catholic faith. Stressing absolute discipline and obedience to the Pope, the Jesuits were like a spiritual army. They founded superb schools throughout Europe, converted non-Christians to Catholicism in the Americas, Africa, and Asia, and were successful in preventing the further spread of Protestantism in areas such as Bavaria and Poland, which remain predominantly Catholic today primarily because of the effort of the Jesuits.

In 1545, at the request of Pope Paul III, Catholic bishops and cardinals met at the **Council of Trent** and agreed on the following doctrines:

- The pope’s interpretation of the Bible was final. Any Christian who substituted his or her own interpretation was a heretic.
- Christians were not saved by faith alone, as Luther argued. They were saved by faith and good works.
- The Bible and Church tradition shared equal authority for guiding a Christian’s life.
- Indulgences, pilgrimages, and veneration of holy relics were all valid expressions of Christian piety, though the selling of indulgences was banned.

The Church also drew up a list of books, the *Index of Forbidden Books*, that were considered dangerous to the Catholic faith. Catholic bishops throughout Europe were ordered to gather up the offensive books, including Protestant Bibles, and burn them in great bonfires. The Church established the **Inquisition**, a court whose purpose was to punish **heretics** (those who denied or contradicted Church teachings). Trials were held to examine, often by torture, those who denied or opposed Church teachings.

The Impact of the Reformation

Because of the Reformation, religion no longer unified Europe. The Reformation tended to strengthen the power of secular rulers, paving the way for the emergence of the modern nation-state. In Protestant countries, people no longer had allegiance to the Pope: the secular ruler became the highest authority. In Catholic countries, the Church gave more power to secular rulers to help fight Protestantism. In general, France, Italy, Spain and Southern Germany remained Catholic. Northern Germany, England, Holland, and Scandinavia became Protestant. Finally, the reformers’ successful revolt against Church authority laid the groundwork for a rejection of Christian belief that occurred in Western culture in later centuries.

(ISN) Interactive Student Notebook Assignments

1. Copied content specific questions

(ISN) Discussion and Study Questions

1. Guiding Questions

(ISN) Tech Activities

Technology assignment that makes them do something with a computer

Vocabulary

[Quizlet Vocabulary Flashcards for The Protestant Reformation and Catholic Counter-Reformation](#)

TABLE 8.3:

Calvin, John	a Protestant religious leader who developed a body of religious teachings based on the idea of predestination. He became the leader of a theocratic government in Geneva, Switzerland, a city noted for its strict, moral rules of religious conduct.
Council of Trent	part of the Counter-Reformation, a series of meetings held from 1545-1563 by Roman Catholic leaders to rule on Church doctrines criticized by Protestant reformers.

TABLE 8.3: (continued)

Counter-Reformation	(or Catholic Reformation) the response of the Catholic Church to the Protestant Reformation, beginning with the Council of Trent (1545) and ending at the close of the Thirty Years' War (1648) A period of Catholic revival in which the Church struggled to retain the loyalty of its members.
Elizabeth I	An English Queen from 1533-1603 who stressed national unity and created a strong, centralized monarchy in which power was shared between the monarch and Parliament. She insisted on a moderate form of Protestantism and led the defense of England against an attack by Catholic Spain (Battle of the Spanish Armada).
indulgences	Pardons granted by the Catholic Church releasing a person from punishments due to a sin.
Inquisition	A Roman Catholic court established for investigating and prosecuting charges of heresy, especially the one active in Spain in the 15th century.
Jesuits Members of the Society of Jesus	a Roman Catholic religious order founded in 1540 whose primary goals were to stop the spread of Protestantism, convert non-Christians to Catholicism, and establish schools of learning.
Luther, Martin	A German monk who started the Protestant Reformation with his publication of his Ninety-Five Thesis. He would establish the first Protestant Church: the Lutheran Church.
Ninety-Five Theses	Written propositions put forth by Martin Luther, a Catholic monk, in 1517 that exposed what he believed were abuses of the Catholic clergy, especially the sale of indulgences. They are widely regarded as the primary catalyst for the Protestant Reformation.
Reformation	A 16th century European movement for religious reform, leading to the founding of Christian churches that rejected the pope's authority.

Internet Resources

- The Medieval period saw the population decline caused by war, disease, and famine. These factors gave way to a to the Renaissance
- Renaissance is the rebirth of Roman, Greek, and Hellenistic ideas. This led to Humanism which change the ways society looked at life. The Church's influence and control over Europe began to waiver.
- Renaissance Men such as Michaelangelo, Leonard Da Vinci, and Rafael worked for patrons to include nobels, merchant families, and the Church. There works can still be seen today
- As the Renaissance began to move North it changed it's artistic form to one more of a literary nature with the introduction of the printing press
- This new secular fervor, the rise of nationalism, and corruption by the Church led to the Reformation which begun in Wittenberg, Germany
- New religions splintered one after another, princes and monarchs sought to press their advantage against the Church, they sponsored religions which fell under the state's/their authority

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CHAPTER 9

Chapter Eight: The Americas (Pre-Columbian Empires to Colonies)

Chapter Outline

- 9.1 MAYA, INCA AND AZTEC CIVILIZATIONS**
 - 9.2 EUROPEANS CONQUER THE NEW WORLD**
 - 9.3 REFERENCES**
-

Early Mesoamerican civilizations begun with Olmec societies around La Venta. The cultivation of maize and religion were first noted here and the follow on civilizations of the Zapotec-as, Teotihuacan, and Mayans. These civilizations were extremely complex. They all share characteristics of mound or pyramid building, polytheistic beliefs, cultivation of maize. These early civilizations were organized into city-states.

Andean civilizations were started by the Moche, Chimu, and Nazaca. Much like their Mesoamerican counterparts they were primarily agriculture. The potato along with maize were their main agriculture products. They also showed belief in the afterlife as they practiced mummification.

The great empires of the Mayans, Aztecs and Incas are explored. The pyramids of Tenochtitlan amazed the Spanish conquistadors along with the practice of human sacrifice. The history and achievements of the Aztecs are quite extraordinary as they were able to create a major civilization on Lake Texocco. The Incas did not construct pyramids but ritualistic sites such as Machu Picchu show how skilled the Incas were at architectural construction.

Both empires succumbed to the Spanish conquest of Hernando Cortes and Francisco Pizarro. The impact of this conquest was devastating, nearly 90% of all native Americans died primarily from disease and war. The European culture and way of rule replaced those of the indigenous. This interaction led to the Columbian Exchange in which flora, fauna, people, technology, and disease were exchanged. In addition, millions of Africans were forced out of Africa into captivity along the Middle Passage, a torturous journey that resulted in the death of millions.

There arrival in the New World, usually began with the auction block. Families were separated and often the work and life was brutal. The most brutal forms of captivity took place in the sugar plantations of Latin America. Their contributions to the New World created and the economic inputs that allowed Europe to dominate trade and colonize large parts of the globe

9.1 Maya, Inca and Aztec Civilizations

8.1 Maya, Inca, and Aztec Civilizations

At the end of this section the student will be able to

- compare the major political, economic, social, and cultural developments of the Maya, Inca, and Aztec civilizations and explain how prior civilizations influenced their development.[WHS.6A]
- create and interpret thematic maps, graphs, and charts to demonstrate the relationship between geography and the historical development of a region or nation.[WHS.15A]
- analyze and compare geographic distributions and patterns in world history shown on maps, graphs, charts, and models.[WHS.15B]
- interpret maps, charts, and graphs to explain how geography has influenced people and events in the past.[WHS.16C]
- summarize the major ideas in astronomy, mathematics, and architectural engineering that developed in the Maya, Inca, and Aztec civilizations.[WHS.27B]
- analyze information by sequencing, categorizing, identifying cause-and-effect relationships, comparing, contrasting, finding the main idea, summarizing, making generalizations and predictions, drawing inferences and conclusions, and developing connections between historical events over time.[WHS.29F]
- use social studies terminology correctly.[WHS.30A]
- use standard grammar, spelling, sentence structure, and punctuation.[WHS.30B]
- interpret and create written, oral, and visual presentations of social studies information.[WHS.30C]

Early Mesoamerican Civilizations

The Olmec were the first major civilization in Mexico. They lived in the tropical lowlands of south-central Mexico, in the present-day states of Veracruz and Tabasco, and had their center in the city of La Venta.

The Olmec flourished during Mesoamerica's formative period, dating roughly from as early as 1500 BCE to about 400 BCE. Pre-Olmec cultures had flourished in the area since about 2500 BCE, but by 1600–1500 BCE, Early Olmec culture had emerged. They were the first Mesoamerican civilization and laid many of the foundations for the civilizations that followed.

The Olmec heartland is the area in the Gulf of Mexico's lowlands and is generally considered the birthplace of the Olmec culture. This area is characterized by swampy lowlands punctuated by low hills, ridges, and volcanoes. The Tuxtla Mountains rise sharply in the north, along the Gulf of Mexico's Bay of Campeche. Here the Olmec constructed permanent city-temple complexes at San Lorenzo Tenochtitlán, La Venta, Tres Zapotes, and Laguna de los Cerros. **Religion**

Unfortunately, there is no surviving direct account of Olmec beliefs, but their notable artwork provide clues about their life and religion.

There were eight different androgynous Olmec deities, each with its own distinct characteristics. For example, the Bird Monster was depicted as a harpy eagle associated with rulership while the Olmec Dragon was shown with flame eyebrows, a bulbous nose, and bifurcated tongue. These gods were believed to provide the rulers a mandate to lead.

Trade and Village Life

The Olmec were not economically confined by any stretch of the imagination. In fact, Olmec artifacts have been found across Mesoamerica, indicating that there were extensive interregional trade routes. The Olmec period saw a

**FIGURE 9.1**

Olmec King Surviving art, like this relief of a king or chief found in La Venta, help provide clues about how Olmec society functioned.

significant increase in the length of trade routes, the variety of goods, and the sources of traded items.

Trading helped the Olmec build their urban centers of San Lorenzo and La Venta. However, these cities were used predominantly for ceremonial purposes; most people lived in villages. Individual homes had a lean-to and a storage pit nearby. They also likely had gardens in which the Olmec would grow medicinal herbs and small crops like sunflowers.

Most agriculture took place outside of the villages in fields cleared using slash-and-burn techniques. The Olmec likely grew crops like maize, beans, squash, manioc, sweet potatoes, and cotton. **Art**

The Olmec culture was first defined as an art style, and this continues to be the hallmark of the culture. Wrought in a large number of media – jade, clay, basalt, and greenstone among others – much Olmec art, such as *The Wrestler*, is surprisingly naturalistic. Other art expresses fantastic anthropomorphic creatures, often highly stylized, using an iconography reflective of a religious meaning. [26] Common motifs include downturned mouths and a cleft head, both of which are seen in representations of were-jaguars.

The Olmec colossal heads are at least seventeen monumental stone representations of human heads sculpted from large basalt boulders. The heads date from at least before 900 BC and are a distinctive feature of the Olmec civilization of ancient Mesoamerica. All portray mature men with fleshy cheeks, flat noses, and slightly crossed eyes; their physical characteristics correspond to a type that is still common among the inhabitants of Tabasco and

Veracruz. The backs of the monuments often are flat. The boulders were brought from the Sierra de los Tuxtlas mountains of Veracruz. Given that the extremely large slabs of stone used in their production were transported over large distances, requiring a great deal of human effort and resources, it is thought that the monuments represent portraits of powerful individual Olmec rulers. Each of the known examples has a distinctive headdress. The heads were variously arranged in lines or groups at major Olmec centres, but the method and logistics used to transport the stone to these sites remain unclear. The discovery of a colossal head at Tres Zapotes in the nineteenth century spurred the first archaeological investigations of Olmec culture by Matthew Stirling in 1938. Seventeen confirmed examples are known from four sites within the Olmec heartland on the Gulf Coast of Mexico. Most colossal heads were sculpted from spherical boulders but two from San Lorenzo Tenochtitlán were re-carved from massive stone thrones. An additional monument, at Takalik Abaj in Guatemala, is a throne that may have been carved from a colossal head. This is the only known example from outside the Olmec heartland.

**FIGURE 9.2**

Olmec Head This sculpture is typical of the Colossal Heads of the Olmec

The End of the Olmecs

The Olmec population declined sharply between 400 and 350 BCE, though it is unclear why. Archaeologists speculate that the depopulation was caused by environmental changes, specifically riverine environment changes. These changes may have been triggered by the silting up of rivers due to agricultural practices.

Another theory for the considerable population drop relates to tectonic upheavals or subsidence, as suggested by Santley and colleagues who propose relocation of settlements due to volcanism, instead of extinction. Volcanic eruptions during the Early, Late and Terminal Formative periods would have blanketed the lands and forced the Olmec to move their settlements. **The Zapotecas**

The Zapotec civilization originated in the three Central Valleys of Oaxaca in the late 6th Century BCE. The valleys were divided between three different-sized societies, separated by no-man's-land in the middle, today occupied by the city of Oaxaca. Archaeological evidence from the period, such as burned temples and sacrificed captives, suggest

that the three societies competed against each other.



FIGURE 9.3

Panorama from Monte Alban The view from the site of origin of the Zapotec

Phases

Phase	Period
Monte Alban 1	ca 400–100 BC
Monte Alban 2	ca 100 BC – AD 100
Monte Alban 3	ca AD 200-900
Monte Alban 4	ca 900–1350
Monte Alban 5	ca 1350–1521

FIGURE 9.4

Mount Alban Phases Historical Mount Alban phases and the years each represents.

The Zapotec state formed at Monte Albán began an expansion during the late Monte Alban 1 phase (400–100 BCE) and throughout the Monte Alban 2 phase (100 BCE – 200 CE).

Zapotec rulers seized control over the provinces outside the valley of Oaxaca. They were able to do this during Monte Alban 1c (roughly 200 BC) to Monte Alban 2 (200 BCE – 100 CE) because none of the surrounding provinces could compete with the valley of Oaxaca both politically and militarily. By 200 AD the Zapotecs had extended their influence, from Quiotepec in the North to Ocelotepec and Chiltepec in the South. Monte Albán had become the largest city in what are today the southern Mexican highlands, and retained this status until approximately 700 CE.

Expansion and Decline

The expansion of the Zapotec empire peaked during the Monte Alban II phase. Zapotecs conquered or colonized settlements far beyond The Valley of Oaxaca.

Between Monte Alban phases 1 and 2 there was a considerable expansion of the population of the Valley of Oaxaca. As the population grew, so did the degree of social differentiation, the centralization of political power, and ceremonial activity. During Monte Alban 1-2 valley appears to have been fragmented into several independent states, as manifested in regional centers of power.

The Zapotecs were ultimately destroyed by Spanish invaders. Having lost militarily to the Aztecs in battles from 1497-1502, the Zapotecs tried to avoid confrontation with the Spaniards. The Spaniards took advantage of this and ultimately defeated the Zapotecs after five years of campaigns ending in 1527. There were some subsequent uprisings against the new rulers, but for all intents and purposes, the Zapotecs were conquered. **Zapotec Society**

The Zapotecs developed a calendar and a logosyllabic system of writing that used a separate glyph to represent each of the syllables of the language. This writing system is thought to be one of the first writing systems of Mesoamerica and a predecessor of the those developed by the Maya, Mixtec, and Aztec civilizations.

Like most Mesoamerican religious systems, the Zapotec religion was polytheistic. Two principal deities include Cocijo, the rain god (similar to the Aztec god Tlaloc), and Coquihani, the god of light.

According to historic as well as contemporary Zapotec legends, their ancestors emerged from the earth, from caves, or turned into people from trees or jaguars. Their governing elite apparently believed that they descended from supernatural beings that lived among the clouds, and that upon death they would return to such status. In fact, the name by which Zapotecs are known today results from this belief. The Zapotecs of the Central Valleys call themselves "Be'ena' Za'a" - The Cloud People.



FIGURE 9.5

A funerary urn in the shape of a "bat god" or a jaguar ca. AD 300–650. Height: 9.5 in (23 cm).

Mitla

Mitla is the second most important archeological site in the state of Oaxaca in Mexico, and the most important of the Zapotec culture. The site is located 44 km from the city of Oaxaca. While Monte Albán was most important as the political center, Mitla was the main religious center. The name Mitla is derived from the Nahuatl name Mictlán, which was the place of the dead or underworld. Its Zapotec name is Lyobaa, which means "place of rest." The name Mictlán was Hispanicized to Mitla by the Spanish. However, what makes Mitla unique among Mesoamerican sites is the elaborate and intricate mosaic fretwork and geometric designs that cover tombs, panels, friezes and even entire walls. These mosaics are made with small, finely cut and polished stone pieces which have been fitted together without the use of mortar. No other site in Mexico has this. **Teotihuacan**

Just 30 miles from modern day Mexico City lies the precolumbian Mesoamerican city of Teotihuacan. It is famous for its pyramids and series of accompanying residential compounds, but was once much more than an archaeological and tourist site.

Archaeological evidence suggests that Teotihuacan was a multi-ethnic city, with distinct quarters occupied by Otomi,

Zapotec, Mixtec, Maya and Nahua peoples. In 2001, Terrence Kaufman presented linguistic evidence suggesting that an important ethnic group in Teotihuacan was of Totonacan or Mixe–Zoquean linguistic affiliation. Other scholars maintain that the largest population group must have been of Otomi ethnicity, because the Otomi language is known to have been spoken in the area around Teotihuacan both before and after the classic period and not during the middle period.

The city is thought to have been established around 100 BC, with major monuments continuously under construction until about AD 250. The city may have lasted until sometime between the 7th and 8th centuries AD, but its major monuments were sacked and systematically burned around 550 AD. At its zenith, perhaps in the first half of the 1st millennium AD, Teotihuacan was the largest city in the pre-Columbian Americas, with a population estimated at 125,000 or more, making it at minimum the sixth largest city in the world during its epoch. Teotihuacan began as a new religious center in the Mexican Highland around the first century AD. This city came to be the largest and most populated center in the New World. Teotihuacan was even home to multi-floor apartment compounds built to accommodate this large population. The civilization and cultural complex associated with the site is also referred to as Teotihuacan or Teotihuacano. Although it is a subject of debate whether Teotihuacan was the center of a state empire, its influence throughout Mesoamerica is well documented; evidence of Teotihuacano presence can be seen at numerous sites in Veracruz and the Maya region. The Aztecs may have been influenced by this city. The ethnicity of the inhabitants of Teotihuacan is also a subject of debate. Possible candidates are the Nahua, Otomi or Totonac ethnic groups. Scholars have also suggested that Teotihuacan was a multiethnic state. **Founding**

The city is thought to have been established around 100 BC, with major monuments continuously under construction until about AD 250. The city may have lasted until sometime between the 7th and 8th centuries AD, but its major monuments were sacked and systematically burned around 550 AD. At its zenith, perhaps in the first half of the 1st millennium AD, Teotihuacan was the largest city in the pre-Columbian Americas, with a population estimated at 125,000 or more, making it at minimum the sixth largest city in the world during its epoch. Teotihuacan began as a new religious center in the Mexican Highland around the first century AD. This city came to be the largest and most populated center in the New World. Teotihuacan was even home to multi-floor apartment compounds built to accommodate this large population. The civilization and cultural complex associated with the site is also referred to as Teotihuacan or Teotihuacano. The founders of the city, however, are not known. Scholars have speculated that the Xitle volcano may have prompted a mass emigration out of the central valley and into the Teotihuacan valley. These settlers may have founded, or at least helped grow, the city.

An alternate explanation is that the Totonac people, who still remain today, founded Teotihuacan. There is also evidence that at least some of the people living in Teotihuacan immigrated from those areas influenced by the Teotihuacano civilization, including the Zapotec, Mixtec, and Maya peoples.

Layout

The city's broad central avenue, called "Avenue of the Dead" (a translation from its Nahuatl name *Miccoatl*), is flanked by impressive ceremonial architecture, including the immense Pyramid of the Sun (third largest in the World after the Great Pyramid of Cholula and the Great Pyramid of Giza). Along the Avenue of the Dead are many smaller talud-tablero platforms. The Aztecs believed they were tombs, inspiring the name of the avenue. Further down the Avenue of the Dead is the area known as the Citadel, containing the ruined Temple of the Feathered Serpent. This area was a large plaza surrounded by temples that formed the religious and political center of the city. Most of the common people lived in large apartment buildings spread across the city. Many of the buildings contained workshops where artisans produced pottery and other goods.

The geographical layout of Teotihuacan is a good example of the Mesoamerican tradition of planning cities, settlements, and buildings as a reflection of the view of the Universe. Its urban grid is aligned to precisely 15.5° east of North. One theory says this is due to the fact that the sun rose at that same angle during the same summer day each year. Settlers used the alignment to calibrate their sense of time or as a marker for planting crops or performing certain rituals. Another theory is that there are numerous ancient sites in Mesoamerica that seem to be oriented with the tallest mountain in their given area. This appears to be the case at Teotihuacan, although the mountain to which



FIGURE 9.6

Piramide del Sol Pirámide del Sol at Teotihuacan

it is oriented is not visible from within the Teotihuacan complex due to a closer mountain ridge. Pecked-cross circles throughout the city and in the surrounding regions indicate how the people managed to maintain the urban grid over long distances. It also enabled them to orient the Pyramids to the distant mountain that was out of sight.

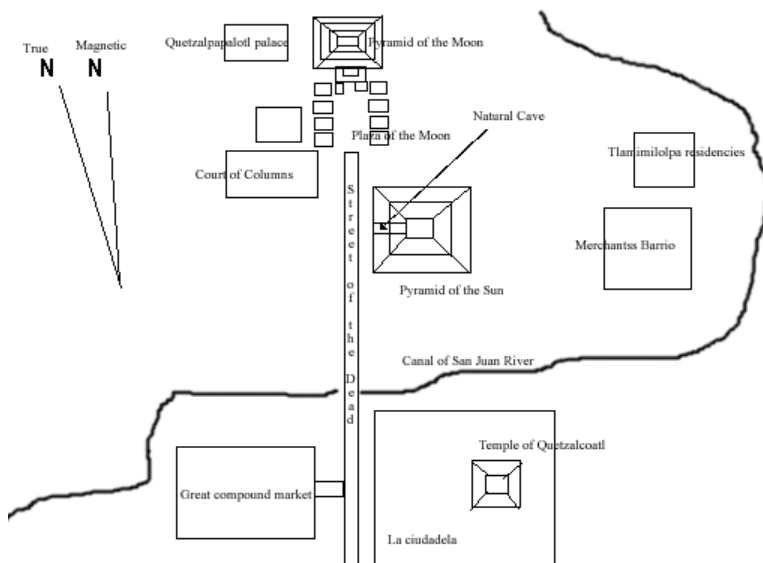


FIGURE 9.7

Teotihuacan City Plan The layout of Teotihuacan exemplifies Mesoamerican urban planning

Mayan Civilization

The pre-classic period is the first of three periods in Mayan history, coming before the classic and post-classic periods. It extends from the emergence of the first settlements sometime between 2000 and 1500 BCE until 250 CE. The Pre-classic Era saw the rise of large-scale ceremonial architecture, writing, cities, and states. Many of the distinctive elements of Mesoamerican civilization can be traced back to this period, including the dominance of corn, the building of pyramids, human sacrifice, jaguar-worship, the complex calendar, and many of the gods.

The pre-classic period is further divided into four periods: early pre-classic, middle pre-classic, late pre-classic, terminal pre-classic. **Early Pre-classic (2000 BCE–1000 BCE)**

Though the exact starting date of Mayan civilization is unclear, there were Mayan language speakers in the Southern Maya Area by 2000 BCE. It appears that around this time the Maya people began to transition from a hunter-gatherer lifestyle to a culture based around agricultural villages. The process appears to have been a gradual one. Analysis of bones from early Maya grave sites indicate that, although maize had already become a major component of the diet by this time, fish, meat from game animals, and other hunted or gathered foods still made up a major component of the diet. Along with the gradual development of agriculture, basic forms of pottery began to appear, with simple designs and some slipped vessels.

Around this time, the Olmec culture began to emerge in nearby Tabasco, granting the early Maya an important trading partner and beginning a period of prolonged contact that would have profound effects on Maya society.



FIGURE 9.8

Southern Maya Area By 2000 BCE, there were speakers of Mayan languages in the Southern Maya Area

Middle Pre-classic (1000 BCE–400 BCE)

By around the year 1000 BCE, centuries of agricultural village life had begun to form the beginnings of a complex society: prestige goods such as obsidian mirrors and jade mosaics began to appear, increasing the demand for more extensive trade. Canals and irrigation schemes demanding coordinated human effort began to appear with increasing complexity and scale. Gradually, villages began to include central plazas and earthen mounds, occasionally enhanced by masonry. For instance, the site of La Blanca featured a central mound more than seventy-five feet tall and contained a masonry fragment strongly resembling a head in the distinctive Olmec style. Carved stone stele also began to appear during this period, adorned with portraits of rulers but still devoid of writing. Warfare appears to have intensified during this period, as evidenced by advanced weaponry, rulers beginning to be portrayed as warriors, and the appearance of mass graves and decapitated skeletons.

Beginning around 900 BCE, the Pacific coastal region fell under the dominance of the La Blanca statelet, which collapsed around 600 BCE, to be replaced by a polity centered around the El Ujuxte site. Another early statelet was probably based at the site of Chalchuapa, a town with extensive earthen mounds arranged around several plazas. However, it was likely ruled by the first true Maya city-state, Kaminaljuyu. Lying within modern-day Guatemala City on the shores of Lake Miraflores, Kaminaljuyu developed a powerful government structure that organized massive irrigation campaigns and built numerous intricately carved stone monuments to its rulers. These monuments clearly depict war captives and often show the rulers holding weapons, indicating the Kaminaljuyu polity engaged in active

warfare, dominating the Guatemalan highlands for centuries.



FIGURE 9.9

Nakbe Palace A middle preclassic palace at Nakbe

During this period, the Olmec culture reached its zenith, centered around the capital of La Venta in modern-day Tabasco near the early Maya centers. Speakers of a Mixe–Zoquean language, the Olmec are generally recognized as the first true civilization in the Americas. Their capital city of La Venta contains extensive earthworks and stone monuments, including several of the distinctive Olmec stone heads. The Olmec share several features with later Maya culture, including extensive jaguar-worship, a diet dominated by maize, and the use of the cacao plant. Several words entered Mayan from a Mixe–Zoquean language, presumably due to Olmec influence. These words include the word *ajaw*, meaning "lord," and *kakaw*, which has become the English words "cacao" and "chocolate." Most of these borrowings relate to prestige concepts and high culture, indicating that the Middle Pre-classic Maya were deeply impressed and influenced by their northwestern neighbors. **Late Pre-classic (400 BCE–100 CE)**

The Late Pre-classic saw the rise of two powerful states that rival later Classic Maya city-states for scale and monumental architecture, Kaminaljuyu in the highlands and El Mirador in the lowlands. **Terminal Pre-classic (100 CE–250 CE)**

The late or terminal Pre-classic murals found in San Bartolo provide important information regarding mythology and royal inauguration ritual around 100 BCE.

The story of the mysterious lost civilization that suddenly collapsed for an unknown reason has captured the popular imagination for well over a century. What is not as widely known is that there were actually two collapses, one at the end of the Preclassic and a more famous one at the end of the Classic. The Pre-classic collapse refers to the systematic decline and abandoning of the major Pre-classic cities such as Kaminaljuyu and El Mirador in around 100 CE. A number of theories have been proposed, but there is as little consensus as there is for the causes of the more famous collapse between the Classic and Post-classic periods. **Classical Mayan Civilization**

The Classic period lasted from 250–900 CE. It was one of the peak of large-scale construction and urbanism, the recording of monumental inscriptions, and significant intellectual and artistic development, particularly in the southern lowland regions. During this period the Maya population numbered in the millions. The Mayans developed an agriculturally intensive, city-centered civilization consisting of numerous independent city-states of varying power and influence. They created a multitude of kingdoms and small empires, built monumental palaces and

temples, engaged in highly developed ceremonies, and developed an elaborate hieroglyphic writing system.



FIGURE 9.10

Maya Cities Some of the most important sites and cities from the Classic and Post-classic periods.

The political, economic, and culturally dominant 'core' Maya units of the Classic Maya world system were located in the central lowlands, while its corresponding peripheral Maya units were found along the margins of the southern highland and northern lowland areas. The semi-peripheral (mediational) units generally took the form of trade and commercial centers. But as in all world systems, the Maya core centers shifted through time, starting out during Pre-classic times in the southern highlands, moving to the central lowlands during the Classic period, and finally shifting to the northern peninsula during the Post-classic period. **Monuments**

The most notable monuments are the stepped pyramids they built in their religious centers and the accompanying palaces of their rulers. The palace at Cancuén is the largest in the Maya area, but the site has no pyramids.



FIGURE 9.11

Tikal Temple Classic period temple from Tikal, Guatemala.

Other important archaeological remains include the carved stone slabs usually called stelae (the Maya called them tetun, or "tree-stones"), which depict rulers along with hieroglyphic texts describing their genealogy, military

victories, and other accomplishments.



FIGURE 9.12

Mayan Mask Stucco frieze from Placeres, Campeche. Early Classic period (c. 250 - 600 AD).

Trade

The political relationship between Classic Maya city-states has been likened to the relationships between city-states in Classical Greece and Renaissance Italy. Some cities were linked to each other by straight limestone causeways, known as *sacbeob*, although whether the exact function of these roads was commercial, political or religious has not been determined.

The Maya civilization participated in long distance trade with many of the other Mesoamerican cultures, including Teotihuacan, the Zapotec, and other groups in central and gulf-coast Mexico. In addition, they had trade and exchanges with more distant, non-Mesoamerican groups, for example the Taínos of the Caribbean islands. Archeologists have found gold from Panama in the Sacred Cenote of Chichen Itza. Important trade goods included cacao, salt, seashells, jade, and obsidian. **Decline**

The Classic Maya Collapse refers to the decline of the Mayan Classic Period and abandonment of the Classic Period Maya cities of the southern Maya lowlands of Mesoamerica between the 8th and 9th centuries. This should not be confused with the collapse of the Preclassic Maya in the 2nd century CE. The Classic Period of Mesoamerican chronology is generally defined as the period from 300 to 900 CE, the last 100 years of which, from 800 to 900 CE, are frequently referred to as the Terminal Classic.

It has been hypothesized that the decline of the Maya is related to the collapse of their intricate trade systems, especially those connected to the central Mexican city of Teotihuacán. Preceding improved knowledge of the chronology of Mesoamerica, Teotihuacan was believed to have fallen during AD 700–750, forcing the "restructuring of economic relations throughout highland Mesoamerica and the Gulf Coast". This remaking of relationships between civilizations would have then given the collapse of the Classic Maya a slightly later date. However, after knowing more about the events and the time periods that they occurred, it is now believed that the strongest Teotihuacan influence was during the 4th and 5th centuries. In addition, the civilization of Teotihuacan started to lose its power, and maybe even abandoned the city, during AD 600–650. This differs greatly from the previous belief that Teotihuacano power decreased during AD 700–750. But since the new decline date of AD 600–650 has been accepted, the Maya civilizations are now thought to have lived on, and also prospered perhaps for another century and more than what was previously believed.

The Classic Maya Collapse is one of the biggest mysteries in archaeology. The classic Maya urban centers of the southern lowlands, among them Palenque, Copán, Tikal, Calakmul and many others, went into decline during the 8th and 9th centuries and were abandoned shortly thereafter. Some 88 different theories or variations of theories attempting to explain the Classic Maya Collapse have been identified. From climate change to deforestation to lack of action by Mayan kings, there is no universally accepted collapse theory, although drought is gaining momentum as the leading explanation. **Post-classical Mayan Civilization**

The period after the second collapse of the Maya empire (900 CE to 1600 CE) is called the post-classic period. Development in the northern centers persisted, characterized by an increasing diversity of external influences; the center of power shifted from the central lowlands to the northern peninsula in the post-classic period.

The Maya cities of the northern lowlands in Yucatán continued to flourish; some of the important sites in this era were Chichen Itza, Uxmal, Edzná, and Coba. A typical Classic Maya polity was a small hierarchical state (ajawil, ajawlel, or ajawlil) headed by a hereditary ruler known as an ajaw (later k'uhul ajaw). Such kingdoms were usually no more than a capital city with its neighborhood and several lesser towns, although there were greater kingdoms, which controlled larger territories and extended patronage over smaller polities. Each kingdom had a name that did not necessarily correspond to any locality within its territory. Its identity was that of a political unit associated with a particular ruling dynasty. Interestingly, despite constant warfare and eventual shifts in regional power, most kingdoms never disappeared from the political landscape until the collapse of the whole system in the 9th century AD. In this respect, Classic Maya kingdoms are highly similar to late Post Classic polities encountered by the Spaniards in Yucatán and Central Mexico: some polities could be subordinated to hegemonic rulers through conquests or dynastic unions and yet even then they persisted as distinct entities.



FIGURE 9.13

El Castillo (pyramid of Kukulcán) in Chichén Itzá. Built by the pre-Columbian Maya civilization sometime between the 9th and 12th centuries CE, El Castillo served as a temple to the god Kukulcán, the Yucatec Maya Feathered Serpent deity closely related to the god Quetzalcoatl known to the Aztecs and other central Mexican cultures of the Postclassic period.

Spanish sources invariably describe even the largest Maya settlements as dispersed collections of dwellings grouped around the temples and palaces of the ruling dynasty and lesser nobles. None of the Classic Maya cities shows evidence of economic specialization and commerce of the scale of Mexican Tenochtitlan. Instead, Maya cities could be seen as enormous royal households, the locales of the administrative and ritual activities of the royal court. They were the places where privileged nobles could approach the holy ruler, where aesthetic values of the high culture were formulated and disseminated and where aesthetic items were consumed. They were the self-proclaimed centers and the sources of social, moral, and cosmic order. The fall of a royal court as in the well-documented cases of Piedras Negras or Copan would cause the inevitable "death" of the associated settlement. After the decline of the ruling dynasties of Chichen and Uxmal, Mayapan ruled all of Yucatán until a revolt in 1450. (This city's name may be the source of the word "Maya", which had a more geographically restricted meaning in Yucatec and colonial Spanish and only grew to its current meaning in the 19th and 20th centuries). The area then degenerated into competing city-states until Yucatán was conquered by the Spanish.

The Itza Maya, Ko'woj, and Yalain groups of Central Peten survived the collapse in the classic period in small

numbers and by 1250 reconstituted themselves to form competing city-states. The Itza maintained their capital at Tayasal (also known as Noh Petén), an archaeological site thought to underlay the modern city of Flores, Guatemala on Lake Petén Itzá. It ruled over an area extending across the Peten Lakes region, encompassing the community of Eckixil on Lake Quexil. The Ko'woj had their capital at Zacpeten. Post-classic Maya states also continued to survive in the southern highlands.

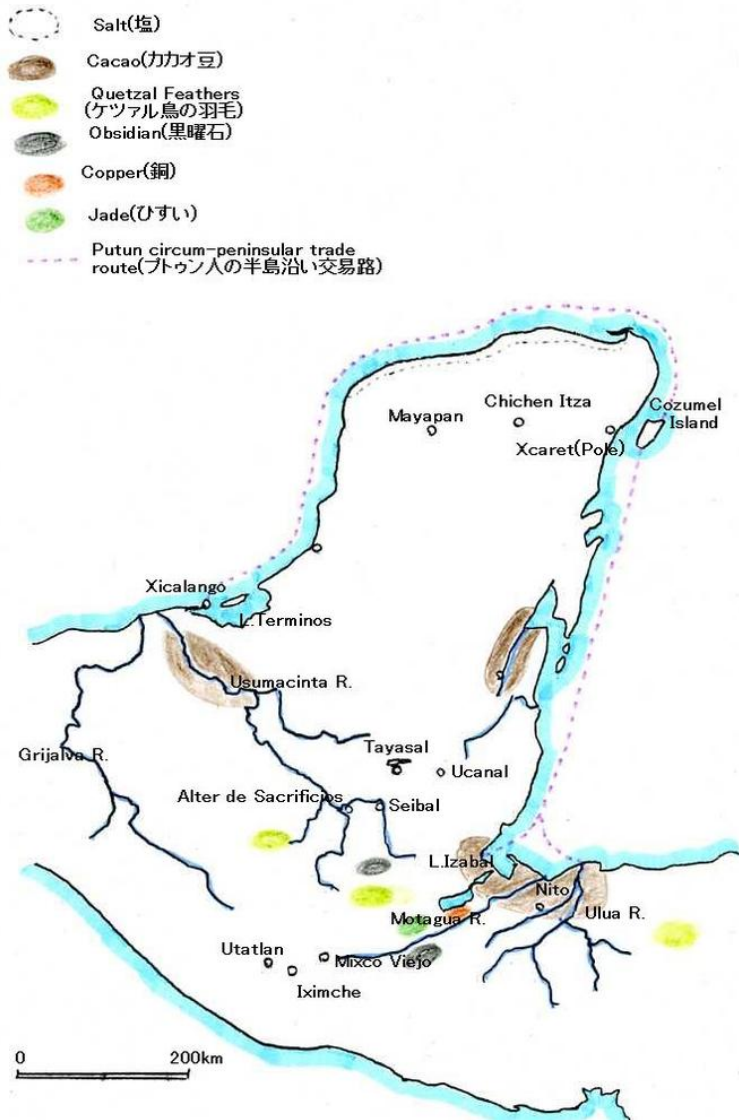


FIGURE 9.14

Trade routes and important cities. Important sites and trade routes from the terminal classic and early-postclassic periods.

The post-classic period is often viewed as a period of cultural decline. However, it was a time of technological advancement in areas of architecture, engineering and weaponry. Metallurgy came into use for jewelry and some tools, with new alloys and techniques being developed in a few centuries. It appears that the wealthy *pochteca* (merchant class) and military orders became more powerful than was apparently the case in classic times. This afforded some degree of social mobility. **The Colonial Period**

Shortly after their first expeditions to the region in the 16th century, the Spanish initiated a number of attempts to subjugate the Maya who were hostile towards the Spanish crown and establish a colonial presence in the Maya territories of the Yucatán Peninsula and the Guatemalan highlands. This campaign, sometimes termed "The Spanish

Conquest of Yucatán", would prove to be a lengthy and dangerous exercise for the conquistadores from the outset, and it would take some 170 years and tens of thousands of Indian auxiliaries before the Spanish established substantive control over all Maya lands. Unlike the Aztec and Inca Empires, there was no single Maya political center that, once overthrown, would hasten the end of collective resistance from the indigenous peoples. Instead, the conquistador forces needed to subdue the numerous independent Maya polities almost one by one, many of which kept up a fierce resistance. Most of the conquistadors were motivated by the prospects of the great wealth to be had from the seizure of precious metal resources such as gold or silver; however, the Maya lands themselves were poor in these resources. This would become another factor in forestalling Spanish designs of conquest, as they instead were initially attracted to the reports of great riches in central Mexico or Peru. The Spanish Church and government officials destroyed Maya texts and with them the knowledge of Maya writing, but by chance three of the pre-Columbian books dated to the post classic period have been preserved. These are known as the Madrid Codex, The Dresden Codex and the Paris Codex. The last Maya states, the Itza polity of Tayasal and the Ko'woj city of Zacpeten, were continuously occupied and remained independent of the Spanish until late in the 17th century. They were finally subdued by the Spanish in 1697. **The Toltecs**

The Toltec culture is an archaeological Mesoamerican culture that dominated a state centered in Tula, in the early post-classic period of Mesoamerican chronology (ca 800–1000 CE). Much of what is known about the Toltecs is based on what has been learned about the Aztecs, another Mesoamerican culture who postdated the Toltecs and admired the Toltecs as their predecessors. Since so much of what remains on record about the Toltecs may have been tainted by Aztec glorification and mythology, it is difficult to parse out the true history.



FIGURE 9.15

Tula A map of Tula, the site of origin for the Toltecs.

The later Aztec culture saw the Toltecs as their intellectual and cultural predecessors and described Toltec culture emanating from Tōllān [to[u+02C8]to[u+02D0]l[u+02D0]a[u+02D0]n] (Nahuatl for Tula) as the epitome of civilization; indeed in the Nahuatl language the word "Tōltēcatl" [to[u+02D0]l[u+02C8]te[u+02D0]kat[u+0361]] (singular) or "Tōltēcāh" [to[u+02D0]l[u+02C8]te[u+02D0]ka[u+0294]] (plural) came to take on the meaning "artisan". The Aztec oral and pictographic tradition also described the history of the Toltec Empire, giving lists of rulers and their exploits. Among modern scholars it is a matter of debate whether the Aztec narratives of Toltec history should be given credence as descriptions of actual historical events. While all scholars acknowledge that there is a large mythological part of the narrative, some maintain that by using a critical comparative method some level of historicity can be salvaged from the sources. Others maintain that continued analysis of the narratives as sources of actual history is futile and hinders access to actual knowledge of the culture. Other controversies relating to the Toltecs include how best to understand the reasons behind the perceived similarities in architecture and iconography between the archaeological site of Tula and the Mayan site of Chichén Itzá. No consensus has yet emerged about

the degree or direction of influence between these two sites.

Historicists

The historicists belie



FIGURE 9.16

Toltec pyramid at Tula, Hidalgo Similarities to the pyramid at Chichén Itzá can be seen including shape and external steps.

ve that there is truth within the stories told by the Aztecs. Désiré Charnay, the first archaeologist to work at Tula, Hidalgo, defended the historicist views based on his impression of the Toltec capital, and was the first to note similarities in architectural styles between Tula and Chichén Itza, a famous archeological site. This led him to posit the theory that Chichén Itzá had been violently taken over by a Toltec military force under the leadership of Kukulcan. Following Charnay the term Toltec has since been associated with the influx of certain Central Mexican cultural traits into the Mayan sphere of dominance that took place in the late classic and early Post-classic periods; the Post-classic Mayan civilizations of Chichén Itzá, Mayapán and the Guatemalan highlands have been referred to as "Toltecized" or "Mexicanized" Mayas.

The historicist school of thought persisted well in to the 20th century, represented in the works of scholars such as David Carrasco, Miguel León Portilla, Nigel Davies and H. B. Nicholson, which all held the Toltecs to have been an actual ethnic group. This school of thought connected the "Toltecs" to the archaeological site of Tula, which was taken to be the Tollan of Aztec myth. This tradition assumes that much of central Mexico was dominated by a "Toltec empire" between the 10th and 12th century CE. The Aztecs referred to several Mexican city-states as Tollan, "Place of Reeds", such as "Tollan Cholollan". Archaeologist Laurette Sejourne, followed by the historian Enrique Florescano, have argued that the "original" Tollan was probably Teotihuacán. **Anti-Historicist**

On the other side of the argument lie those who believe that the Aztec stories are clouded by myth and can therefore not be taken as an accurate account of the Toltec civilization. Some scholars argued that the Toltec era is best considered the fourth of the five Aztec mythical "Suns" or ages, the one immediately preceding the fifth sun of the Aztec people, presided over by Quetzalcoatl. This caused Graulich to consider that the only possibly historical data in the Aztec chronicles are the names of some rulers and possibly some of the conquests ascribed to them. While the skeptical school of thought does not deny that cultural traits of a seemingly central Mexican origin have diffused into a larger area of Mesoamerica, it tends to ascribe this to the dominance of Teotihuacán in the Classic period and the general diffusion of cultural traits within the region. Recent scholarship, then, does not see Tula, Hidalgo as the capital of the Toltecs of the Aztec accounts. Rather, it takes "Toltec" to mean simply an inhabitant of Tula during its apogee. Separating the term "Toltec" from those of the Aztec accounts, it attempts to find archaeological clues to

the ethnicity, history and social organization of the inhabitants of Tula.

Aztec Empire Rises

The Aztecs were a Pre-Columbian Mesoamerican people of central Mexico in the 14th, 15th and 16th centuries. They called themselves Mexica. The Republic of Mexico and its capital, Mexico City, derive their names from the word "Mexica". The capital of the Aztec empire was Tenochtitlan, built on a raised island in Lake Texcoco. Modern Mexico City is built on the ruins of Tenochtitlan.

From the 13th century, the Valley of Mexico was the heart of Aztec civilization: here the capital of the Aztec Triple Alliance, the city of Tenochtitlan, was built upon raised islets in Lake Texcoco. The Triple Alliance formed a tributary empire expanding its political hegemony far beyond the Valley of Mexico, conquering other city states throughout Mesoamerica. At its pinnacle, Aztec culture had rich and complex mythological and religious traditions, as well as reaching remarkable architectural and artistic accomplishments. In 1521 Hernán Cortés, along with a large number of Nahuatl speaking indigenous allies, conquered Tenochtitlan and defeated the Aztec Triple Alliance under the leadership of Hueyi Tlatoani Moctezuma II. Subsequently the Spanish founded the new settlement of Mexico City on the site of the ruined Aztec capital, from where they proceeded with the process of colonizing Central America.



FIGURE 9.17

Basin in the Valley of Mexico circa 1519, at the time of the arrival of the Spanish

Politics

The Aztec Empire was an example of an empire that ruled by indirect means. Like most European empires, it was ethnically very diverse, but unlike most European empires, it was more of a system of tribute than a single system of government. Although the form of government is often referred to as an empire, in fact most areas within the empire were organized as city-states, known as *altepetl* in Nahuatl. These were small polities ruled by a king (*tlatoani*) from a legitimate dynasty.

Two of the primary architects of the Aztec empire were the half-brothers Tlacaelel and Montezuma I, nephews of Itzcoatl. Moctezuma I succeeded Itzcoatl as Hueyi Tlatoani in 1440. Although he was also offered the opportunity to be *tlatoani*, Tlacaelel preferred to operate as the power behind the throne. Tlacaelel reformed the Aztec state and religion. According to some sources, he ordered the burning of most of the extant Aztec books claiming that they contained lies. He thereupon rewrote the history of the Aztec people, thus creating a common awareness of history for the Aztecs. This rewriting led directly to the curriculum taught to scholars and promoted the belief that the Aztecs were always a powerful and mythic nation; forgetting forever a possible true history of modest origins. One component of this reform was the institution of ritual war (the flower wars) as a way to have trained warriors, and created the necessity of constant sacrifices to keep the Sun moving.

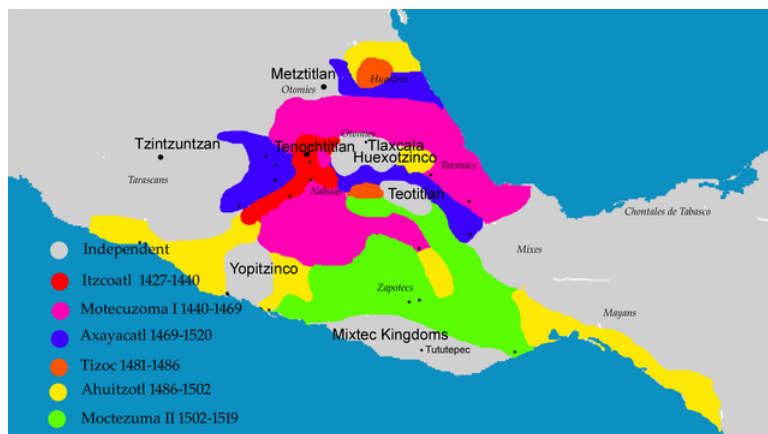


FIGURE 9.18

Aztec Expansion Map showing the expansion of the Aztec empire showing the areas conquered by the Aztec rulers

Economics

The Aztec economy can be divided into a political sector, under the control of nobles and kings, and a commercial sector that operated independently of the political sector. The political sector of the economy centered on the control of land and labor by kings and nobles. Nobles owned all land, and commoners got access to farmland and other fields through a variety of arrangements, from rental through sharecropping to serf-like labor and slavery. These payments from commoners to nobles supported both the lavish lifestyles of the high nobility and the finances of city-states. Many luxury goods were produced for consumption by nobles. The producers of featherwork, sculptures, jewelry, and other luxury items were full-time commoner specialists who worked for noble patrons.

Religion

The Aztecs had at least two manifestations of the supernatural: *tētl* and *tēixiptla*. *Tētl*, which the Spaniards and European scholars routinely mistranslated as "god" or "demon", referred rather to an impersonal force that permeated the world. *Tēixiptla*, by contrast, denoted the physical representations ("idols", statues and figurines) of the *tētl* as well as the human cultic activity surrounding this physical representation. The Mexica "gods" themselves had no existence as distinct entities apart from these *tēixiptla* representations of *tētl*. Veneration of Huitzilopochtli, the

personification of the sun and of war, was central to the religious, social and political practices of the Mexicas. Huitzilopochtli attained this central position after the founding of Tenochtitlan and the formation of the Mexica city-state society in the 14th century. According to myth, Huitzilopochtli directed the wanderers to found a city on the site where they would see an eagle devouring a snake perched on a fruit-bearing nopal cactus. (It was said that Huitzilopochtli killed his nephew, Cópil, and threw his heart on the lake. Huitzilopochtli honored Cópil by causing a cactus to grow over Cópil's heart.) Legend has it that this is the site on which the Mexicas built their capital city of Tenochtitlan. This legendary vision is pictured on the Coat of arms of Mexico. The Mexicas borrowed much of their culture from the ancient Toltec whom they seem to have at least partially confused with the more ancient civilization of Teotihuacan. To the Mexicas, the Toltecs were the originators of all culture.

As all other Mesoamerican cultures, the Aztecs played a variant of the Mesoamerican ballgame, named tlachtli or ollamalitzli in Nahuatl. The game was played with a ball of solid rubber, called an olli, whence derives the Spanish word for rubber, hule. The players hit the ball with their hips, knees, and elbows and had to pass the ball through a stone ring to automatically win. The practice of the ballgame carried religious and mythological meanings and also served as sport.

Human sacrifice

While human sacrifice was practiced throughout Mesoamerica, the Aztecs, if their own accounts are to be believed, brought this practice to an unprecedented level. For example, for the reconsecration of the Great Pyramid of Tenochtitlan in 1487, the Aztecs reported that they sacrificed 80,400 prisoners over the course of four days, reportedly by Ahuitzotl, the Great Speaker himself. This number, however, is not universally accepted. Accounts by the Tlaxcaltecas, the primary enemy of the Aztecs at the time of the Spanish Conquest, show that at least some of them considered it an honor to be sacrificed. In one legend, the warrior Tlahuicole was freed by the Aztecs but eventually returned of his own volition to die in ritual sacrifice. Tlaxcala also practiced the human sacrifice of captured Aztec Citizens.

Andean Civilizations

Moche Culture

The Moche (also known as the Early Chimú or Mochica) lived in what is modern-day Peru near Moche and Trujillo. Their civilization lasted from approximately 100 to 800 CE. The Moche were less of a state or empire and more of a society- they lived in a general geographic area and shared cultural values, but were not governed under a uniform political system.

Moche society was agriculturally based, with a significant level of investment in the construction of a network of irrigation canals for the diversion of river water to supply their crops. The Moche are particularly noted for their elaborately painted ceramics, gold work, monumental constructions (huacas) and irrigation systems.

The Moche cultural sphere is centered around several valleys on the north coast of Peru and occupied 250 miles of desert coastline and up to 50 miles inland. The Huaca del Sol, a pyramidal adobe structure on the Rio Moche, was the largest pre-Columbian structure in Peru, but it was partly destroyed when Spanish Conquistadores mined its graves for gold in the 16th century. During the Spanish occupation of Peru in the early 17th century, colonists redirected the waters of the Moche River to run past the base of the Huaca del Sol in order to facilitate the looting of gold artifacts from the temple. The operation of the hydraulic mine greatly damaged the Huaca del Sol. In total, approximately two-thirds of the structure has been lost to erosion and such looting. The remaining structure stands at a height of 41 meters (135 feet).Looting and erosion due to El Niño continue to be major concerns to this day.

The nearby Huaca de la Luna is better preserved. Its interior walls contains many colorful murals with complex iconography. The site has been under professional archaeological excavation since the early 1990s.



FIGURE 9.19

Huaca del Sol



FIGURE 9.20

A view of the Huaca de la Luna, with Cerro Blanco in the background

Religion

Both iconography and the finds of human skeletons in ritual contexts seem to indicate that human sacrifice played a significant part in Moche religious practices. These rites appear to have involved the elite as key actors in a spectacle of costumed participants, monumental settings and possibly the ritual consumption of blood. The Moche may have also held and tortured the victims for several weeks before sacrificing them, with the intent of deliberately drawing blood. The sacrifices may have been associated with rites of ancestral renewal and agricultural fertility, and some parts of the victim may have been eaten as a part of ritual cannibalism.

Moche iconography features a figure which scholars have nicknamed the "Decapitator" or Ai Apaec; it is frequently depicted as a spider, but sometimes as a winged creature or a sea monster: together all three features symbolize land, water and air. When the body is included, the figure is usually shown with one arm holding a knife and another holding a severed head by the hair; it has also been depicted as "a human figure with a tiger's mouth and snarling fangs".

**FIGURE 9.21**

Moche Decapitator A mural depicting the Decapitator, a Moche icon.

Art

The Moche are well known for their art, especially their naturalistic and articulate ceramics, particularly in the form of stirrup-spout vessels, that have come from the related ancient culture. The ceramics incorporate a wide-ranging subject matter, whether the actual form of the pot or the paintings on them, of representations that include people, animals, and gods hunting and making war, music making, visiting rulers, burying the dead, curing the sick, anthropomorphic and ritual scenes. Moche ceramics illustrate all manner of behavior, both human and divine, through expressive modeling and painting, but there were certain reoccurring narrative themes throughout that defined their ideologies.

Some of the ceramics have become known as "sex-pots": vessels depicting sexual acts. It is thought that these vessels were used for didactic purposes, and also as articulations of Moche culture. Because irrigation was the source of wealth and foundation of the empire, the Moche culture emphasized the importance of circulation and flow. Sexual themes in the pottery are posited to reflect Moche views of bodily fluids as an essential life force.

The Moche also wove textiles, mostly using wool from vicuña and alpaca. Although there are few surviving examples of this, descendants of the Moche people have strong weaving traditions.

Collapse

There are several theories as to what caused the demise of the Moche political structure. Some scholars have emphasized the role of environmental change. Studies of ice cores drilled from glaciers in the Andes reveal climatic events between 536 to 594 AD, possibly a super El Niño, that resulted in 30 years of intense rain and flooding followed by 30 years of drought, part of the aftermath of the climate changes of 535–536. These weather events could have disrupted the Moche way of life and shattered their faith in their religion, which had promised stable weather through sacrifices. Other evidence demonstrates that these events did not cause the final Moche demise. Moche polities survived beyond 650 AD in the Jequetepeque Valley and the Moche Valleys. For instance, in the Jequetepeque Valley, later settlements are characterized by fortifications and defensive works. While there is no evidence of a foreign invasion, as many scholars have suggested in the past, the defensive works suggest social unrest, possibly the result of climatic changes, as factions fought for control over increasingly scarce resources.

The Nazca

The Nazca lived near the southern coast of Peru from 100 BCE to 800 CE. From 500* AD, the civilization started to decline and by 750 AD the civilization had fallen completely. Like the Moche, it is thought that the Nazca may have been forced into decline by environmental change. This is thought to have occurred when an El Niño triggered widespread and destructive flooding. Evidence also suggests that the Nazca people may have exacerbated the effects of these floods by gradually cutting down *Prosopis pallida* trees to make room for maize and cotton agriculture. These trees play an extremely important role as the ecological keystone of this landscape: in particular preventing river and wind erosion. Gradual removal of trees would have exposed the landscape to the effects of climate perturbations such as El Niño, leading to erosion and leaving irrigation systems high and dry

Society and Religion

Early Nazca society was made up of local chiefdoms and regional centers of power centered around Cahuachi, a non-urban ceremonial site of earthwork mounds and plazas.

Likely related to the arid and extreme nature of the environment, Nazca religious beliefs were based upon agriculture and fertility. Much of Nazca art depicts powerful nature gods, such as the mythical killer whale, the harvesters, the mythical spotted cat, the serpentine creature, and the most prevalent of worshiped figures, the anthropomorphic mythical being. Much as in the contemporary Moche culture based in northwest Peru, shamans apparently used hallucinogenic drugs, such as extractions from the San Pedro cactus, to induce visions.

Nazca subsistence was based largely on agriculture. Iconography on ceramics and excavated remains indicate that the Nazca people had a varied diet, composed of maize, squash, sweet potato, manioc and achira, and a small trace of various fish. They also used several non-food crops, such as cotton for textiles, coca, San Pedro cactus, and gourds. The latter were decorated to illustrate activities in daily life. The evidence of coca in society can be seen through remains but also through ceramics. This is the same for the hallucinogenic San Pedro cactus, which has been illustrated in ceremonies on several polychrome pots and bowls. In terms of animal resources, the Nazca made sacrifices of llamas and guinea pigs at Cahuachi. Llamas were also commonly exploited as pack animals, for their wool, and as a source of meat.

Nazca Lines

The geoglyphs of Nazca or "Nazca Lines" are a series of geometric shapes, miles of lines, and large drawings of animal figures (some as large as a football field) constructed on the desert floor in the Nazca region. Many theories have arisen about the great geoglyphs. A large number of people over an extended period of time could have constructed the lines. Researchers have demonstrated techniques to see how this was done. By extending a rope between two posts and removing the red pebbles on the desert surface along the rope, the lines could be constructed. The contrast of the red desert pebbles and the lighter earth beneath would make the lines visible from a high altitude. Due to the simplistic construction of the geoglyphs, regular amounts of rainfall would have easily eroded the drawings but the dry desert environment has preserved the lines for hundreds of years.

The purpose of the lines continues to be debated, but it is unlikely that we will discover the true purpose of the geoglyphs.

Trephination and cranial manipulation

Trephination was a primitive skull surgery used by the Nazca that relieved pressure on the brain from battle wounds or for ritual purposes. It entails the removal of one or more sections of bone from the skull (while the person is still alive). Evidence of trephination has been seen through the analysis of excavated skulls. Some of the skulls show signs of healing, evidence that some individuals who underwent the procedure had survived. Elongated skulls, as a

**FIGURE 9.22**

Killer Whale (Orca)

result of skull manipulation, were also seen in the excavations from Cahuachi. This effect was achieved by binding a cushion to an infant's forehead and a board to the back of the head. Archaeologists can only speculate as to why this was done to some of the skulls. Several theories suggest skull manipulation created an ethnic identity, formed the individual into a social being, or may have illustrated social status.

The Inca Empire

The Inca Empire, or Inka Empire, was the largest empire in pre-Columbian America. The civilization emerged in the 13th century and lasted until it was conquered by the Spanish in 1572. The administrative, political and military center of the empire was located in Cusco (also spelled Cuzco) in modern-day Peru. From 1438 to 1533, the Incas used a variety of methods, from conquest to peaceful assimilation, to incorporate a large portion of western South America. Beginning with the rule of Pachacuti-Cusi Yupanqui, the Inca expanded their borders to including large parts of modern Ecuador, Peru, western and south central Bolivia, northwest Argentina, north and north-central Chile, and southern Colombia.



FIGURE 9.23

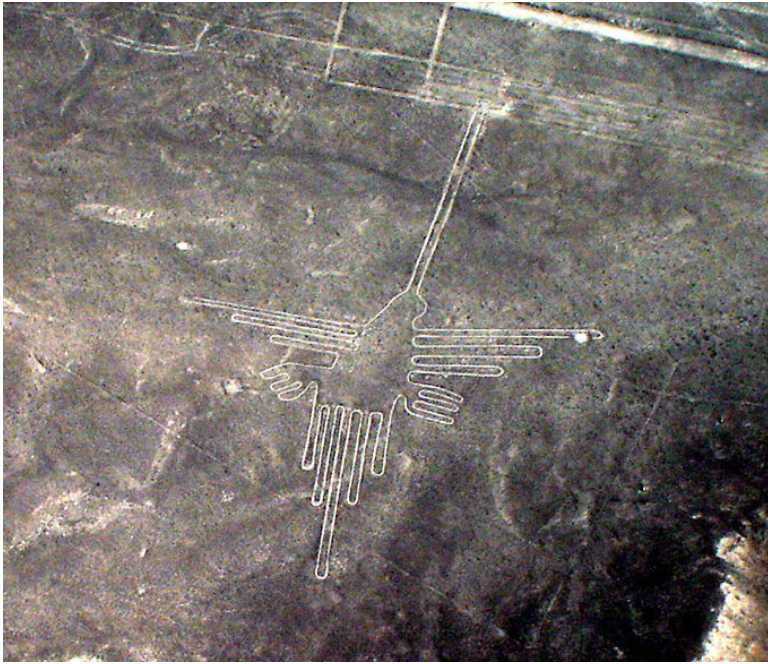
San Pedro Cactus

Religion

Inca myths were an oral tradition until early Spanish colonists recorded them; however, some scholars believe that they may have been recorded on quipus, Andean knotted string records. The Inca believed in reincarnation. Death was a passage to the next world that was full of difficulties. The spirit of the dead, *camaquen*, would need to follow a long dark road and during the trip the assistance of a black dog that was able to see in the dark was required. Most Incas imagined the after world to be very similar to the Euro-American notion of heaven, with flower covered fields and snow capped mountains. It was important for the Inca to ensure they did not die as a result of burning or that the body of the deceased did not become incinerated. This is because of the underlying belief that a vital force would disappear and threaten their passage to the after world. Those who obeyed the Inca moral code (do not steal, do not lie, do not be lazy) went to live in the "Sun's warmth" while others spent their eternal days "in the cold earth".

Though exaggerated by myth, it is true that the Incas made human sacrifices. As many as 4,000 servants, court officials, favorites, and concubines were killed upon the death of the Inca Huayna Capac in 1527, for example. The Incas also performed child sacrifices during or after important events, such as the death of the Sapa Inca or during a famine. These sacrifices were known as *capacocha*.

The Inca also practiced cranial deformation. They achieved this by wrapping tight cloth straps around the heads of newborns in order to alter the shape of their soft skulls into a more conical form; this cranial deformation was made to distinguish social classes of the communities, with only the nobility having cranial deformation.

**FIGURE 9.24**

Nazca Lines These Nazca lines, called The Hummingbird, are representative of the type of structure that remains

Architecture was by far the most important of the Inca arts, with textiles reflecting motifs that were at their height in architecture. The main example is the capital city of Cusco. The site of Machu Picchu was constructed by Inca engineers. The stone temples constructed by the Inca used a mortarless construction that fit together so well that a knife could not be fitted through the stonework. Machu Picchu was built around 1450, at the height of the Inca Empire. The construction of Machu Picchu appears to date from the period of the two great Incas, Pachacutec Inca Yupanqui (1438–71) and Tupac Inca Yupanqui (1472–93). Machu Picchu was abandoned just over 100 years later, in 1572, as a belated result of the Spanish Conquest, possibly related to smallpox.

This was a process first used on a large scale by the Pucara (ca. 300 BC–AD 300) peoples to the south in Lake Titicaca, and later in the great city of Tiwanaku (ca. AD 400–1100) in present day Bolivia. The rocks used in construction were sculpted to fit together exactly by repeatedly lowering a rock onto another and carving away any sections on the lower rock where the dust was compressed. The tight fit and the concavity on the lower rocks made them extraordinarily stable.

(ISN) Interactive Student Notebook Assignments

1. Copied content specific questions

(ISN) Discussion and Study Questions

1. Guiding Questions

(ISN) Tech Activities

Technology assignment that makes them do something with a computer

Vocabulary

[Quizlet Flashcard Vocabulary for Maya, Inca, and Aztec Civilizations](#)

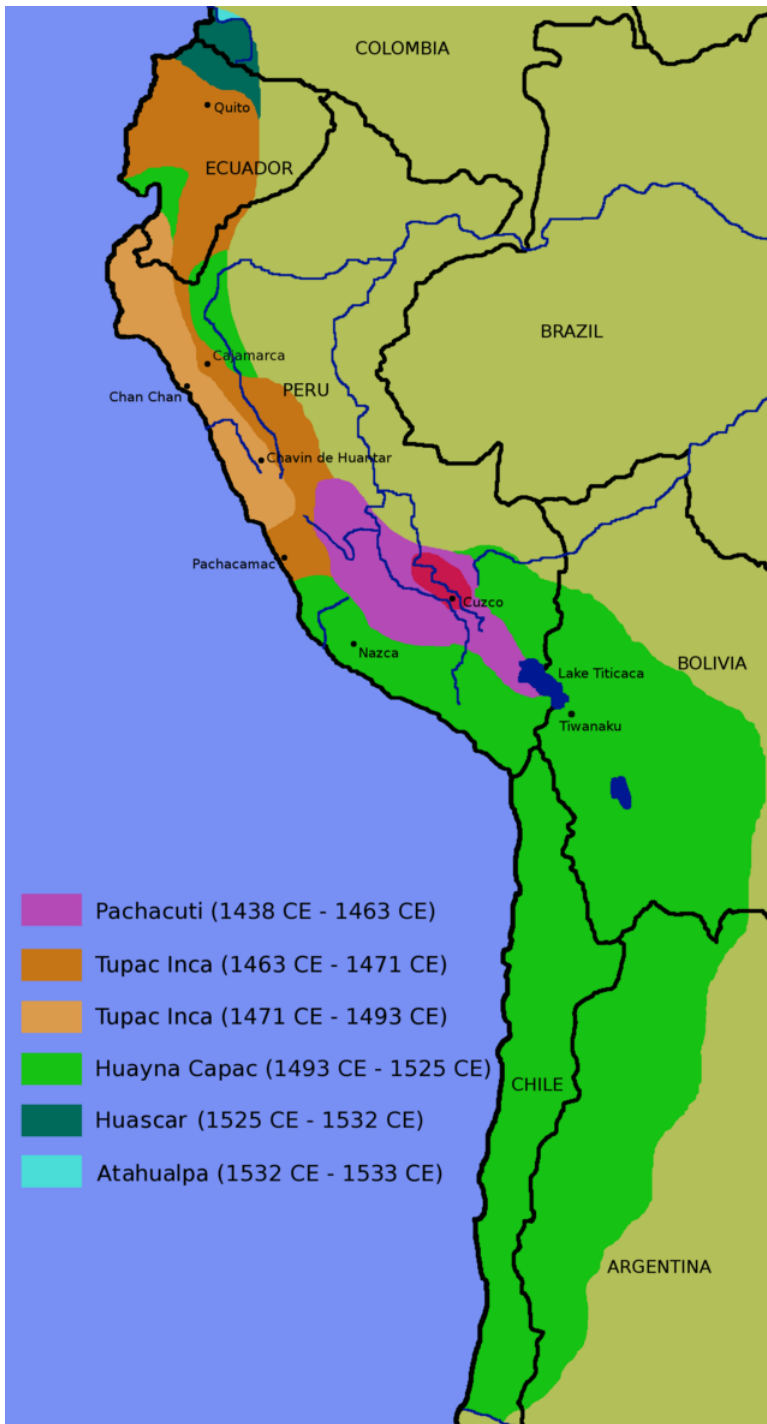


FIGURE 9.25

Inca Empire From 1438 to 1533, the Inca Empire expanded significantly.

TABLE 9.1:

ayllu	A form of community organization whereby small groups of people work together for the common good. The Inca Empire would be based upon this organizational form.
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TABLE 9.1: (continued)

Aztec Empire	A highly complex pre-Columbian Indian civilization located in modern-day Mexico City, noted for its expansion through military conquest and tribute over conquered peoples, the development of an accurate yearly calendar, and a tradition of human sacrifice. It would be the first large-scale Indian civilization to be conquered by Spanish conquistadors.
chinampas	Often referred to as "floating gardens," a method of agriculture practiced by the Aztec in which artificial islands were used to grow crops on shallow lake beds.
Inca Empire	A pre-Columbian Indian civilization located in the Andes Mountains of South America, noted for its development of a socialistic, complex government bureaucracy, advancements in engineering, including stone roads that stretched over 10,000 miles, and the development of new food crops such as the potato.
Maya	A pre-Columbian Indian civilization located on the Yucatan Peninsula of Mexico that predated the Inca and Aztec. They are noted for the development of a highly accurate calendar based upon astronomical observation, and developing the most advanced writing system in pre-Columbian America.
mita	A form of labor tribute practiced in the Inca Empire whereby all able-bodied citizens were required to work for the state for a certain number of days every year.
pre-Columbian empires	Indian Empires that existed in the Americas before and at the time of Columbus' arrival.
quipu	An accounting device used by the Inca; it was comprised of a set of knotted strings used to record data.
terraced farming	A technique used to farm sloped land in which the land is cut to form steps, thereby reducing runoff and soil erosion.



FIGURE 9.26

Machu Pichu

9.2 Europeans Conquer the New World

8.2 Europeans Impact the New World

Student Learning Objectives

At the end of this section the student will be able to

- identify major causes and describe the major effects of the following important turning points in world history from 1450 to 1750: the rise of the Ottoman Empire, the influence of the Ming dynasty on world trade, European exploration and the Columbian Exchange, European expansion, and the Renaissance and the Reformation.[WHS.1D]
- explain how the Inca and Aztec empires were impacted by European exploration / colonization.[WHS.6B]
- analyze the causes of European expansion from 1450 to 1750.[WHS.7A]
- explain the impact of the Columbian Exchange on the Americas and Europe.[WHS.7B]
- explain the impact of the Atlantic slave trade on West Africa and the Americas.[WHS.7C]
- explain the impact of the Ottoman Empire on Eastern Europe and global trade.[WHS.7D]
- describe the changing roles of women, children, and families during major eras of world history.[WHS.24A]
- analyze information by sequencing, categorizing, identifying cause-and-effect relationships, comparing, contrasting, finding the main idea, summarizing, making generalizations and predictions, drawing inferences and conclusions, and developing connections between historical events over time.[WHS.29F]
- use social studies terminology correctly.[WHS.30A]
- use standard grammar, spelling, sentence structure, and punctuation.[WHS.30B]
- interpret and create written, oral, and visual presentations of social studies information.[WHS.30C]

A Prelude to the Age of Discovery

European medieval knowledge about Asia beyond the reach of Byzantine Empire was sourced in partial reports, often obscured by legends, dating back from the time of the conquests of Alexander the Great and his successors.

In 1154, Arab geographer Muhammad al-Idrisi created a description of the world and world map, the *Tabula Rogeriana*, at the court of King Roger II of Sicily, but still Africa was only partially known to either Christians, Genoese and Venetians, or the Arab seamen, and its southern extent unknown. There were reports of great African kingdoms beyond the Sahara, but the factual knowledge was limited to the Mediterranean coasts and little else since the Arab blockade of North Africa precluded exploration inland. Knowledge about the Atlantic African coast was fragmented and derived mainly from old Greek and Roman maps based on Carthaginian knowledge, including the time of Roman exploration of Mauritania. The Red Sea was barely known and only trade links with the Maritime republics, the Republic of Venice especially, fostered collection of accurate maritime knowledge.

A prelude to the Age of Discovery was a series of European expeditions crossing Eurasia by land in the late Middle Ages. Although the Mongols had threatened Europe with pillage and destruction, Mongol states also unified much of Eurasia and, from 1206 on, the *Pax Mongolica* allowed safe trade routes and communication lines stretching from the Middle East to China. A series of Europeans took advantage of these to explore eastwards. Most were Italians, as trade between Europe and the Middle East was controlled mainly by the Maritime republics.

From the 8th century until the 15th century, the Republic of Venice and neighboring maritime republics held the monopoly of European trade with the Middle East. The silk and spice trade, involving spices, incense, herbs, drugs and opium, made these Mediterranean city-states phenomenally rich. Spices were among the most expensive

and demanded products of the Middle Ages, as they were used in medieval medicine, religious rituals, cosmetics, perfumery, as well as food additives and preservatives **Marco Polo**

Marco Polo was an Italian merchant traveler from Venice whose travels are recorded in *Livres des merveilles du monde*, a book which did much to introduce Europeans to Central Asia and China. Marco Polo was not the first European to reach China, but he was the first to leave a detailed chronicle of his experience. This book inspired Christopher Columbus and many other travelers.

**FIGURE 9.27**

The Travels of Marco Polo Marco Polo traveling, Miniature from the Book "The Travels of Marco Polo" ("Il milione"), originally published during Polo's lifetime (c. 1254 - January 8, 1324), but frequently reprinted and translated.

Influence of the Italian Trade City-States

The main trade routes from the east passed through the Byzantine Empire or the Arab lands and onwards to the ports of Genoa, Pisa, and Venice. Luxury goods bought in the Levant, such as spices, dyes, and silks were imported to Italy and then resold throughout Europe. Moreover, the inland city-states profited from the rich agricultural land of the Po valley.

From France, Germany, and the Low Countries, through the medium of the Champagne fairs, land and river trade routes brought goods such as wool, wheat, and precious metals into the region. The extensive trade that stretched from Egypt to the Baltic generated substantial surpluses that allowed significant investment in mining and agriculture.

Thus, while northern Italy was not richer in resources than many other parts of Europe, the level of development, stimulated by trade, allowed it to prosper. In particular, Florence became one of the wealthiest of the cities of Northern Italy, due mainly to its woolen textile production, developed under the supervision of its dominant trade guild, the *Arte della Lana*. Wool was imported from Northern Europe (and in the 16th century from Spain) and together with dyes from the east were used to make high quality textiles. **The Transfer of Culture and Knowledge**

The Italian trade routes that covered the Mediterranean and beyond were also major conduits of culture and knowledge. The recovery of lost Greek classics (and, to a lesser extent, Arab advancements on them) following the Crusader conquest of the Byzantine heartlands, revitalized medieval philosophy in the Renaissance of the 12th century, just as the refugee Byzantine scholars who migrated to Italy during and following the Ottomans conquest of the Byzantines between the 12th and 15th centuries were important in sparking the new linguistic studies of the Renaissance, in newly created academies in Florence and Venice. Humanist scholars searched monastic libraries for ancient manuscripts and recovered Tacitus and other Latin authors. The rediscovery of Vitruvius meant that the architectural principles of Antiquity could be observed once more, and Renaissance artists were encouraged, in the

atmosphere of humanist optimism, to excel the achievements of the Ancients, like Apelles, of whom they read.



FIGURE 9.28

Palazzo della Signoria e Uffizzi, Florence
Florence was one of the most important city-states in Italy.

Established Trade Routes

In the 13th century, much of Europe experienced strong economic growth. The trade routes of the Italian states linked with those of established Mediterranean ports and eventually the Hanseatic League of the Baltic and northern regions of Europe to create a network economy in Europe for the first time since the 4th century. The city-states of Italy expanded greatly during this period and grew in power to become de facto fully independent of the Holy Roman Empire; apart from the Kingdom of Naples, outside powers kept their armies out of Italy. During this period, the modern commercial infrastructure developed, with double-entry book-keeping, joint stock companies, an international banking system, a systematized foreign exchange market, insurance, and government debt. Florence became the center of this financial industry and the gold florin became the main currency of international trade.

While Roman, urban, republican sensibilities persisted, there were many movements and changes afoot. Italy first felt the changes in Europe from the 11th to the 13th centuries. Typically there was: A rise in population [U+2015] the population doubled in this period (the demographic explosion). An emergence of huge cities (Venice, Florence and Milan had over 100,000 inhabitants by the 13th century in addition to many others such as Genoa, Bologna and Verona, which had over 50,000 inhabitants) The rebuilding of the great cathedrals. Substantial migration from country to city (in Italy the rate of urbanization reached 20%, making it the most urbanized society in the world at that time) **An agrarian revolution**

The development of commerce

A feature of the High Middle Ages in Northern Italy was the rise of the urban communes which had broken from the control by bishops and local counts. In much of the region, the landed nobility was poorer than the urban patriarchs in the High Medieval money economy whose inflationary rise left land-holding aristocrats impoverished. The increase in trade during the early Renaissance enhanced these characteristics.

The decline of feudalism and the rise of cities influenced each other; for example, the demand for luxury goods led to an increase in trade, which led to greater numbers of tradesmen becoming wealthy, who, in turn, demanded more luxury goods. This change also gave the merchants almost complete control of the governments of the Italian

city-states, again enhancing trade. One of the most important effects of this political control was security. Those that grew extremely wealthy in a feudal state ran constant risk of running afoul of the monarchy and having their lands confiscated, as famously occurred to Jacques Coeur in France. The northern states also kept many medieval laws that severely hampered commerce, such as those against usury, and prohibitions on trading with non-Christians. In the city-states of Italy, these laws were repealed or rewritten.

Venice and the Ottoman Empire: Crash Course World History #19

In which John Green discusses the strange and mutually beneficial relationship between a republic, the city-state of Venice, and an Empire, the Ottomans—and how studying history can help you to be a better boyfriend and/or girlfriend. Together, the Ottoman Empire and Venice grew wealthy by facilitating trade: The Venetians had ships and nautical expertise; the Ottomans had access to many of the most valuable goods in the world, especially pepper and grain. Working together across cultural and religious divides, they both become very rich, and the Ottomans became one of the most powerful political entities in the world.



MEDIA

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The Age of Discovery

The Age of Discovery is a historical period of European global exploration that started in the early 15th century with the first Portuguese discoveries in the Atlantic Archipelagos and Africa, as well as the discovery of America by Spain in 1492, and the discovery of the ocean route to the East in 1498, and by a series of European naval expeditions across the Atlantic and later the Pacific, which continued until the 18th century.

The Age of Discovery sometimes regarded as a bridge between the Middle Ages and the Modern era, along with its contemporary Renaissance movement. European overseas expansion led to the rise of colonial empires, with the contact between the Old and New Worlds producing the Columbian Exchange: a wide transfer of plants, animals, foods, human populations (including slaves), communicable diseases and culture between the Eastern and Western hemispheres. This represented one of the most-significant global events concerning ecology, agriculture, and culture in history. European exploration allowed the global mapping of the world, resulting in a new world-view and distant civilizations acknowledging each other, reaching the most-remote boundaries much later.

During the 15th and 16th centuries, Portuguese sailors were at the vanguard of European overseas exploration, discovering and mapping the coasts of Africa, Asia and Brazil. Methodical expeditions started in 1419 along West Africa's coast under the sponsorship of prince Henry the Navigator, with Bartolomeu Dias reaching the Cape of Good Hope and entering the Indian Ocean in 1488. Ten years later, Vasco da Gama led the first fleet around Africa to India, arriving in Calicut and starting a maritime route from Portugal to India. Soon, after reaching Brazil, explorations proceed to southeast Asia, having reached Japan in 1542.

Atlantic exploration (1415–1488)

In 1415, the city of Ceuta was occupied by the Portuguese aiming to control navigation of the African coast, moved by expanding Christianity with the avail of the Pope and a desire of the unemployed nobility for epic acts of war after the reconquista. Young prince Henry the Navigator was there and became aware of profit possibilities in the Saharan trade routes.

Henry the Navigator took the lead role in encouraging Portuguese maritime exploration until his death in 1460. At the time, Europeans did not know what lay beyond Cape Bojador on the African coast. Henry wished to know how far the Muslim territories in Africa extended, and whether it was possible to reach Asia by sea to reach the source of the lucrative spice trade.

A Portuguese attempt to capture Grand Canary, one of the nearby Canary Islands, which had been partially settled by Spaniards in 1402 was unsuccessful and met with protestations from Castile. At around the same time as the unsuccessful attack on the Canary Islands, the Portuguese began to explore the North African coast.

Indian Ocean explorations lead by Vasco da Gama (1497–1542)

The long-standing Portuguese goal of finding a sea route to Asia was finally achieved in a ground-breaking voyage commanded by Vasco da Gama. Gama's voyage was significant and paved the way for the Portuguese to establish a long-lasting colonial empire in Asia. The route meant that the Portuguese would not need to cross the highly disputed Mediterranean nor the dangerous Arabian Peninsula, and that the whole voyage would be made by sea.

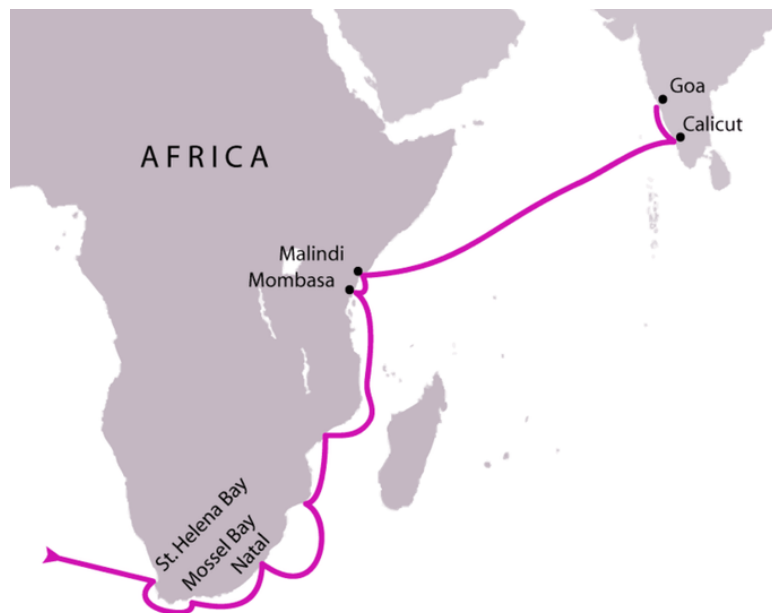


FIGURE 9.29

First voyage of Vasco da Gama. The route followed in Vasco da Gama's first voyage (1497–1499).

After decades of sailors trying to reach India with thousands of lives and dozens of vessels lost in shipwrecks and attacks, Gama landed in Calicut on 20 May 1498. Reaching the legendary Indian spice routes unopposed helped the Portuguese Empire improve its economy that, until Gama, was mainly based on trades along Northern and coastal West Africa. These spices were mostly pepper and cinnamon at first, but soon included other products, all new to Europe which led to a commercial monopoly for several decades.

How Portugal became the first global sea power

Pick your adjective for the monster wave McNamara rode in January just off the Portuguese coast near Nazare. The Portuguese explorer, Vasco da Gama, came to Nazare, too, to pray before he set out in 1497 – and again after a successful return from his voyage to find a sea route to India with its rich spice trade. He did what Christopher Columbus tried to do but failed. Casimiro said that as a country, Portugal turns to the sea: "Our backs are turned to the land, and we are always looking at the sea. We have that kind of impulse to see what is after that. " Even if it's frightening? "Yeah. " Portugal is a country where the sea is and always has been regarded as a living being – to be

stared down, confronted. How Portugal became the first global sea power Pick your adjective for the monster wave McNamara rode in January just off the Portuguese coast near Nazare. The Portuguese explorer, Vasco da Gama, came to Nazare, too, to pray before he set out in 1497 – and again after a successful return from his voyage to find a sea route to India with its rich spice trade. He did what Christopher Columbus tried to do but failed. Casimiro said that as a country, Portugal turns to the sea: "Our backs are turned to the land, and we are always looking at the sea. We have that kind of impulse to see what is after that. " Even if it's frightening? "Yeah. " Portugal is a country where the sea is and always has been regarded as a living being – to be stared down, confronted.



MEDIA

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Christopher Columbus

In the early modern period, the voyages of Christopher Columbus initiated European exploration and colonization of the American continents. Christopher Columbus was a navigator and an admiral for Spain who made four voyages to the Americas, the first being in 1492 which resulted in the "discovery of America" from a European point of view. Portugal had been the main European power interested in pursuing trade routes overseas, however soon Spain and other European kingdoms sent expeditions and established colonies throughout the New World. They converted the native inhabitants to Christianity and built large trade networks across the Atlantic which introduced new plants, animals, and food crops in both continents.

Columbus was given the title "Admiral of the Ocean Sea" in April 1492. He wanted to lead his own expedition and was a trained sailor and ready to lead. However, he needed someone to fund his voyage, so he went to the king of Portugal, John II, who immediately declined. Columbus turned then to Queen Isabella of Spain who reluctantly funded him. On September 6, he departed San Sebastián de la Gomera for what turned out to be a five-week voyage across the ocean.

In his first journey, Columbus visited San Salvador in The Bahamas (which he was convinced was Japan), Cuba (which he thought was China) and Hispaniola (where he found gold). Land was first sighted at 2 a.m. on October 12, 1492, by a sailor named Rodrigo de Triana (also known as Juan Rodriguez Bermejo) aboard La Pinta. Columbus would later assert that he had first seen the land and, thus, earned the reward of 10,000 maravedís.

Columbus proceeded to observe the people and their cultural lifestyle. Columbus founded the settlement, La Navidad, leaving behind 39 men and on January 15, 1493, he set sail for home by way of the Azores. Columbus was received as a hero in Spain. He displayed several indigenous persons and what gold he had found to the court, as well as the previously unknown tobacco plant, the pineapple fruit, the turkey, and the hammock. **Second voyage**

Before he left Spain on his second voyage, Columbus had been directed by Ferdinand and Isabella to maintain friendly, even loving, relations with the indigenous people, the natives. He set sail on September 24, 1493.

During the second voyage, Columbus sent a letter to the monarchs proposing to enslave some of the Americas people. Although his petition was refused by the Crown, in February 1495, Columbus disobeyed the Queen and enslaved five hundred and sixty people. The slaves were shipped to Spain; 200 died during the route back to Spain, and half of the remainder were ill when they arrived. After legal proceedings in the Cortes, some survivors were ordered released and to be returned to their Americas homeland. **Third Voyage**

According to the abstract of Columbus' journal made by Bartolomé de Las Casas, the object of the third voyage

**FIGURE 9.30**

"The First Voyage", chromolithograph by L. Prang Co., published by The Prang Educational Co., Boston, 1893. Imaginary scene of Christopher Columbus bidding farewell to the Queen of Spain on his departure for the New World, August 3, 1492.

was to verify the existence of a continent that King John II of Portugal claimed was located to the southwest of the Cape Verde Islands. On May 30, 1498, Columbus left port with a fleet of six ships. From August 4 through August 12, 1498, he explored the Gulf of Paria which separates Trinidad from mainland Venezuela. He then explored the mainland of South America and described these new lands as belonging to a previously unknown new continent, but he pictured it hanging from China.

Columbus returned from South America to Hispaniola on August 19, 1498 to find that many of the Spanish settlers of the new colony were discontent, having been misled by Columbus about the supposedly bountiful riches of the new world

During Columbus' term as Viceroy and Governor of the Indies, he had been accused of governing tyrannically, called 'the tyrant of the Caribbean.' Columbus was arrested in 1500 and supplanted from his posts. A number of returned settlers and friars lobbied against Columbus at the Spanish court, accusing him of mismanagement.

Columbus and his brothers lingered in jail for six weeks before the busy King Ferdinand ordered their release. Not long thereafter, the king and queen summoned the Columbus brothers to their presence at the Alhambra palace in Granada. There the royal couple heard the brothers' pleas; restored their freedom and their wealth; and, after much persuasion, agreed to fund Columbus' fourth voyage. **Fourth Exploration**

Columbus made a fourth voyage, nominally in search of a westward passage to the Indian Ocean leaving Spain on May 12, 1502. He spent two months exploring the coasts of Honduras, Nicaragua, and Costa Rica, before arriving in Almirante Bay, Panama on October 16, 1502.

He left for Hispaniola on April 16, but sustained more damage in a storm off the coast of Cuba. Unable to travel any farther, the ships were beached in St. Ann's Bay, Jamaica, on June 25, 1503.

For a year Columbus and his men remained stranded on Jamaica. Help finally arrived, from the governor, on June 29, 1504, and Columbus and his men arrived in Sanlúcar de Barrameda, Castile, on November 7, 1504.

Columbus died in Valladolid, Spain, on May 20, 1506, at around the age of 54. **Legacy**

The success of Columbus's first voyage touched off a series of westward explorations by European seafaring states. These states sought to exploit the New World's riches; build trade networks and colonies; and through the Indian

Reductions practice to relocate, use the labor of, and attempt Christian conversions of the native people.

Columbus and other Iberian explorers were initially disappointed with their discoveries—unlike Africa or Asia, the Caribbean islanders had little to trade with the Castillo ships. The islands thus became the focus of colonization efforts. During this time, pandemics of European disease such as smallpox devastated the indigenous populations. Once Spanish sovereignty was established, the Spanish focused on the extraction and export of gold and silver.



MEDIA

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Spanish Conquest of the Aztecs

The Spanish conquest of the Aztec Empire was one of the most significant events not only in the Spanish colonization of the Americas, but also in world history. The conquest must be understood within the context of Spanish patterns on the Iberian Peninsula during the Reconquista by Christians, defeating the Muslims, and also patterns extended in the Caribbean following Christopher Columbus establishment of permanent European settlement in the Caribbean. The Spanish authorized expeditions or entradas for the discovery, conquest, and colonization of new territory, using existing Spanish settlements as a base. Many of those on the Cortés expedition of 1519 had never seen combat before. In fact, Cortés had never commanded men in battle before. However, there was a whole generation of Spaniards who participated in expeditions in the Caribbean, learning strategy and tactics of successful enterprises.

Despite some early battles between the two, Cortés allied himself with the Aztecs' long-time enemy, the Confederacy of Tlaxcala, and arrived at the gates of Tenochtitlan on November 8, 1519. During the Spanish conquest of Mexico, the Tlaxcala alliance with the Spaniards against the Aztecs, supplied a large contingent for the Spanish-led army that eventually destroyed the Aztec empire.

The Spaniards and their Tlaxcallan allies became increasingly dangerous and unwelcome guests in the capital city. In June 1520, hostilities broke out, culminating in the massacre in the Main Temple and the death of Moctezuma II. The Spaniards fled the town on July 1, an episode later characterized as *La Noche Triste* (the Sad Night). They and their native allies returned in the spring of 1521 to lay siege to Tenochtitlan, a battle that ended on August 13 with the destruction of the city. Simultaneously, the Aztecs suffered from a smallpox outbreak that killed between 10 and 50% of the population. This further weakened the Aztecs.

During this period the now crumbling empire went through a rapid line of ruler succession. After the death of Moctezuma II, the empire fell into the hands of severely weakened emperors, such as Cuitláhuac, before eventually being ruled by puppet rulers, such as Andrés de Tapia Motelchiuh, installed by the Spanish. The Aztec Empire ceased to exist with the Spanish final conquest of Tenochtitlan in August 1521. The empire had been composed of separate city-states that had either allied with or been conquered by the Mexica of Tenochtitlan, and rendered tribute to the Mexica while maintaining their internal ruling structures. Those polities now came under Spanish rule, also retaining their internal structures of ruling elites, tribute paying commoners, and land holding and other economic structures largely intact.

When news reached Cortés of the death of several of his men during the Aztec attack on the Totonacs in Veracruz, he took the opportunity to take Moctezuma captive in his own palace and ruled through him for months. Capturing the cacique or indigenous ruler was standard operating procedure for Spaniards in their expansion in the Caribbean, so capturing Moctezuma had considerable precedent. When Cortés left Tenochtitlan to return to the coast and deal with the expedition of Pánfilo de Narváez, Pedro de Alvarado was left in charge. Alvarado allowed a significant Aztec feast to be celebrated in Tenochtitlan and on the pattern of the earlier massacre in Cholula, closed off the square and massacred the celebrating Aztec noblemen. The biography of Cortés by Francisco López de Gómara



FIGURE 9.31

Hernando Cortés

contains a description of the massacre. The Alvarado massacre at the Main Temple of Tenochtitlan precipitated rebellion by the population of the city. When the captured emperor Moctezuma II, now seen as a mere puppet of the invading Spaniards, attempted to calm outraged Aztecs, he was killed by a projectile. Cortés, who by then had returned to Tenochtitlan, and his men had to fight their way out of the capital city during the Noche Triste in June, 1520. However, the Spanish and Tlaxcalans would return with reinforcements and a siege that led to the fall of Tenochtitlan a year later on August 13, 1521.

The Aztec Empire ceased to exist with the Spanish final conquest of Tenochtitlan in August 1521. The empire had been composed of separate city-states that had either allied with or been conquered by the Mexica of Tenochtitlan, and rendered tribute to the Mexica while maintaining their internal ruling structures. Those polities now came under Spanish rule, also retaining their internal structures of ruling elites, tribute paying commoners, and land holding and other economic structures largely intact. The fall of the Aztec Empire was the key event in the formation of New Spain, which would later be known as Mexico.

To reward to Spaniards who participated in the conquest what is now contemporary Mexico, the Spanish crown authorized grants of native labor in particular indigenous communities via the Encomienda. The indigenous were not slaves, chattel bought and sold or removed from their home community, but the system was one of forced labor. The indigenous of Central Mexico had practices rendering labor and tribute products to their polity's elites and those elites to the Mexica overlords in Tenochtitlan, so the Spanish system of encomienda was built on pre-existing patterns. The Spanish conquerors in Mexico during the early colonial era lived off the labor of the indigenous. Due to some horrifying instances of abuse against the indigenous peoples, Bishop Bartolomé de las Casas suggested importing black slaves to replace them (he later repented when he saw the even worse treatment given to the black slaves).

Nevertheless, Aztec culture survives today. Modern day Mexico City is built on the site of the Aztec capital, Tenochtitlan. There are still 1.5 million people who speak the Aztec language of Nahuatl, and part of the Mexica migration story appears on the Mexican flag. **Spanish Conquest of the Incas**

Spanish conquistadors led by Francisco Pizarro and his brothers explored south from what is today Panama, reaching Inca territory by 1526. They were in search of gold, and found riches in the Inca Empire, leading to their strong desire to conquer it. With superior technology and military tactics (and smallpox, a European disease the Incas had not built up an immunity to), the Spanish defeated the Inca in 1572.

After the fall of the Inca Empire many aspects of Inca culture were systematically destroyed, including their sophisticated farming system, known as the vertical archipelago model of agriculture. Spanish colonial officials used the Inca mita corvée labor system for colonial aims, sometimes brutally. One member of each family was forced to work in the gold and silver mines, the foremost of which was the titanic silver mine at Potosí. When a family member died, which would usually happen within a year or two, the family would be required to send a replacement.

The effects of smallpox on the Inca empire were even more devastating. Beginning in Colombia, smallpox spread rapidly before the Spanish invaders first arrived in the empire. The spread was probably aided by the efficient Inca road system. Within a few years smallpox claimed perhaps as much as 60% to 94% of the Inca population with other waves of European disease weakening them further. Smallpox was only the first epidemic. Typhus (probably) in 1546, influenza and smallpox together in 1558, smallpox again in 1589, diphtheria in 1614, measles in 1618 – all ravaged the remains of Inca culture.

Columbian Exchange

After Columbus' arrival in the Americas, the animal, plant, and bacterial life of these two worlds began to mix. This process, first studied comprehensively by American historian Alfred Crosby, was called the Columbian Exchange. By reuniting formerly biologically distinct land masses, the Columbian Exchange had dramatic and lasting effects on the world. New diseases were introduced to American populations that had no prior experience of them. The results were devastating. These populations also were introduced to new weeds and pests, livestock, and pets. New food and fiber crops were introduced to Eurasia and Africa, improving diets and fomenting trade there. In addition, the Columbian Exchange vastly expanded the scope of production of some popular drugs, bringing the pleasures — and consequences — of coffee, sugar, and tobacco use to many millions of people. The results of this exchange recast the biology of both regions and altered the history of the world.

The flow from east to west:Disease

By far the most dramatic and devastating impact of the Columbian Exchange followed the introduction of new diseases into the Americas. When the first inhabitants of the Americas arrived across the Bering land bridge between 20,000 and 12,000 years ago, they brought few diseases with them. Why? For one reason, they had no domesticated animals, the original source of human diseases such as smallpox and measles. In addition, as they passed from Siberia to North America, the first Americans had spent many years in extreme cold, which eliminated many of the disease-causing agents that might have traveled with them. As a result, the first Americans and their descendants, perhaps 40 million to 60 million strong by 1492, enjoyed freedom from most of the infectious diseases that plagued populations in Afro-Eurasia for millennia. Meanwhile, in Asia and Africa, the domestication of herd animals brought new diseases spread by cattle, sheep, pigs, and fowl.

Soon after 1492, sailors inadvertently introduced these diseases — including smallpox, measles, mumps, whooping cough, influenza, chicken pox, and typhus — to the Americas. People who lived in Afro-Eurasia had developed some immunities to these diseases because they had long existed among most Afro-Eurasian populations. However, the Native Americans had no such immunities. Adults and children alike were stricken by wave after wave of epi-

demic, which produced catastrophic mortality throughout the Americas. In the larger centers of highland Mexico and Peru, many millions of people died. On some Caribbean islands, the Native American population died out completely. In all, between 1492 and 1650, perhaps 90 percent of the first Americans had died.

This loss is considered among the largest demographic disasters in human history. By stripping the Americas of much of the human population, the Columbian Exchange rocked the region's ecological and economic balance. Ecosystems were in tumult as forests regrew and previously hunted animals increased in number. Economically, the population decrease brought by the Columbian Exchange indirectly caused a drastic labor shortage throughout the Americas, which eventually contributed to the establishment of African slavery on a vast scale in the Americas. By 1650, the slave trade had brought new diseases, such as malaria and yellow fever, which further plagued Native Americans.

The flow from east to west: Crops and animals

Eurasians sent much more than disease westward. The introduction of new crops and domesticated animals to the Americas did almost as much to upset the region's biological, economic, and social balance as the introduction of disease had. Columbus had wanted to establish new fields of plenty in the Americas. On his later voyages he brought many crops he hoped might flourish there. He and his followers brought the familiar food grains of Europe: wheat, barley, and rye. They also brought Mediterranean plantation crops such as sugar, bananas, and citrus fruits, which all had originated in South or Southeast Asia. At first, many of these crops fared poorly; but eventually they all flourished. After 1640, sugar became the mainstay of the Caribbean and Brazilian economies, becoming the foundation for some of the largest slave societies ever known. The production of rice and cotton, both imported in the Columbian Exchange, together with tobacco, formed the basis of slave society in the United States. Wheat, which thrived in the temperate latitudes of North and South America and in the highlands of Mexico, eventually became a fundamental food crop for tens of millions of people in the Americas. Indeed, by the late 20th century, wheat exports from Canada, the United States, and Argentina were feeding millions of people outside the Americas. It is true that the spread of these crops drastically changed the economy of the Americas. However, these new crops supported the European settler societies and their African slave systems. The Native Americans preferred their own foods.

When it came to animals, however, the Native Americans borrowed eagerly from the Eurasian stables. The Columbian Exchange brought horses, cattle, sheep, goats, pigs, and a collection of other useful species to the Americas. Before Columbus, Native American societies in the high Andes had domesticated llamas and alpacas, but no other animals weighing more than 45 kg (100 lbs). And for good reason: none of the other 23 large mammal species present in the Americas before the arrival of Columbus were suitable for domestication. In contrast, Eurasia had 72 large animal species, of which 13 were suitable for domestication. So, while Native Americans had plenty of good food crops available before 1492, they had few domesticated animals. The main ones, aside from llamas and alpacas, were dogs, turkeys, and guinea pigs.

Of all the animals introduced by the Europeans, the horse held particular attraction. Native Americans first encountered it as a fearsome war beast ridden by Spanish conquistadors. However, they soon learned to ride and raise horses themselves. In the North American great plains, the arrival of the horse revolutionized Native American life, permitting tribes to hunt the buffalo far more effectively. Several Native American groups left farming to become buffalo-hunting nomads and, incidentally, the most formidable enemies of European expansion in the Americas.

Cattle, sheep, pigs, and goats also proved popular in the Americas. Within 100 years after Columbus, huge herds of wild cattle roamed many of the natural grasslands of the Americas. Wild cattle, and, to a lesser degree, sheep and goats, menaced the food crops of Native Americans, notably in Mexico. Eventually ranching economies emerged, based variously on cattle, goats, or sheep. The largest ranches emerged in the grasslands of Venezuela and Argentina, and on the broad sea of grass that stretched from northern Mexico to the Canadian prairies. Native Americans used the livestock for meat, tallow, hides, transportation, and hauling. Altogether, the suite of domesticated animals from Eurasia brought a biological, economic, and social revolution to the Americas.

**FIGURE 9.32**

The introduction of horses made hunting buffalo much easier for the Plains Indians. Paul Kane, *Assiniboine Hunting Buffalo*, ca. 1851-1856. National Gallery of Canada, Ottawa, Ontario.

The flow from west to east: Disease

In terms of diseases, the Columbian Exchange was a wildly unequal affair, and the Americas got the worst of it. The flow of disease from the Americas eastward into Eurasia and Africa was either trivial or consisted of a single important infection. Much less is known about pre-Columbian diseases in the Americas than what is known about those in Eurasia. Based on their study of skeletal remains, anthropologists believe that Native Americans certainly suffered from arthritis. They also had another disease, probably a form of tuberculosis that may or may not have been similar to the pulmonary tuberculosis common in the modern world. Native Americans also apparently suffered from a group of illnesses that included two forms of syphilis. One controversial theory asserts that the venereal syphilis epidemic that swept much of Europe beginning in 1494 came from the Americas; however, the available evidence remains inconclusive.

The flow from west to east: Crops and cuisine

America's vast contribution to Afro-Eurasia in terms of new plant species and cuisine, however, transformed life in places as far apart as Ireland, South Africa, and China. Before Columbus, the Americas had plenty of domesticated plants. By the time Columbus had arrived, dozens of plants were in regular use, the most important of which were maize (corn), potatoes, cassava, and various beans and squashes. Lesser crops included sweet potato, papaya, pineapple, tomato, avocado, guava, peanuts, chili peppers, and cacao, the raw form of cocoa. Within 20 years of Columbus' last voyage, maize had established itself in North Africa and perhaps in Spain. It spread to Egypt, where it became a staple in the Nile Delta, and from there to the Ottoman Empire, especially the Balkans. By 1800, maize was the major grain in large parts of what is now Romania and Serbia, and was also important in Hungary, Ukraine, Italy, and southern France. It was often used as animal feed, but people ate it too, usually in a porridge or bread. Maize appeared in China in the 16th century and eventually supplied about one-tenth of the grain supply there. In the 19th century it became an important crop in India. Maize probably played its greatest role, however, in southern Africa. There maize arrived in the 16th century in the context of the slave trade. Southern African environmental conditions, across what is now Angola, Zambia, Zimbabwe, Mozambique, and eastern South Africa, suited maize handsomely. Over the centuries, maize became the primary peasant food in much of southern Africa. In late 20th-century South Africa, for example, maize grew in two-thirds to three-quarters of the region's cropland.

Despite maize's success, the humble potato probably had a stronger impact in improving the food supply and in promoting population growth in Eurasia. The potato had little impact in Africa, where conditions did not suit it. But in northern Europe the potato thrived. It had the most significant effect on Ireland, where it promoted a rapid population increase until a potato blight ravaged the crop in 1845, bringing widespread famine to the area. After

**FIGURE 9.33**

Maize has become a dietary staple in southern Africa. Image source>About the photograph

1750, Scandinavia, the Low Countries, Germany, Poland, and Russia also gradually accepted the potato, which helped drive a general population explosion in Europe. This population explosion may have laid the foundation for world-shaking developments such as the Industrial Revolution and modern European imperialism. The potato also fed mountain populations around the world, notably in China, where it encouraged settlement of mountainous regions.

While maize and potatoes had the greatest world historical importance of the American crops, lesser crops made their marks as well. In West Africa, peanuts and cassava provided new foodstuffs. Cassava, a tropical shrub native to Brazil, has starchy roots that will grow in almost any soil. In the leached soils of West and Central Africa, cassava became an indispensable crop. Today some 200 million Africans rely on it as their main source of nutrition. Cacao and rubber, two other South American crops, became important export items in West Africa in the 20th century. The sweet potato, which was introduced into China in the 1560s, became China's third most important crop after rice and wheat. It proved a useful supplement to diets throughout the monsoon lands of Asia. Indeed, almost everywhere in the world, one or another American food crops caught on, complementing existing crops or, more rarely, replacing them. By the late 20th century, about one-third of the world's food supply came from plants first cultivated in the

**FIGURE 9.34**

Cassava root. Photo by David Monniaux, 2005. About the photograph

Americas. The modern rise of population surely would have been slower without them.

In contrast, the animals of the Americas have had very little impact on the rest of the world, unless one considers its earliest migrants. The camel and the horse actually originated in North America and migrated westward across the Bering land bridge to Asia, where they evolved into the forms familiar today. By the time of the Columbian Exchange, these animals were long extinct in the Americas, and the majority of America's domesticated animals would have little more than a tiny impact on Afro-Eurasia. One domesticated animal that did have an effect was the turkey. Wild animals of the Americas have done only a little better. Probably after the 19th century, North American muskrats and squirrels successfully colonized large areas of Europe. Deliberate introductions of American animals, such as raccoon fancied for their fur and imported to Germany in the 1920s, occasionally led to escapes and the establishment of feral animal communities. However, no species introduced from the Americas revolutionized human affairs or animal ecology anywhere in Afro-Eurasia. In terms of animal populations as with disease, the Americas contributed little that could flourish in the conditions of Europe, Africa, or Asia.

The rise of the slave trade

Europeans did not introduce slavery to Africa. As African rulers rose and fell, their political opponents, people of high social status, and their families were sold to promote internal political stability. Poor people were sold to reconcile debts owed by themselves or their families. Chiefs sold people as punishment for crimes. Gangs of Africans and a few marauding Europeans captured free Africans who were also sold into slavery. Domestic slaves were resold and prisoners of war were sold. Africans themselves carried out the capture and sale of other Africans for enslavement — few Europeans ever actually marched inland and captured slaves themselves.

At the same time, had Europeans not wanted African slave labor for their American colonies, there would not have been any market for African slaves. African wars fed the slave trade, and the slave trade, in turn, fueled internal African wars. A. Adu Boahen, an African scholar, argues that “the greatest sources to supply slaves were raids conducted for the sole purpose of catching men for sale and above all, inter-tribal and inter-state wars which produced thousands of war captives, most of whom found their way to the New World.

THE COST OF A SLAVE

All of these African people were bartered for European trade goods. A slave purchased for 100 gallons of rum worth only £10 could be sold for £20 to £50 in seventeenth-century America. The low cost of slaves greatly encouraged the slave trade. Even though the price of slaves rose three- or four-fold during the eighteenth century, many Europeans were convinced that it was “cheaper to buy than to breed.” In fact, until the late eighteenth century, it was cheaper to import a slave from Africa than to raise a child to the age of 14. During the late seventeenth century, merchants in the Senegambia region of West Africa paid as little as one pound sterling for young males, which they sold to European traders for the equivalent of three-and-a-half pounds sterling, or eleven muskets, thirty-one gallons of brandy, or ninety-three pounds of wrought iron. Initially, many slaves were acquired from regions within fifty or a hundred miles of the West African coast. During the eighteenth century, though, rising prices led slavers to search for captives in interior regions, 500 to 1,000 miles inland.¹⁹

WARS OVER SLAVERY

As the slave trade continued, more and more wars broke out between African principalities. Whatever the ostensible causes of these wars, they produced prisoners of war that supplied slave factories along the West and West Central African coast.

The fighting between African societies followed a pattern. Wars weakened the centralized African governments and undermined the authority of associations, societies, and the elders who exercised social control in societies with decentralized political forms. Both winners and losers lost people from niches in lineages, secret societies, associations, guilds and other networks that maintained social order. Conflict brought about loss of population and seriously compromised indigenous production of material goods, cash crops and subsistence crops. Seventeenth-century Capuchin monks reported that the Angolan Ndongo slave catchment area was rapidly becoming a wasteland as countless people died in war or as slaves in transit to slaving depots, were exported as slaves, or fled the advance of slave-catching warriors.

Both winners and losers in the African wars came to rely upon European trade goods. Eventually, European money replaced cowrie shells as a medium of exchange. European trade goods supplanted indigenous material goods, natural resources and products as the economic basis of West African society. At the same time, Europeans increasingly required people in exchange for trade goods. Once this stage was reached, an African society had little choice but to trade human lives for European goods and guns — guns that had become necessary to wage wars for further captives in order to trade for goods upon which the African society was now dependent.

The effects of the trade on African civilization and culture were devastating. African societies lost kinship networks and agricultural laborers and production capacity. The loss of people meant the loss of indigenous artisans and craftsmen along with their knowledge of textile production, weaving and dyeing, metallurgy and metalwork, carving, basket making, potting skills, architecture, and agricultural techniques upon which their societies depended. Africa’s loss was the New World’s gain. These were the same expertise and skills that Africans brought to the New World along with their physical labor and ability to acclimate to harsh environments that made them indispensable in the development of the new colonies and nations of the Western Hemisphere.

Middle Passage

The Africans who had been stolen from their homes were placed onto ships that took them to South America, the Caribbean, or North America. This trip across the Atlantic Ocean was known as the Middle Passage. Conditions for the captured men, women and children aboard the ship were horrible. Up to a thousand people would have to survive for two to five months largely belowdeck, in quarters so tight that they could barely move. Besides being unbearably cramped, the deck had no ventilation, windows, or way to dispose of waste. Disease was rampant. Food was limited. Violence and torture were common. Equiano wrote:

The closeness of the place, and the heat of the climate, added to the number in the ship, which was so crowded that each had scarcely room to turn himself, almost suffocated us. This produced copious perspirations, so that the air soon became unfit for respiration, from a variety of loathsome smells, and brought on a sickness among the slaves, of which many died.

Those who did survive the Middle Passage were sold at auction upon arrival in their new country. These formerly free people were now enslaved, the property of another person.

Slavery in the New World

The first Africans in America arrived in Jamestown, Virginia, as indentured servants in 1619. Indentured servants were laborers who were under contract, or indenture, to work for another person for a set number of years. When the contract expired, the laborer was free. Later, Africans brought to America arrived as slaves. Slaves were laborers who had no contract or rights and had to work for their owners for their entire lives. North Carolina adopted its first slave code — defining the social, economic, and physical places of enslaved people — in 1715; the Fundamental Constitutions of Carolina approved in 1669 had made slavery acceptable. Enslaved people had been shipped directly from Africa to the colony as early as the 1680s, but because the coast was dangerous for large ships, most of North Carolina's enslaved people were purchased from slave owners in Virginia or South Carolina. At the time of the American Revolution, most of the enslaved people in North Carolina lived in the eastern part of the colony and the majority lived on large plantations, where their work was critical to the state's cash crops and economy.

The long journeys of many enslaved people ended on large farms or plantations in the United States, like Stagville and Somerset in North Carolina — now State Historic Sites. On the plantation, the owner dictated much of their lives. Enslaved people were told what work to do, when to do it, and where to live. Harriet Jacobs (1813–1897), born into slavery on a plantation in Edenton, wrote a narrative in which she described many of the horrors endured by enslaved people, such as this instance of a family being separated:

I saw a mother lead seven children to the auction-block. She knew that some of them would be taken from her; but they took all. The children were sold to a slavetrader, and their mother was bought by a man in her own town. Before night her children were all far away. She begged the trader to tell her where he intended to take them; this he refused to do. How could he, when he knew he would sell them, one by one, wherever he could command the highest price? I met that mother in the street, and her wild, haggard face lives today in my mind.

The largest plantation in North Carolina was Stagville, established in 1787 by the Bennehan and Cameron families. Located in parts of what are now Orange, Durham, Wake, and Granville counties, Stagville in 1860 had more than nine hundred enslaved people living on its thirty thousand acres. Most of the people enslaved there worked in the fields growing crops such as tobacco, wheat, corn, potatoes, and sweet potatoes. Children as young as age seven were expected to work.

Slave quarters at Stagville Plantation. Photograph by Dan Kelo. About the photograph

At Stagville, there were two types of slave quarters. One style was a one-room house approximately fifteen feet square, in which an entire family would live. A more unique style of house was built on the plantation around 1850. These were two-story, four-room houses. One family of approximately five to seven people lived in each of the rooms. After they finished their labor for the owner, the enslaved people would return to these quarters to do their own work. Men would tend their gardens while women cooked a big meal that everyone would share. Children would help the adults with their work as well as doing their own chores, such as fetching water from the well, tending to the animals, or minding their younger siblings. Cy Hart, born into slavery at Stagville, was interviewed in the 1930s as part of a Works Progress Administration project. Discussing his life on the plantation, Hart said that he tended chickens and turkeys, and the other stock as he got older.

After the work was done, the adults might tell the children stories or oral histories, help them make simple toys, or teach them games such as mancala. It was during this limited community time that the elders passed along African traditions to the next generation.

**FIGURE 9.35**

Slave quarters at Stagville Plantation. Photograph by Dan Kelo. About the photograph

Modern North Carolinians carry on these traditions. The people taken from their homes in Africa were not alone during their terrible journey on the Middle Passage. They carried memories of their culture, which they re-created in their new homes and which survives today. Many words Americans use today, such as daddy, buddy, banjo, gumbo, okra, and turnip, originate in West African languages. The last few words bring to mind foods that originated in West Africa. Other foods include field peas, gourds, and yams. Musical instruments such as banjos and drums also came from Africa.

The United States banned further imports of slaves from Africa in 1808. Slavery would remain legal until the end of the Civil War in 1865, but from 1808 on, the slave population only grew through natural increase. If a person's mother was enslaved, then that person was also enslaved. Based on the 1860 census, there were 361,522 African Americans (slave and free) living in North Carolina, as well as approximately 630,000 white people and slightly more than 1,100 American Indians.

The Africans who were brought to the America hundreds of years ago overcame many difficulties to make this nation home. Thanks to their contributions and to those of their descendants, our nation is the richer.

(ISN) Interactive Student Notebook Assignments

1. Copied content specific questions

(ISN) Discussion and Study Questions

1. Guiding Questions

(ISN) Tech Activities

Technology assignment that makes them do something with a computer

Vocabulary

[Quizlet Flashcard Vocabulary for Europeans Impact the New World](#)

TABLE 9.2:

Atlantic Slave Trade	The slave trade that was practiced in the 16th through the 19th centuries in which African slaves were captured and marched to the west coast of Africa and transported across the Atlantic Ocean for sale in the Americas.
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TABLE 9.2: (continued)

Columbian Exchange	The global transfer of plants, animals and diseases that occurred during the European colonization of the Americas.
Columbus, Christopher	An Italian explorer who sailed for Spain in 1492. He was seeking a westward water route to East Asia but landed in the West Indies instead.
conquistadors	Spanish explorers, soldiers, and fortune hunters who took part in the conquest the Americas in the 16th century.
Cortes, Hernando	Spanish conquistador who led the conquest of the Aztec Empire.
da Gama, Vasco	A Portuguese explorer who commanded the first ships to sail directly from Europe to India by sailing south and east around Africa, making Portugal the first European country to reach Asia by way of an all water route.
encomienda system	A system of settlement practiced by the Spanish in the Americas whereby the government granted land to a Spanish settler that included the right to utilize Indian laborers.
Magellan, Ferdinand	A Portuguese explorer who sailed for Spain seeking a westward route to the "Spice Islands" of Indonesia. His expedition (1519-1522) would become the first to sail across the Pacific and complete the first circumnavigation of the Earth.
middle passage	The voyage across the Atlantic Ocean that brought captured Africans to the West Indies, and later to North and South America to be sold as slaves.
Montezuma	Leader of the Aztec Empire at the time of its Spanish conquest.
New France	The areas of North America claimed by France; consisting primarily of modern-day Canada, the Great Lakes and the Mississippi River.
New Netherland	The area along the Hudson River Valley in modern-day New York claimed by the Dutch, as well as the settlement at New Amsterdam, modern-day New York City.
Pizarro, Francisco	Spanish conquistador who led the conquest of the Inca Empire.
Prince Henry	A son of the king of Portugal who was a key figure in the early development of European exploration. He established a school for navigators and was instrumental in leading Portugal's efforts to establish a string of trading posts along the west coast of Africa.

- Pre-Columbian societies were highly advanced societies with complex institutions. That included highly structured priests/warrior elites that managed a skilled bureaucracy.
- The Mexican Valley and the Andean Mountains provided a bountifully rich environment for these civilizations to thrive. Although, domestic animals (only the llama) were non-existent the monumental building was

substantial.

- These civilizations were polytheistic, they practiced human sacrifice, and their leaders were theocratic.
- European discovery and conquest of the New World, led to the Americas losing their identity and culture which were replaced by European languages and religions.
- Columbian Exchange took place between the New World (the Americas) and Old World (Europe, Africa, and Asia) crops grown in plantations, people both forced and voluntary, technologies, and disease moved across the Atlantic Ocean
- Trans-Atlantic Slave Trade forced millions of Africans from their homes across the Atlantic to work as slaves in the New World on plantations, domestic work, and in the mines.

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34. . Cassava root.
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CHAPTER

10

Chapter Nine: Absolutism to Constitutionalism

Chapter Outline

- 10.1 THE COMMERCIAL REVOLUTION
 - 10.2 THE SCIENTIFIC REVOLUTION
 - 10.3 ABSOLUTISM AND ENLIGHTENMENT
 - 10.4 REFERENCES
-

10.1 The Commercial Revolution

9.1 The Commercial Revolution

Student Learning Objectives

At the end of this section the student will be able to

- analyze the causes of European expansion from 1450 to 1750.
- explain new economic factors and principles that contributed to the success of Europe's Commercial Revolution.
- formulate generalizations on how economic freedom improved the human condition, based on students' knowledge of the benefits of free enterprise in Europe's Commercial Revolution, the Industrial Revolution, and 20th-century free market economies, compared to communist command economies.
- analyze information by sequencing, categorizing, identifying cause-and-effect relationships, comparing, contrasting, finding the main idea, summarizing, making generalizations and predictions, drawing inferences and conclusions, and developing connections between historical events over time

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The **Commercial Revolution** was a period of European economic expansion, colonialism, and mercantilism which lasted from approximately the late 13th century until the early 18th century. It was succeeded in the mid-18th century by the Industrial Revolution. Beginning with the Crusades, Europeans rediscovered spices, silks, and other commodities rare in Europe. This development created a new desire for trade, and trade expanded in the second half of the Middle Ages. European states, through voyages of discovery, were looking for new trade routes in the 15th and 16th centuries, which allowed the European powers to build vast, new international trade networks. Nations also sought new sources of wealth. To deal with this new-found wealth, new economic theories and practices were created. Because of competing national interest, Europeans had the desire for increased world power through their colonial empires. The Commercial Revolution is marked by an increase in general commerce, and in the growth of financial services such as banking, insurance, and investing.

The commercial revolution ran from approximately the late 13th century, through the 18th century, with Walt Whitman Rostow saying the beginning is "arbitrarily" 1488, the year the first European sailed around the Cape of Good Hope. Historians Peter Spufford, Robert S. Lopez and Irving W. Raymond indicate that there was a commercial revolution of the 13th century, or that it began at this point, rather than later.

Banks

One of the economic developments to come out of the Commercial revolution was the development of banking. Various legal and religious developments in the late Middle Ages allowed for development of the modern banking system at the beginning of the 16th century. Interest was allowed to be charged, and profits generated from holding other people's money.

Banks in the Italian Peninsula had great difficulty operating at the end of the 14th century, for lack of silver and gold coin. Nevertheless, by the later 16th century, enough bullion was available, thanks to discoveries in the New World that many more people could keep a small amount hoarded and used as capital.

In response to this extra available money, northern European banking interests came along; among them was the Fugger family. The Fuggers were originally mine owners, but soon became involved in banking, charging

interest, and other financial activities. They dealt with everyone, from small time individuals, to the highest nobility. Their banks even loaned to the emperors and kings, eventually going bankrupt when their clients defaulted. This family, and other individuals, used Italian methods which outpaced the Hanseatic League's ability to keep up with the changes occurring in northern Europe.

Joint Stock Companies and Stock Exchanges

Stock exchanges were developed as the volume of stock transactions increased. The London Royal Exchange established in 1565 first developed as a securities market, though by 1801 it had become a stock exchange.

Historian Fernand Braudel suggests that in Cairo in the 11th-century Muslim and Jewish merchants had already set up every form of trade association and had knowledge of every method of credit and payment, disproving the belief that these were invented later by Italians. In 12th century France the *courratiers de change* were concerned with managing and regulating the debts of agricultural communities on behalf of the banks. Because these men also traded with debts, they could be called the first brokers. In late 13th century Bruges commodity traders gathered inside the house of a man called *Van der Beurse*, and in 1309 they became the "Bruges Beurse", institutionalizing what had been, until then, an informal meeting. The idea quickly spread around Flanders and neighboring counties and "Beurzen" soon opened in Ghent and Amsterdam.

"In the middle of the 13th century Venetian bankers began to trade in government securities. In 1351 the Venetian government outlawed spreading rumors intended to lower the price of government funds." Bankers in Pisa, Verona, Genoa and Florence also began trading in government securities during the 14th century. This practice was only possible, because these independent city states were not ruled by a duke but a council of influential citizens. The Dutch later started joint stock companies, which let shareholders invest in business ventures and get a share of their profits - or losses. In 1602, the Dutch East India Company issued the first shares on the Amsterdam Stock Exchange. It was the first company to issue stocks and bonds.

The Amsterdam Stock Exchange (or Amsterdam Beurs) is also said to have been the first stock exchange to introduce continuous trade in the early 17th century. The Dutch "pioneered short selling, option trading, debt-equity swaps, merchant banking, unit trusts and other speculative instruments, much as we know them."

Mercantilism

One of the ideas to come out of the Commercial Revolution was mercantilism, an economic theory and practice, dominant in Europe from the 16th to the 18th century, that promoted governmental regulation of a nation's economy for the purpose of augmenting state power at the expense of rival national powers. It was the economic counterpart of political absolutism or absolute monarchies. Mercantilism includes a national economic policy aimed at accumulating monetary reserves through a positive balance of trade, especially of finished goods. Historically, such policies frequently led to war and also motivated colonial expansion. Mercantilist theory varies in sophistication from one writer to another and has evolved over time. High tariffs, especially on manufactured goods, are an almost universal feature of mercantilist policy.

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Vocabulary

[Quizlet Vocubular flashcard for The Commercial Revolution.](#)

TABLE 10.1:

Commercial Revolution	The expansion of trade and business that transformed European economies during the 16th and 17th centuries and witnessed the growth of capitalism, mercantilism and joint-stock companies.
Free enterprise	An economic system where the fewest possible restrictions are placed on business activities and ownership, and individuals are permitted to make their own economic decisions.
mercantilism	An economic policy under which nations sought to increase their wealth and power by obtaining large amounts of gold and silver and by maintaining a favorable balance of trade by selling more goods than they bought.

9.1

10.2 The Scientific Revolution

9.2 The Scientific Revolution

Student Learning Objectives

At the end of this section the student will be able to

- describe the origins of the Scientific Revolution in 16th century Europe and explain its impact on scientific thinking worldwide.
- identify the contributions of significant scientists such as Archimedes, Copernicus, Eratosthenes, Galileo, Pythagoras, Isaac Newton, Robert Boyle.

Roots of the Scientific Revolution

The beginning of the seventeenth century is known as the "scientific revolution" for the drastic changes evidenced in the European approach to science during that period. The word "revolution" connotes a period of turmoil and social upheaval where ideas about the world change severely and a completely new era of academic thought is ushered in. This term, therefore, describes quite accurately what took place in the scientific community following the sixteenth century. During the scientific revolution, medieval scientific philosophy was abandoned in favor of the new methods proposed by Bacon, Galileo, Descartes, and Newton; the importance of experimentation to the scientific method was reaffirmed; the importance of God to science was for the most part invalidated, and the pursuit of science itself (rather than philosophy) gained validity on its own terms. The change to the medieval idea of science occurred for four reasons:

1. Seventeenth century scientists and philosophers were able to collaborate with members of the mathematical and astronomical communities to effect advances in all fields;
2. Scientists realized the inadequacy of medieval experimental methods for their work and so felt the need to devise new methods (some of which we use today);
3. Academics had access to a legacy of European, Greek, and Middle Eastern scientific philosophy they could use as a starting point (either by disproving or building on the theorems);
4. Groups like the British Royal Society helped validate science as a field by providing an outlet for the publication of scientists' work.

These changes were not immediate, nor did they directly create the experimental method used today, but they did represent a step toward Enlightenment thinking (with an emphasis on reason) that was revolutionary for the time. Assessment of the state of science before the scientific revolution, examination of the differences in the experimental methods utilized by different "scientists" during the seventeenth century, and exploration into how advances made during the scientific revolution affected the scientific method used in science today will provide an idea of how revolutionary the breakthroughs of the seventeenth century really were and what impact they've had.

Science and Philosophy Before the Revolution

In immediate contrast to modern times, only a few of Europe's academics at the beginning of the scientific revolution and the end of the sixteenth century considered themselves to be "scientists." The words "natural philosopher" carried much more academic clout and so the majority of the research on scientific theory was conducted not in the

scientific realm per se, but in philosophy, where "scientific methods" like empiricism and teleology were promoted widely.

In the 17th century, empiricism and teleology existed as remnants of medieval thought that were utilized by philosophers such as William of Ockham, an empiricist (d. 1349), Robert Boyle, a 17th century chemist, teleologist and mechanist, and by the proponents of Plato and Aristotle (1st century teleologists and abstractionists). Both empiricism, as the theory that reality consists solely of what one physically experiences, and teleology, as the idea that phenomena exist only because they have a purpose (i.e. because God wills them to be so), generally negated the necessity of fact-gathering, hypothesis writing, and controlled experimentation that became such an integral part of modern chemistry and biology at the beginning of the 17th century. In other words, the study of science before the scientific revolution was so concentrated on philosophy (such as Aristotle's conception of "ideas" as ultimate truths) as to preclude the development of a scientific method that would necessitate the creation of an informed hypothesis to be tested.



FIGURE 10.1

The Shannon Portrait of the Hon. Robert Boyle F. R. S. (1627-1691). Robert Boyle (1627–1691), an Irish-born English scientist, was an early supporter of the scientific method and founder of modern chemistry. Boyle is known for his pioneering experiments on the physical properties of gases, his authorship of the *Sceptical Chymist*, his role in creating the Royal Society of London, and his philanthropy in the American colonies.

The defining feature of the scientific revolution lies in how much scientific thought changed during a period of only a century, and in how quickly differing thoughts of different natural philosophers condensed to form a cohesive experimental method that chemists, biologists, and physicists can easily utilize today. The modern experimental method incorporates Francis Bacon's focus on use of controlled experiments and inductive reasoning, Galileo's emphasis on incorporation of established laws from all disciplines (math, astronomy, chemistry, biology, physics) in coming to a conclusion through mechanism, and Newton's method of composition, with each successive method strengthening the validity of the next.

Francis Bacon (1561-1626)

Bacon represents a first step away from sixteenth century thinking, in that he denied the validity of empiricism and preferred inductive reasoning (the method of deriving a general "truth" from observation of certain similar facts and principles) to the Aristotelian method of deductive reasoning (the method of using general principles to explain a specific instance, where the particular phenomena is explained through its relation to a "universal truth").

Francis Bacon argued that the use of empiricism alone is insufficient, and thus emphasized the necessity of fact-gathering as a first step in the [scientific method](#), which could then be followed by carefully recorded and controlled (unbiased) experimentation. Bacon largely differed from his sixteenth century counterparts in his insistence that experimentation should not be conducted to simply "see what happens" but "as a way of answering specific questions." Moreover, he believed, as did many of his contemporaries, that a main purpose of science was the betterment of human society and that experimentation should be applied to hard, real situations rather than to Aristotelian abstract ideas. His experimental method of fact-gathering largely influenced advances in chemistry and biology through the 18th century.



FIGURE 10.2

Justus Sustermans - Portrait of Galileo Galilei, 1636

Galileo Galilei (1564-1642)

Galileo argued that phenomena should be interpreted mechanically, meaning that because every phenomenon results from a combination of the most basic phenomena and universal axioms, if one applies the many proven theorems

to the larger phenomenon, one can accurately explain why a certain phenomenon occurs the way it does. In other words, he argued that "an explanation of a scientific problem is truly begun when it is reduced to its basic terms of matter and motion," because only the most basic events occur because of one axiom.

For example, one can demonstrate the concept of "acceleration" in the laboratory with a ball and a slanted board, but to fully explain the idea using Galileo's reasoning, one would have to utilize the concepts of many different disciplines: the physics-based concepts of time and distance, the idea of gravity, force, and mass, or even the chemical composition of the element that is accelerating, all of which must be individually broken down to their smallest elements in order for a scientist to fully understand the item as a whole. This "mechanic" or "systemic" approach, while necessitating a mixture of elements from different disciplines, also partially removed the burden of fact-gathering emphasized by Bacon. In other words, through Galileo's method, one would not observe the phenomenon as a whole, but rather as a construct or system of many existing principles that must be tested together, and so gathering facts about the performance of the phenomenon in one situation may not truly lead to an informed observation of how the phenomenon would occur in a perfect circumstance, when all laws of matter and motion come into play. Galileo's experimental method aided advances in chemistry and biology by allowing biologists to explain the work of a muscle or any body function using existing ideas of motion, matter, energy, and other basic principles.

Robert Boyle (1627-1691)

Even though he made progress in the field of chemistry through Baconian experimentation (fact-finding followed by controlled experimentation), he remained drawn to teleological explanations for scientific phenomena. For example, Boyle believed that because God establish some rules of motion and nature, phenomena must exist to serve a certain purpose within that established order.

Robert Hooke (1635-1703)

Hooke, the Royal Society's first Curator of Experiments from 1662-1677, considered science as way of improving society. This was in contrast to medieval thought, where science and philosophy were done for knowledge's sake alone and ideas were tested just to see if it could be done. An experimentalist who followed the Baconian tradition, Hooke agreed with Bacon's idea that "history of nature and the arts" was the basis of science. He was also a leader in publicizing microscopy (not discovering, it had been discovered 30 years prior to his *Micrographia*).

Sir Isaac Newton (1643-1747)

He composed a set of four rules for scientific reasoning stated in his famed *Principia*. His analytical method was a critical improvement upon the more abstract approach of Aristotle, mostly because his laws lent themselves well to experimentation with mathematical physics, whose conclusions "could then be confirmed by direct observation. " Newton also refined Galileo's experimental method by creating the contemporary "compositional method of experimentation" that consisted in making experiments and observations, followed by inducted conclusions that could only be overturned by the realization of other, more substantiated truths. Essentially, through his physical and mathematical approach to experimental design, Newton established a clear distinction between "natural philosophy" and "physical science. "

All of these natural philosophers built upon the work of their contemporaries, and this collaboration became even simpler with the establishment of professional societies for scientists that published journals and provided forums for scientific discussion.

Astronomy

The sixteenth and seventeenth centuries are notable for a significant shift in orientation toward the natural world. Previously, the study of nature had been dominated by the metaphysical speculations of Aristotle.

In Aristotelian metaphysics, abstractions dominated. All entities were understood as following rules based on their essences. Each substance had a proper or natural place. In astronomy, space was divided into two main regions. The stars resided in the higher region and were fixed in space. The planets and the moon resided in the lower region and revolved around the Earth. The sun also revolved around the Earth. Celestial and earthly motion was understood in terms of bodies seeking their natural resting places.

By the completion of the Scientific Revolution, most Aristotelian notions were overthrown. Space was reconceived as isotropic and non-hierarchical. Matter was seen as compositionally consistent throughout the universe. Motion was understood in terms of forces acting upon otherwise inert bodies. Finally, with Isaac Newton, a single constant called "gravity" was introduced as the fundamental operative force of the entire universe.

Copernicus

The transformations in astronomy that took place during this period, which bore on cosmology, began with the work of Nicolaus Copernicus (1473–1543). Copernicus was an extraordinary polymath, a master of numerous fields of study. He was a mathematician, lawyer, physician, and classicist. He was also a polyglot, a fluent speaker and writer in several languages, including Latin, Polish, German, Greek, and Italian. Most importantly for posterity, Copernicus was the astronomer credited with founding the field of modern astronomy.

Copernicus's major work, *On the Revolutions of the Heavenly Spheres*, was published in 1543, the year of his death. In this great work, Copernicus effected a radical transformation of the system developed by [Ptolemy](#) (ca. 87–150 CE). Contrary to the Ptolemaic system, Copernicus posited a heliocentric model wherein the Earth and other planets, including Mercury, Venus, Mars, Jupiter, and Saturn, were carried by spheres around a stationary sun.

-
In the Ptolemaic system, the Earth had been figured as the stationary center of the universe around which the planets and sun revolved. In the Copernican system, on the other hand, the Earth was merely "another planet," that is, a "wandering star."

Because his philosophy and theology held that God created only perfect order and harmony, Copernicus envisioned the planetary revolutions as perfectly circular. In order to account for some locations of planets and moons, he retained the auxiliary theory of [epicycles](#) that had been a part of the Ptolemaic system. In Copernicus's use of epicycles, the planets also circled the Earth while circling the sun. The number of epicycles from the Ptolemaic system that Copernicus was able to eliminate is a subject of some disagreement.

Like a majority of Europeans of his time, Copernicus was an adherent of the Catholic Church. Yet a heliocentric universe ran contrary to the Christian, Earth-centered cosmology.

Accordingly, Copernicus withheld publication of *On the Revolutions of the Heavenly Spheres* until he was literally on his deathbed. An introductory insertion in the text made by a friend or editor suggested that his writings ought to be understood as hypotheses only.

While Copernicus's ideas were revolutionary at the time, they did not cause a revolution in the study of astronomy until taken up by Galileo Galilei and Johannes Kepler several years later.

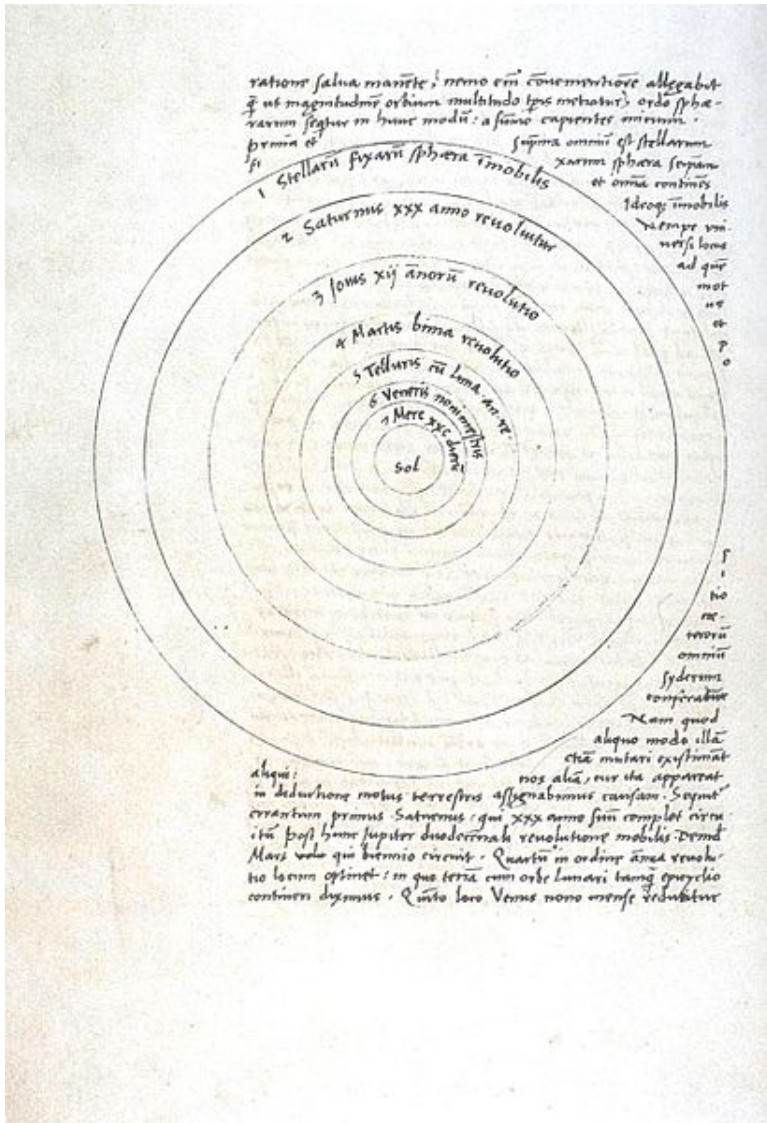


FIGURE 10.3
De revolutionibus, p. 9. Heliocentric model of the solar system in Copernicus' manuscript

Kepler

But Kepler accomplished far more than the mere realization of the Copernican system. While accepting the central feature of Copernicus's model—a stationary sun and revolving planets—Kepler jettisoned the remainder of the complex and cumbersome auxiliary theories, including epicycles. In their place, he introduced a wholly new conception of the universe that is still essentially accepted today.

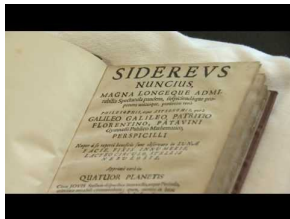
Kepler was a student of Tycho Brahe, who is known for developing numerous instruments to improve the accuracy of astronomical observation. Kepler gained a great deal from his exposure to Tycho's methods and findings. His investigations of the planet Mars as a student of Tycho's effectively forced him to develop a theory that could account for the data. He drew from Tycho's yet unpublished notes and data to develop a picture of planetary positions that finally led to his major breakthrough, the accepted model of planetary motion. In his "elliptical thesis," first propounded in his book *The New Astronomy* (1609), Kepler boldly declared that the planets, including the Earth, revolve around a stationary sun in ellipses, rather than in perfect circles.

Kepler's other revolutionary contribution to astronomy was his introduction of a new celestial physics, one that aimed to explain the natural causes of the motions of celestial bodies. That is, with Kepler, we see the final overthrow

**FIGURE 10.4**

Jan Matejko-Astronomer Copernicus-Conversation with God Oil painting by the Polish artist Jan Matejko, finished in 1873, depicting Nicolaus Copernicus observing the heavens from a balcony by a tower near the cathedral in Frombork.

of Aristotelian metaphysics, in which motion was based on the essence of the object itself. Under Aristotle's metaphysics, an object's movement toward its "natural" resting place accounted for its motion. Instead, Kepler introduced the modern notion of physical forces as the causes of motion. For Kepler, a planet or other lifeless object is without an internal or active force of its own. Motion is derived only from external forces acting on the object. This particular insight was essential for Isaac Newton's breakthrough formulation of the law of gravity.

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Vocabulary**TABLE 10.2:**

Boyle, Robert	An Irish chemist sometimes referred to as the "Father of Chemistry." He conducted experiments with gases and proposed that matter was made up of smaller primary particles that joined together in different ways.
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TABLE 10.2: (continued)

Copernicus, Nicolaus	A Renaissance mathematician and astronomer who formulated a heliocentric model of the universe which placed the Sun, rather than the Earth, at the center of the solar system.
Galileo	An Italian physicist, mathematician, and astronomer who played a major role in the Scientific Revolution. Along with improvements he made to the telescope, he furthered Copernicus' heliocentric theory of the solar system and challenged the traditional teachings of the Catholic Church. He was forced to recant his ideas before the Inquisition.
Newton, Sir Isaac	An English scientist who discovered the universal law of gravity, lending support to the idea that the universe acted according to certain fundamental and fixed natural laws.
scientific method	A logical procedure for gathering information about the natural world, in which experimentation through careful and systematic observation is used to test hypotheses.
Scientific Revolution	Starting in the mid-1500's, a major shift in European thought in which the study of the natural world began to be characterized by use of the scientific method and the questioning of traditionally held beliefs.

10.3 Absolutism and Enlightenment

9.3 Absolutism and Enlightenment

Student Learning Objectives

At the end of this section the student will be able to

- identify the characteristics of the following political systems: theocracy, absolute monarchy, democracy, republic, oligarchy, limited monarchy and totalitarianism.
- explain the development of democratic-republican government from its beginnings in the Judeo-Christian legal tradition and classical Greece and Rome through the English Civil War and the Enlightenment.
- identify the impact of political and legal ideas contained in the following documents: Hammurabi's Code, the Jewish Ten Commandments, Justinian's Code of Laws, Magna Carta, the English Bill of Rights the Declaration of Independence, the U.S. Constitution, and the Declaration of the Rights of Man and of the Citizen.
- explain the political philosophies of individuals such as John Locke, Thomas Hobbes, Voltaire, Charles de Montesquieu, Jean Jacques Rousseau, Thomas Aquinas, John Calvin, Thomas Jefferson, and William Blackstone.

Absolutism in Europe

The era of absolutism, exemplified by the "Sun King" Louis XIV Bourbon of France, marks the rise of rulers throughout Europe who had absolute power over their nations. Mercantilism became the primary form of economy of the day, and the issue of religion disappeared in European wars, now replaced by the issue of the balance of power.

LOUIS XIV (1638-1715), Model of Absolutism

Louis XIV Bourbon of France rose to power in 1643. He was married to Maria Theresa, daughter of Philip IV. His power stemmed from the fact that during his reign he maintained a powerful, unified France. Louis and William III Stuart of Orange were arch-enemies during this time; however, Louis maintained the upper hand and was on the offensive against William during that time.

Louis desired control over the Netherlands because of its economic power as a result of trade, because he wanted to crush Calvinists and Protestants, and because he desired increased territory. Indeed, he advised his heir, Louis XV, "Do not imitate me in my taste for war." His aggressive policy demanded to finance the largest European army of 280,000 men.

Louis' wars resulted in horrendous results and poverty for the French people, and Protestants despised Louis. His economic policy was headed by Colbert, and his nation was a model in enacting mercantilism. During his reign, France became the dominant country in language, culture, and dress.

Louis allegedly famously declared, "L'etat c'est moi," or "I am the state," and his reign exemplifies absolutism. French Bishop Bossuet declared that it was the divine right of monarchs to rule, concluding that kings were God's anointed representatives on earth. Louis acted upon this belief, governing France as if he were placed on earth by God to rule.

Overall, Louis' foreign goals were territorial expansion and the spread of Catholicism.

Louis was highly successful in his domestic ambitions to achieve absolute power through centralized bureaucracy.

He successfully controlled rebellious nobles and made himself the center of French power and culture. People depended upon him for advancement and thrived on his goodwill. Louis also established the palace at Versailles, which took fourteen years to construct. Versailles was modeled by every other major European country, and it successfully kept nobles occupied, distracting them from the desire to have a say in government. In 1685, Louis revoked the Edict of Nantes, stripping Calvinists of their rights in France.

**FIGURE 10.5**

Louis XIV King of France and of Navarre
By Hyacinthe Rigaud (1701)

Divine Right of Kings

Louis, as other monarchs in kingdoms such as Russia and Spain, based his rulership on a concept known as divine right of kings. During the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, with the rise of the nation-state and the protestant reformation, the theory of divine right was used to justify the king's absolute authority in both political and spiritual matters. This theory came to be used in England under the reign of the stuart monarchs, James I (1603-1625) and Charles I (1625-1649), but never gained traction and was discredited in the aftermath of the English Civil War

**FIGURE 10.6**

Portrait of Charles I.

English Civil War (1642-1651)

The English Civil War in response to the behavior of the Stuart monarchs, particularly Charles I, in dealing with Parliament as well as the extravagant lifestyle of both monarchs. Furthermore, Charles hoped to unite the kingdoms of England, Scotland and Ireland into a new single kingdom, fulfilling the dream of his father. Many English Parliamentarians had suspicions regarding such a move, because they feared that setting up a new kingdom might destroy the old English traditions which had bound the English monarchy. As Charles shared his father's position on the power of the crown (James had described kings as "little gods on Earth", chosen by God to rule in accordance with the doctrine of the "Divine Right of Kings"), the suspicions of the Parliamentarians had some justification. Finally, many members of Parliament, a significant portion of whom were members of reformed Protestant churches

such as the Puritans or Calvinists, distrusted Charles' motives thanks to his religious policies and the fact he was married to a Roman Catholic. His support of the high ecclesiastics, such as Richard Montagu and William Laud, as well as his failure to successfully aid Protestant forces in the Thirty Years' War further damage his ability to govern.

From 1642, Charles fought the armies of the English and Scottish parliaments in the English Civil War. After his defeat in 1645, he surrendered to a Scottish force that eventually handed him over to the English Parliament. Charles refused to accept his captors' demands for a constitutional monarchy, and temporarily escaped captivity in November 1647. Re-imprisoned on the Isle of Wight, Charles forged an alliance with Scotland, but by the end of 1648 Oliver Cromwell's New Model Army had consolidated its control over England. Charles was tried, convicted, and executed for high treason in January 1649. The monarchy was abolished and a republic called the Commonwealth of England was declared. In 1660, the English Interregnum ended when the monarchy was restored to Charles's son, Charles II.

Thomas Hobbes, a philosopher who lived through the violence and chaos of the English civil war, was alarmed by the revolutionary upheaval in England. He wrote *Leviathan* was published in 1651.

Hobbes claimed that before society was organized humans led a "solitary, poor, nasty, brutish and short" existence. Humans were guided not by reason and morals but instead by a struggle for self-preservation.

To stop people from destroying each other, people created the idea of the social contract and agreed to form a state. Hobbes referred to the state as a great Leviathan that is responsible for peace and defense. Furthermore, Hobbes argued people in the state agreed to be governed by an absolute ruler who possessed unlimited power. Rebellion in his view should be suppressed. Hobbes believed absolute power was needed to preserve the social order.

The Enlightenment

The Enlightenment was a philosophical movement in the eighteenth century composed of intellectuals who were greatly impressed with the achievements of the Scientific Revolution. They were very much concerned with the idea of reason, meaning the application of the scientific method to help understand all of life. They hoped that by using the scientific method, they could make progress toward a better society than the one they had inherited. *Reason, natural law, hope, progress*—these were common words to the thinkers of the time.

The Enlightenment was especially influenced by the ideas of two seventeenth century Englishmen, Isaac Newton and John Locke. To Newton, the physical world and everything in it was like a giant machine (the Newtonian world-machine). If you could discover the natural laws that governed the physical world, then it was possible to discover the natural laws that governed human society.

John Locke's theory of knowledge also greatly affected eighteenth-century intellectuals. In his *Essay Concerning Human Understanding*, Locke argued that every person was born with a blank mind (known as *tabula rasa*). Furthermore, he suggested that people were molded by the experiences they gained from the world around them

Montesquieu

Charles-Louis de Secondat, the Baron de Montesquieu, was a French noble.

His most famous work, *The Spirit of the Laws*, was published in 1748. In this study of government he tried to use the scientific method to find the natural laws that govern the social and political relationships of human beings.

Thus, in his work Montesquieu identified three basic kinds of governments: a. republics, suitable for small states; b. despotisms, ideal for large states; and c. monarchies, appropriate for moderate sized states.

Montesquieu believed that England's government had three branches: the executive (the monarch), the legislative (parliament) and the judicial (the courts of law). This government functioned through what is known as the separation of powers. By separating the powers of each branch, Montesquieu believed that each one would act as a check on the other. Because it prevents any one person or group from gaining too much power, he argued this system provides the greatest amount of freedom and security, not for the people, but for the state.

**FIGURE 10.7**

John Locke's Kit-cat portrait by Godfrey Kneller, National Portrait Gallery, London

Rousseau

By the mid eighteenth century a new group of philosophers had come of age. The most famous of this later generation was a man named Jean-Jacques Rousseau. As a young man he wandered France and Italy holding various jobs. Eventually he found himself in Paris where he became a member of the circle of philosophes.

In his *Discourse on the Origins of the Inequality of Mankind*, he argued that people adopted laws and government in order to preserve their private property. In the process of doing so, however, they had become enslaved by the government. What then, should people do in order to regain their freedom and throw off the chains of bondage?

In a famous work published in 1762 titled *The Social Contract*, Rousseau presented his concept of the social contract. Through this device an entire society agrees to be governed by the general will. If an individual wishes to follow his/her own self-interest, they must be forced to abide by the will of the majority. "This means nothing less than that [they] will be forced to be free," said Rousseau. Therefore, according to Rousseau, liberty is achieved by being forced to follow what is best for the general will because it is what is best for the community at large.

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**FIGURE 10.8**

The statue of Rousseau on the île Rousseau, Geneva.

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Vocabulary

TABLE 10.3:

absolutism	A system of government in which a king or queen has unlimited power and seeks to control all aspects of society.
Blackstone, William	An English jurist whose published lectures would explain the rights of the English people and become the foundation of English common law.

TABLE 10.3: (continued)

Constitutional monarchy	A form of government whereby a monarch's power is limited by written law.
Divine right	A form of government whereby a monarch's power is limited by written law.
English bill of rights	An Act of the English Parliament passed in 1689 and presented to William and Mary after the Glorious Revolution, inviting them to become joint sovereigns of England. It marked the final shift of power from the monarch to Parliament.
English Civil War	1642-1649) A conflict in which Puritan supporters of Parliament battled supporters of England's monarchy, resulting in the execution of King Charles I and the assertion of Parliament's supremacy over the monarch.
Enlightened despotism	An Act of the English Parliament passed in 1689 and presented to William and Mary after the Glorious Revolution, inviting them to become joint sovereigns of England. It marked the final shift of power from the monarch to Parliament.
Enlightenment	An 18th century European movement in which thinkers challenged the practices of hereditary privilege and absolutism and attempted to apply the principles of reason and the scientific method to all aspects of society.
Hobbes, Thomas	An English thinker and contemporary of John Locke, who defended absolute monarchy. He believed people to be naturally "nasty and brutish," and that a powerful, central authority was needed to maintain peace and order, thus originating the idea of the relationship between a government and its subjects as a "social contract." He believed kings were justified in seizing absolute power to assure social stability.
Limited monarchy	The practice of some 18th century monarchs to rule justly in accordance to Enlightenment ideas and to respect the rights of their subjects.
Locke, John	An English philosopher of the Enlightenment who argued that a government's power comes from the consent of the people and that the people have the right to rebel against unjust rulers. His ideas laid the foundation for the emergence of modern democracy.
Louis XIV	Known as the Sun King, he was king of France from 1661 to 1715, the longest-reigning king in European history and the most powerful of the absolute kings of his time. He built the Palace at Versailles, and reportedly made the classic absolutist boast, "I am the state."
Montesquieu, Baron de	A French writer of the Enlightenment who proposed that a separation of powers within government was necessary in order to keep any individual or group from gaining total control the government.

TABLE 10.3: (continued)

Henry VIII	King of England from 1509 to 1547. Because of his dispute with the Catholic Church over its refusal to grant him a divorce from his Spanish, Catholic queen in order to secure a male heir to the throne, he separated the Church of England from papal authority, dissolved the Catholic monasteries, and established himself as the Supreme Head of the Church of England.
Rousseau, Jean-Jacques	One of the most influential thinkers of the 18th century Enlightenment, his writings would inspire the ideals of the French Revolution. He argued that government should be based upon a "social contract" freely formed through the "general will" of the people and their government. He argued that all people were equal and that all titles of nobility should be abolished.

9.3

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10.4 References

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CHAPTER 11 Chapter Ten: Revolutions of Liberty

Chapter Outline

- 11.1 THE AMERICAN WAR FOR INDEPENDENCE**
 - 11.2 THE FRENCH REVOLUTION**
 - 11.3 LATIN AMERICA GAINS ITS INDEPENDENCE**
 - 11.4 REFERENCES**
-

In the late 1700's and early 1800's, political revolutions in North America, Europe, and South America would contribute to a transformation of the political world. Both the American and French Revolutions were the products of Enlightenment ideas that emphasized the ideas of natural rights and equality. Though very different in character, they both challenged the traditions and structures of the Old Regime. These Enlightened ideas would soon spread to Latin America, bringing about its independence from Spanish colonial rule. During this era empires were broken apart, kings were overthrown, new democracies emerged, dictators rose and fell, devastating wars were waged, and new social structures were forged. As a result, the world moved much closer to what it is today.

11.1 The American War for Independence

10.1 American Revolution

Student Learning Objectives

At the end of this section the student will be able to

- identify major causes and describe the major effects of the following important turning points in world history from 1750 to 1914: the Scientific Revolution, the Industrial Revolution and its impact on the development of modern economic systems, European imperialism, and the Enlightenment's impact on political revolutions.[WHS.1E]
- compare the causes, characteristics, and consequences of the American and French revolutions, emphasizing the role of the Enlightenment, the Glorious Revolution, and religion.[WHS.9A]
- identify the influence of ideas such as separation of powers, checks and balances, liberty, equality, democracy, popular sovereignty, human rights, constitutionalism, and nationalism on political revolutions.[WHS.9D]
- create and interpret thematic maps, graphs, and charts to demonstrate the relationship between geography and the historical development of a region or nation.[WHS.15A]
- analyze and compare geographic distributions and patterns in world history shown on maps, graphs, charts, and models.[WHS.15B]
- locate places and regions of historical significance directly related to major eras and turning points in world history.[WHS.16A]
- identify the characteristics of the following political systems: theocracy, absolute monarchy, democracy, republic, oligarchy, limited monarchy, and totalitarianism.[WHS.19B]
- identify the impact of political and legal ideas contained in the following documents: Hammurabi's Code, the Jewish Ten Commandments, Justinian's Code of Laws, Magna Carta, the English Bill of Rights, the Declaration of Independence, the U.S. Constitution, and the Declaration of the Rights of Man and of the Citizen.[WHS.20B]
- describe how people have participated in supporting or changing their governments.[WHS.21A]
- describe the rights and responsibilities of citizens and noncitizens in civic participation throughout history.[WHS.21B]
- analyze information by sequencing, categorizing, identifying cause-and-effect relationships, comparing, contrasting, finding the main idea, summarizing, making generalizations and predictions, drawing inferences and conclusions, and developing connections between historical events over time.[WHS.29F]
- use appropriate reading and mathematical skills to interpret social studies information such as maps and graphs.[WHS.29H]
- use social studies terminology correctly.[WHS.30A]
- use standard grammar, spelling, sentence structure, and punctuation.[WHS.30B]
- interpret and create written, oral, and visual presentations of social studies information.[WHS.30C]
- transfer information from one medium to another.[WHS.30D]

Between 1760 and 1800, the American colonists cast off British rule to create a new nation and a radically new form of government based on the idea that people have the right to govern themselves. After having become accustomed to virtual self-government for over a century, the British became more involved after the French and Indian war. The colonists saw British interference into their affairs as denying them the same rights they possessed as any other British subject. The revolution would transform a monarchical society, in which the colonists were subjects of the Crown, into a republic, in which they were citizens and participants in the political process. Above all, the Revolution popularized certain radical ideals, especially a commitment to liberty, equality, government of the people, and rule

of law. However compromised in practice, these egalitarian ideals inspired a spirit of reform that would continue to influence the evolution of the new republic.

For well over a century, the English colonists who had settled in North America had been mostly left alone to govern their own affairs, which included their own locally controlled colonial assemblies. This British policy of salutary neglect would all change beginning with the **French and Indian War**, a conflict fought between Britain and France from 1754 to 1763 for colonial dominance of North America. This war ended after the British captured most of France's major cities and forts in Canada and the Ohio Valley.

In 1763, in the interest of maintaining a more peaceful coexistence between the colonists and Indians along the western frontier, Parliament issued the Proclamation of 1763, forbidding American colonists to settle on Native American territory unless native rights to the land had first been obtained by purchase or treaty. This policy, which essentially prohibited settlement in the West, irritated the colonists. An even more contentious problem, however, was Britain's need for money, due in no small part to the great expense of fighting the French and Indian War, and for the further support of the empire. Britain's past policy of salutary neglect was coming to an end.

Prime Minister George Grenville began enforcing the ancient Navigation Acts in 1764, passed the Sugar Act to tax sugar, and passed the Currency Act to remove paper currencies from circulation. A year later, he passed the **Stamp Act**, which placed a tax on printed materials, and the **Quartering Act**, which required Americans to house and feed British troops.

The Sugar Act was the first fully enforced tax levied in America solely for the purpose of raising revenue. Americans throughout the thirteen colonies cried out against “**taxation without representation**” and made informal non-importation agreements of certain British goods in protest. Several colonial leaders convened the **Stamp Act Congress** in New York to petition Parliament and King George III to repeal the tax. In 1766, Parliament bowed to public pressure and repealed the Stamp Act. But it also quietly passed the Declaratory Act, which stipulated that Parliament reserved the right to tax the colonies anytime it chose.

In 1767, Parliament passed the Townshend Acts, which levied another series of taxes on lead, paints, and tea known as the Townshend Duties. In the same series of acts, Britain passed the Suspension Act, which suspended the New York assembly for not enforcing the Quartering Act. To prevent violent protests, Massachusetts Governor Thomas Hutchinson requested assistance from the British army, and in 1768, four thousand redcoats landed in the city to help maintain order. However, on March 5, 1770, an angry mob clashed with several British troops. Five colonists died, and news of the **Boston Massacre** quickly spread throughout the colonies.



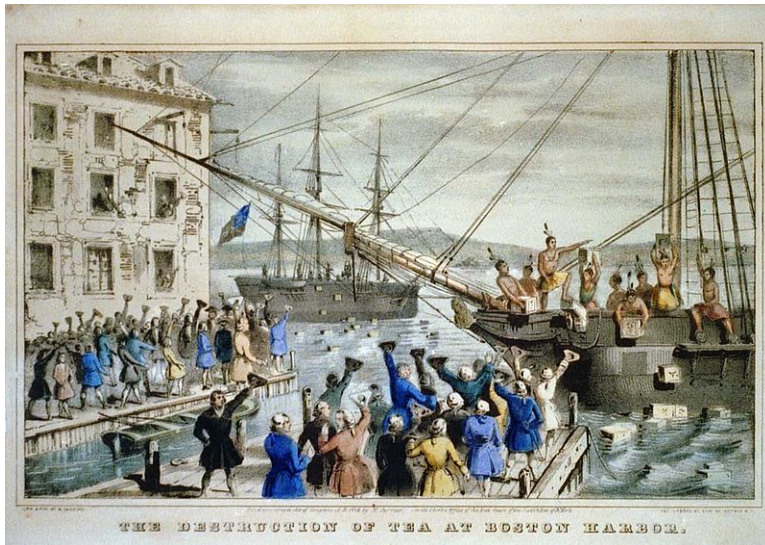
FIGURE 11.1

Paul Revere's historic engraving, *The Bloody Massacre in King-Street*, was probably the most effective piece of war propaganda in American history, though a very inaccurate depiction of the actual event.

In 1773, Parliament passed the **Tea Act**, granting the financially troubled British East India Company a trade monopoly on the tea exported to the American colonies. In many American cities, tea agents resigned or canceled orders, and merchants refused consignments in response to the unpopular act. Governor Hutchinson of Massachusetts, determined to uphold the law, ordered that three ships arriving in Boston harbor should be allowed to deposit their cargoes and that appropriate payments should be made for the goods. On the night of December 16, 1773, while the ships lingered in the harbor, sixty men boarded the ships, disguised as Native Americans, and dumped the entire shipment of tea into the harbor. That event is now famously known as the **Boston Tea Party**.

In January 1774, Parliament passed the **Coercive Acts**, also known as the Intolerable Acts, which shut down Boston Harbor until the British East India Company had been fully reimbursed for the tea destroyed in the **Boston Tea Party**.

To protest the Intolerable Acts, prominent colonials gathered in Philadelphia at **the First Continental Congress** in autumn of 1774. They once again petitioned Parliament, King George III, and the British people to repeal the acts and restore friendly relations. For additional motivation, they also decided to institute a **boycott**, or ban, of all British goods in the colonies.

**FIGURE 11.2**

"The Destruction of Tea at Boston Harbor"

On April 19, 1775, part of the British occupation force in Boston marched to the nearby town of Concord, Massachusetts, to seize a colonial militia arsenal. Militiamen of **Lexington and Concord** intercepted them and attacked. The first shot—the so-called "shot heard round the world" made famous by poet Ralph Waldo Emerson—was one of many that hounded the British and forced them to retreat to Boston. Thousands of militiamen from nearby colonies flocked to Boston to assist.

In the meantime, leaders convened the **Second Continental Congress** to discuss options. In one final attempt for peaceful reconciliation, the **Olive Branch Petition**, they professed their love and loyalty to King George III and begged him to address their grievances. The king rejected the petition and formally declared that the colonies were in a state of rebellion.

In January of 1776, **Thomas Paine** published a pamphlet, *Common Sense* that urged the colonists to declare and fight for independence. The pamphlet explained the advantages of and the need for immediate independence in clear, simple language. It was published anonymously and became an immediate sensation. It was sold and distributed widely and read aloud at taverns and meeting places. *Common Sense* presented the American colonists with an argument for freedom from British rule at a time when the question of whether or not to seek independence was the central issue of the day.

The **Second Continental Congress** chose **George Washington**, a southerner, to command the militiamen besieging Boston in the north. They also appropriated money for a small navy and for transforming the undisciplined militias into the professional Continental Army. Encouraged by a strong colonial campaign in which the British scored only narrow victories (such as at Bunker Hill), many colonists began to advocate total independence as opposed to having full rights within the British Empire. The next year, the congressmen voted on July 2, 1776, to declare their independence. **Thomas Jefferson**, a young lawyer from Virginia, drafted the **Declaration of Independence**, a document firmly based on the ideas of the English philosopher, **John Locke**, and the Enlightenment. The Declaration reflected these ideas in its eloquent argument for natural rights:

“We hold these truths to be self-evident, that all Men are created equal, that they are endowed by their Creator with **unalienable Rights**, that among these are Life, Liberty, and the Pursuit of Happiness; that to guarantee these Rights governments are Instituted among Men, deriving their just Powers from the Consent of the Governed.”

Since Locke had asserted that people have the right to rebel against an unjust ruler, the Declaration of Independence included a long list of George III’s abuses. The document ended by breaking the ties between the colonies and Britain. The colonies, the Declaration said, “are absolved from all allegiance to the British crown.



FIGURE 11.3

John Trumbull - "Declaration of Independence" 1819

“When war was first declared, the odds seemed heavily weighted against the Americans. Washington’s ragtag, poorly trained army faced the well-trained forces of the most powerful country in the world. And yet, the Americans had advantages. First, the Americans’ motivation for fighting was much stronger than that of the British, since their army was defending their homeland. Second, the overconfident British generals made several mistakes. Third, time itself was on the side of the Americans. The British could win battle after battle, as they did, and still lose the war. Fighting an overseas war, 3,000 miles from London, was terribly expensive. After a few years, tax-weary British citizens clamored for peace. Finally, the Americans did not fight alone. Louis XVI of France had little sympathy for the ideals of the American Revolution, but he was eager to weaken France’s rival, Britain. French entry into the war in 1778 was decisive. In 1781, combined forces of about 9,500 Americans and 7,800 French trapped a British army commanded by Lord Cornwallis near **Yorktown**, Virginia. Unable to escape, Cornwallis surrendered. In the end, the Americans won their war for independence.

Americans Create a Republic

Initially, the newly created 13 states ratified a new plan of government known as the **Articles of Confederation**. The Articles established the United States as a republic – a government in which citizens rule through elected representatives. Under the plan, the states held most of the power. Thus, the Articles deliberately created a weak

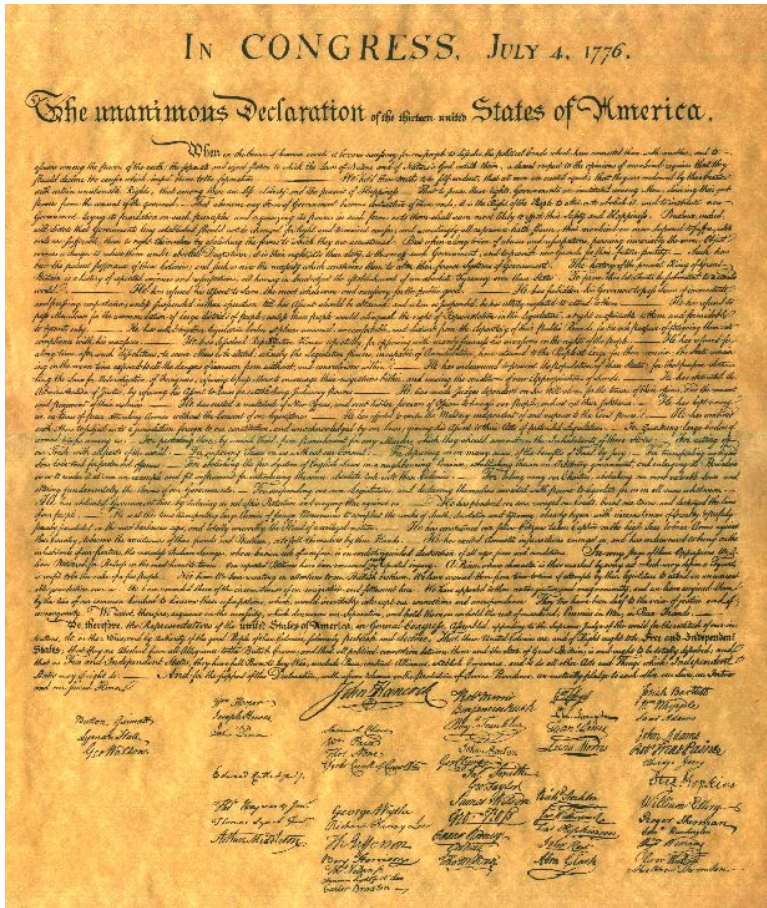


FIGURE 11.4
Declaration of Independence

national government. There were no executive or legislative branches, but only one body of government, a Congress, and even it did not have the power to collect taxes or regulate trade. The weakness of the new government and its growing financial problems were made apparent when debt-ridden farmers in Massachusetts demanded that the state lower taxes and issue paper money so that they could repay their debts. When the state refused, the rebels attacked several courthouses. Massachusetts authorities quickly crushed Shays' Rebellion, but the event helped convince leaders such as Washington and James Madison that there was a need for a stronger national government. In 1787, Congress approved a Constitutional Convention to revise the Articles of Confederation. After four months of deliberations, an entirely new constitution had been created, the **U.S. Constitution**, which remains the law of the land to this day.

The new U.S. Constitution created a system in which power was shared between the national government and state governments. The Constitution further divided the three different types of government powers – legislative, executive, and judicial – among three separate branches of government, as advocated by the Enlightenment thinker Baron de Montesquieu.

In addition, the new Constitution gave each of these government branches several ways to “check” the other branches (known as the system of “**checks and balances**”) in order to ensure that no one branch became too powerful or tyrannical. Later, a **Bill of Rights** was added to the Constitution to include protections of individual liberties such as freedom of speech, press, assembly, and religion, as well as the rights of the accused.

Although the Constitution created a strong central government, it did not eliminate local governments. Instead, the Constitution established the practice of **federalism**, in which power would be divided between national and state governments.

The Constitution and Bill of Rights marked a turning point in people’s ideas about government. Both documents put Enlightenment ideas into practice. They expressed an optimistic view that reason and reform could prevail and that progress was inevitable. Such optimism would soon sweep across the Atlantic

(ISN) Interactive Student Notebook Assignments

1. Copied content specific questions

(ISN) Discussion and Study Questions

1. Guiding Questions

(ISN) Tech Activities

Technology assignment that makes them do something with a computer

Vocabulary

[Quizlet Flashcards Vocabulary for the American Revolution](#)

TABLE 11.1:

American Revolution	The war fought by American colonists for their independence from Great Britain between 1775 and 1781 that led to the formation of a new republican nation, the United States of America.
checks and balances	Measures designed to prevent any one branch of government from dominating the others.
constitutionalism	The idea that the authority of government derives from and is limited by a body of fundamental, written law.
Declaration of Independence	A document, authored by Thomas Jefferson and sent to George III of England that espouses the basic ideals of American democracy and lists the reasons for the American colonies’ break with Great Britain, precipitating the American Revolution.
democracy	A government controlled by its citizens, either directly or through representatives.
federalism	A system of government in which power is shared between two levels of government: national and state governments, whereby each of the state governments have powers independent of the national government.
human rights	Rights that all people are assumed to possess.
French & Indian War	(1754 - 1763) a war fought between Britain and France for control of territory in North America. After France’s defeat, it temporarily surrenders its North American territories, whereas British victory and the ensuing debt brought on by the war initiates Britain’s attempt to gain greater control over and to tax its American colonies. This war was part of the Seven Years War, which was the first World War.

TABLE 11.1: (continued)

Jefferson, Thomas	An American founding father, a leader of the Enlightenment, principal author of the Declaration of Independence, and third President of the United States (1801-1809).
liberty	The quality or state of being free.
"no taxation without representation"	The popular rallying cry of the American Revolution, reflecting the belief that if the American colonists were not permitted to vote for members of the English Parliament, then Parliament had not right to tax the colonists.
Paine, Thomas	An English-American political activist, leader of the Enlightenment, and author of the most influential pamphlet at the start of the American Revolution, Common Sense, in which he argued forcefully for the American colonists to break with Great Britain.
popular sovereignty	The belief that government is created by and subject to the will of the people - the belief that the citizens of a nation are in control of their own political destiny.
separation of powers	The practice of dividing political power between different parts or branches so as to curtail one part or branch from assuming absolute power.
U.S. Constitution	The written national law of the United States, adopted by the Constitutional convention held in Philadelphia in 1787. It replaced the Articles of Confederation, the first Constitution of the United States, that were approved during the American Revolution.
Washington, George	Commander-in-chief of the Continental army during the American Revolution and later elected first President of the United States of America after the adoption of the U.S. Constitution.

Internet Resources

11.2 The French Revolution

10.2 French Revolution

Student Learning Objectives

At the end of this section the student will be able to

- identify major causes and describe the major effects of the following important turning points in world history from 1750 to 1914: the Scientific Revolution, the Industrial Revolution and its impact on the development of modern economic systems, European imperialism, and the Enlightenment’s impact on political revolutions.[WHS.1E]
- compare the causes, characteristics, and consequences of the American and French revolutions, emphasizing the role of the Enlightenment, the Glorious Revolution, and religion.[WHS.9A]
- explain the impact of Napoleon Bonaparte and the Napoleonic Wars on Europe and Latin America.[WHS.9B]
- locate places and regions of historical significance directly related to major eras and turning points in world history.[WHS.16A]
- identify the impact of political and legal ideas contained in the following documents: Hammurabi’s Code, the Jewish Ten Commandments, Justinian’s Code of Laws, Magna Carta, the English Bill of Rights, the Declaration of Independence, the U.S. Constitution, and the Declaration of the Rights of Man and of the Citizen.[WHS.20B]
- describe how people have participated in supporting or changing their governments.[WHS.21A]
- describe the rights and responsibilities of citizens and noncitizens in civic participation throughout history.[WHS.21B]
- analyze information by sequencing, categorizing, identifying cause-and-effect relationships, comparing, contrasting, finding the main idea, summarizing, making generalizations and predictions, drawing inferences and conclusions, and developing connections between historical events over time.[WHS.29F]
- use social studies terminology correctly.[WHS.30A]
- use standard grammar, spelling, sentence structure, and punctuation.[WHS.30B]
- interpret and create written, oral, and visual presentations of social studies information.[WHS.30C]
- transfer information from one medium to another.[WHS.30D]

Only eight years after the end of the American Revolution, an even more significant and bloody revolution would break out in France. By the time the dust had settled, the French Revolution and the successive events it gave birth too would bring about significant changes to not only France, but to the rest of the European continent and beyond. The revolution and the events that soon followed would abolish serfdom and feudal privileges, create a uniform system of local government, lay the groundwork for a national education system, generate a new legal code, abolish slavery in the colonies, and establish a standardized metric system. The ideal, if not the practice, of constitutional government would be rooted in the French mind. Most importantly, the seeds of liberalism, constitutionalism, and democracy had been sewn. The most striking result of the Revolution in its own time was its violent disturbance of old orders; from Ireland to Poland, nothing would ever be the same again.

The Old Regime

Toward the end of the 18th century, years of feudal oppression and fiscal mismanagement contributed to a French society that was ripe for revolt. The **Old Regime** in France was the system of feudalism left over from the Middle Ages. It was divided into three classes or “estates.” The **First Estate** was the clergy, consisting of priests and Church

officials. It owned about 10% of the land in France and contributed about 2% of its income to the government. The **Second Estate** was the nobility. The nobles held many special privileges, such as being exempt from many taxes and having the right to collect feudal dues. Nobles also served as officers in the army and held high positions at court. Though the Second Estate only made up about 2% of the population it owned 20% of the land.

The **Third Estate**, was the largest of the three estates, making up about 98% of the French population. The three groups that made up this estate differed greatly in their economic conditions.

The first group – the bourgeoisie – were merchants and artisans. They were well-educated and believed strongly in the Enlightenment ideals of liberty and equality. Although some of the bourgeoisie were as rich as nobles, they paid high taxes and lacked privileges of the Second Estate. Many felt that their wealth entitled them to a greater degree of social status and political power.

The workers of France's cities – cooks, servants, and others – formed the second group within the Third Estate, a group poorer than the bourgeoisie. The poor of France's cities often went hungry. Most of Paris' poor people ate three pounds of bread a day and very little else. If the cost of bread rose, hungry mobs attacked carts of grain and bread to steal what they needed. In 1788, grain harvests were small. The price of bread doubled. Thus, the sans-culottes, as France's city workers were called, were in a dangerous mood in the spring of 1789.

Peasants formed the largest group within the Third Estate – more than 80% of France's 26 million people. Peasants paid about half their income in dues to nobles, tithes to the church, and taxes to the king's agents. They even paid taxes on such basic staples as salt. Peasants joined the urban poor in resenting the clergy and the nobles for their privileges and special treatment. Collectively, therefore, each of the heavily taxed and discontented groups within the Third Estate were eager for change.

Enlightenment ideas made many Frenchmen unwilling to accept the divine right of kings and the privileged position of the Church and nobility. The success of the American Revolution inspired them, and they discussed the radical ideas of Rousseau and Voltaire.

Against this backdrop, France's once prosperous economy was failing. The population was expanding rapidly, as were trade and production. However, the heavy burden of taxes made it impossible to conduct business profitably within France. The cost of living rose for everyone. In addition, bad weather in the 1780's caused widespread crop failures, resulting in a severe shortage of grain, and many people faced starvation.

During this period, France's government sank deeply into debt. Extravagant spending by the king and queen was part of the problem. Louis XVI, who became king in 1774, inherited part of the debt from his predecessors. He also borrowed heavily in order to help the American revolutionaries in their war against Great Britain—France's chief rival – thereby nearly doubling the government's debt. When bankers in 1786 refused to lend the government any more money, Louis faced serious problems.

Unfortunately, Louis XVI was a weak and indecisive leader who allowed matters to drift. He paid little attention to the details of governing and preferred to hunt and tinker with locks. His wife, Marie Antoinette was unpopular and became known as Madame Deficit because of her extravagant purchases of gowns, jewels and gifts. Rather than cutting expenses and increasing taxes, Louis put off dealing with the emergency until France faced bankruptcy.

The Estates-General

In an act of desperation, Louis XVI decided in 1789 to convene the Estates-General, an ancient assembly consisting of three different estates that each represented a portion of the French population. If the Estates-General could agree on a tax solution, it would be implemented. However, since two of the three estates—the clergy and the nobility—were tax-exempt, the attainment of any such solution was unlikely.

Moreover, the outdated rules of order for the Estates-General gave each estate a single vote, despite the fact that the Third Estate—consisting of the general French public—was many times larger than either of the first two. Feuds quickly broke out over this disparity and would prove to be irreconcilable. Realizing that its numbers gave it an automatic advantage, the Third Estate declared itself the sovereign **National Assembly**. Within days of the



FIGURE 11.5

The Three Estates of France: “You should hope that this game will be over soon.” The Third Estate carrying the Clergy and the Nobility on its back

announcement, many members of the other two estates had switched allegiances over to this revolutionary new assembly.

The Bastille and the Great Fear

Shortly after the National Assembly formed, its members took the **Tennis Court Oath**, swearing that they would not relent in their efforts until a new constitution had been agreed upon. The National Assembly’s revolutionary spirit galvanized France, manifesting in a number of different ways. In Paris, citizens stormed the city’s largest prison, **the Bastille**, in pursuit of arms. In the countryside, peasants and farmers revolted against their feudal contracts by attacking the manors and estates of their landlords. Dubbed the “**Great Fear**,” these rural attacks continued until the early August issuing of the August Decrees, which freed those peasants from their oppressive contracts. Shortly thereafter, the assembly released the **Declaration of the Rights of Man and of the Citizen**, which established a proper judicial code and the autonomy of the French people. Reflecting the influence of Enlightenment ideas and of the Declaration of Independence, the document states that “men are born and remain free and equal in rights” and that “the aim of all political association is the preservation of the natural. . .rights of man. These rights are liberty, property, security, and resistance to oppression.” Other articles of the famous document guaranteed citizens equal justice, freedom of speech, and freedom of religion. “**Liberty, Equality, Fraternity**” became the slogan of the Revolution.

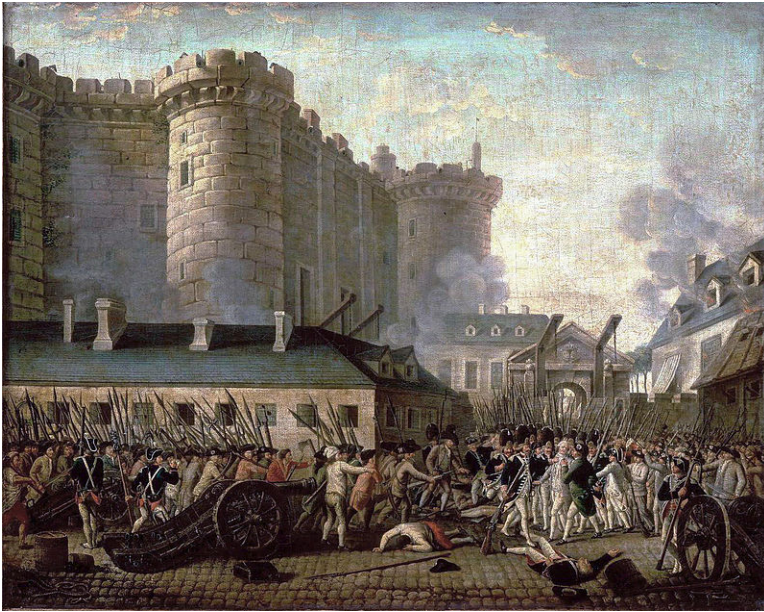
**FIGURE 11.6**

Antoine-François Callet: Louis XVI

Rifts in the Assembly

Though the National Assembly did succeed in drafting a constitution, the relative peace of the moment was short-lived. A rift slowly grew between the radical and moderate assembly members, while the common laborers and workers began to feel overlooked. Meanwhile, Louis and his family tried to escape from France to the Austrian Netherlands but were caught. Returned to Paris under armed guard, Louis' attempted escape only served to increase the influence of his radical enemies, sealing his own doom. The assembly became especially divided. The moderate **Girondins** took a stance in favor of retaining the constitutional monarchy, while the radical **Jacobins** wanted the king completely out of the picture.

Outside of France, some neighboring countries feared that France's revolutionary spirit would spread beyond French land. In response, they issued the Declaration of Pillnitz, which insisted that the French return Louis XVI to the throne. French leaders interpreted the declaration as hostile, so the Girondin-led assembly declared war on Austria and Prussia.

**FIGURE 11.7**

The Storming of the Bastille, July 14, 1789

The Reign of Terror

The first acts of the newly named **National Convention** were the abolition of the monarchy and the declaration of France as a republic. In January 1793, the convention tried and executed Louis XVI on the grounds of treason. Despite the creation of the **Committee of Public Safety**, the war with Austria and Prussia went poorly for France, and foreign forces pressed on into French territory. Enraged citizens overthrew the Girondin-led National Convention, and the Jacobins, led by **Maximilien Robespierre**, took control.

Backed by the newly approved Constitution of 1793, Robespierre and the Committee of Public Safety began conscripting French soldiers and implementing laws to stabilize the economy. For a time, it seemed that France's fortunes might be changing. But Robespierre, growing increasingly paranoid about counterrevolutionary influences, embarked upon a Reign of Terror in late 1793–1794, during which he had more than 15,000 people executed at the guillotine. When the French army successfully removed foreign invaders and the economy finally stabilized, however, Robespierre no longer had any justification for his extreme actions, and he himself was arrested in July 1794 and executed.

The Thermidorian Reaction and the Directory

The era following the ousting of Robespierre was known as the **Thermidorian Reaction**, and a period of governmental restructuring began, leading to the new Constitution of 1795 and a significantly more conservative National Convention. To control executive responsibilities and appointments, a group known as **the Directory** was formed. Though it had no legislative abilities, the Directory's abuse of power soon came to rival that of any of the tyrannous revolutionaries France had faced.

Napoleon

Meanwhile, the Committee of Public Safety's war effort was realizing unimaginable success. French armies, especially those led by young general **Napoleon Bonaparte**, were making progress in nearly every direction. Napoleon's forces drove through Italy and reached as far as Egypt before facing a deflating defeat. In the face of this rout, and having received word of political upheavals in France, Napoleon returned to Paris. He arrived in time

to lead a coup against the Directory in 1799, eventually stepping up and naming himself “first consul”—effectively, the leader of France. With Napoleon at the helm, the Revolution ended, and France entered a fifteen-year period of military rule.

Napoleon worked to restore stability to post-revolutionary France. He centralized the government; instituted reforms in such areas as banking and education; supported science and the arts; and sought to improve relations between his regime and the pope (who represented France’s main religion, Catholicism), which had suffered during the revolution. One of his most significant accomplishments was the **Napoleonic Code**, which streamlined the French legal system and continues to form the foundation of French civil law to this day.

In 1802, a constitutional amendment made Napoleon first consul for life. Two years later, in 1804, he crowned himself emperor of France in a lavish ceremony at the Cathedral of Notre Dame in Paris.

From 1803 to 1815, France was engaged in the **Napoleonic Wars**, a series of major conflicts with various coalitions of European nations. In 1803, partly as a means to raise funds for future wars, Napoleon sold France’s Louisiana Territory in North America to the newly independent United States for \$15 million, a transaction that later became known as the **Louisiana Purchase**.

In October 1805, the British wiped out Napoleon’s fleet at the Battle of Trafalgar. However, in December of that same year, Napoleon achieved what is considered to be one of his greatest victories at the Battle of Austerlitz, in which his army defeated the Austrians and Russians. The victory resulted in the dissolution of the Holy Roman Empire and the creation of the Confederation of the Rhine.

Beginning in 1806, Napoleon sought to wage large-scale economic warfare against Britain with the establishment of the so-called **Continental System** of European port blockades against British trade. In 1807, following Napoleon’s defeat of the Russians at Friedland in Prussia, Alexander I (1777-1825) was forced to sign a peace settlement, the Treaty of Tilsit. In 1809, the French defeated the Austrians at the Battle of Wagram, resulting in further gains for Napoleon.

During these years, Napoleon reestablished a French aristocracy (eliminated in the French Revolution) and began handing out titles of nobility to his loyal friends and family as his empire continued to expand across much of western and central continental Europe.



MEDIA

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Napoleon’s Downfall and First Abdication

In 1810, Russia withdrew from the Continental System. In retaliation, Napoleon led a massive army into Russia in the summer of 1812. Rather than engaging the French in a full-scale battle, the Russians adopted a “**scorched-earth**” strategy of retreating whenever Napoleon’s forces attempted to attack. As a result, Napoleon’s troops trekked deeper into Russia despite being ill-prepared for an extended campaign. In September, both sides suffered heavy casualties in the indecisive Battle of Borodino. Napoleon’s forces marched on to Moscow, only to discover almost the entire population evacuated. Retreating Russians set fires across the city in an effort to deprive enemy troops of supplies. After waiting a month for a surrender that never came, Napoleon, faced with the onset of the Russian winter, was forced to order his starving, exhausted army out of Moscow. During the disastrous retreat, his army suffered continual harassment from a suddenly aggressive and merciless Russian army. Of Napoleon’s 600,000 troops who began the campaign, only an estimated 100,000 made it out of Russia.

At the same time as the catastrophic Russian invasion, French forces were engaged in the **Peninsular War** (1808-

1814), brought about by Napoleon's attempt to put his brother which resulted in the Spanish and Portuguese, with assistance from the British, driving the French from the Iberian Peninsula. This loss was followed in 1813 by the Battle of Leipzig, also known as the Battle of Nations, in which Napoleon's forces were defeated by a coalition that included Austrian, Prussian, Russian and Swedish troops. Napoleon then retreated to France, and in March 1814 coalition forces captured Paris.

On April 6, 1814, Napoleon, then in his mid-40s, was forced to abdicate the throne. With the Treaty of Fontainebleau, he was exiled to Elba, a Mediterranean island off the coast of Italy. He was given sovereignty over the small island, while his wife and son went to Austria.

Hundred Days Campaign and Battle of Waterloo

On February 26, 1815, after less than a year in exile, Napoleon escaped Elba and sailed to the French mainland with a group of more than 1,000 supporters. On March 20, he returned to Paris, where he was welcomed by cheering crowds. The new king, Louis XVIII (1755-1824), fled, and Napoleon began what came to be known as his Hundred Days campaign.

Upon Napoleon's return to France, a coalition of allies—the Austrians, British, Prussians and Russians—who considered the French emperor an enemy began to prepare for war. Napoleon raised a new army and planned to strike preemptively, defeating the allied forces one by one before they could launch a united attack against him.

In June 1815, his forces invaded Belgium, where British and Prussian troops were stationed. On June 16, Napoleon's troops defeated the Prussians at the Battle of Ligny. However, two days later, on June 18, at the **Battle of Waterloo** near Brussels, the French were crushed by the British, with assistance from the Prussians. On June 22, 1815, Napoleon was once again forced to abdicate. In October 1815, Napoleon was exiled to the remote, British-held island of Saint Helena, in the South Atlantic Ocean. He died there on May 5, 1821, at age 51, most likely from stomach cancer.

Without a doubt, Napoleon was a military genius and a brilliant administrator. Yet all his victories must be measured against the millions of lives that were lost in his wars. Of his many achievements, only his law code and some of his reforms in France's government proved lasting – and they were not won on the battlefield. A later French statesman and writer, Alexis de Tocqueville, summed up Napoleon's character by saying, "he was as great as a man can be without virtue." Napoleon's defeat opened the door for the freed European countries to establish a new order.

The Congress of Vienna

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

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

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

The French Revolution had ignited the spirit of **nationalism** throughout much of Europe by teaching that each government should be based on the will of the people. Nationalism is the belief that each nationality or ethnic group is entitled to its own government and national homeland. Napoleon's conquests also inspired nationalist resentment

against the French. Despite the stirrings of nationalism, the statesmen at the Congress of Vienna failed to take into account the desire of many people to control their own governments. Instead, they favored maintaining traditional rulers. As a result, many European peoples were still not united, while other continued to live under foreign rule.

Comparing the American and French Revolutions

In some ways the French Revolution was remarkably similar to the American. Both revolutions applied principles of the Enlightenment; both swept away traditional systems; both followed similar-stage courses, moving from moderate to radical before a final conservative swing; and both helped set in motion modern constitutional government, along with democracy and nationalism. There were, however, striking differences. Unlike the American colonies, France had a classic Old Regime, with aristocratic privilege and monarchy. Instead of being far removed from the centers of civilization, it was the most populous and cultured state of Western Europe. Its revolution, therefore, was more violent and more decisive.

The French Revolution, as evidenced by the Napoleonic dictatorship which it produced, was an immediate failure; for France at the turn of the nineteenth century, had secured neither liberty, nor equality, nor fraternity. Except for certain prosperous members of the middle classes, the French economy promised less for most people in 1796 than it had two decades earlier. Most discouraging was the realization that the Revolution had betrayed its own ideals, leaving the French people cynical and disillusioned.

The Revolution, nevertheless, had brought great changes. It had abolished serfdom and feudal privileges, created a uniform system of local government, laid the groundwork for a national education system, started legal reforms that would culminate in the great Napoleonic Code, abolished slavery in the colonies, and established the standardized metric system. The ideal, if not the practice, of constitutional government had been rooted in the French mind. Moreover, French armies, even before 1800, had scattered abroad the seeds of liberalism, constitutionalism, and even democracy. The most striking result of the Revolution in its own time was its violent disturbance of old orders; from Ireland to Poland, nothing would ever be the same again. The effects of the French Revolution would also soon be felt in the Americas.

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Vocabulary

[Quizlet Flashcards Vocabulary for the French Revolution](#)

TABLE 11.2:

balance of power	A political situation in which no one nation is powerful enough to pose a threat to others.
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TABLE 11.2: (continued)

Bonaparte, Napoleon	A French military and political leader who rose to prominence during the latter stages of the French Revolution and eventually crowned Emperor in 1804. His legal reform, the Napoleonic Code, has been a major influence on civil law worldwide. He is regarded as one of the greatest military commanders of all time for his role in the wars led against France by a series of coalitions, the so-called Napoleonic Wars. Before his final defeat in 1815, he had taken control of most of continental Europe, seeking to expand the French empire spread the ideals of the French Revolution.
Committee of Public Safety	A committee lead by Robespierre during the French Revolution that was responsible for identifying those considered enemies of the revolution and bringing them to "justice." It became an important tool used by Robespierre to maintain political power during the Reign of Terror.
Congress of Vienna	A series of meetings in 1814-1815 during which European leaders sought to establish long-lasting peace and security after the defeat of Napoleon by returning overthrown monarchs to their thrones and establishing a European balance of power.
Declaration of the Rights of Man	A statement of Revolutionary ideals adopted by France's National Assembly in 1789 during the early days of the French Revolution. It maintained that "all men are born free and equal in rights."
Estates General	An assembly of representative from all three of the estates, or social classes, in pre-revolutionary France.
French Revolution	The political, social, and military turmoil experienced in France between 1789 and 1799 that led to the overthrow of the monarchy, ended hereditary privilege, and made France more democratic.
"liberty, equality, fraternity"	The common slogan of the French Revolution, based upon the ideals expressed in the Declaration of the Rights of Man.
Louis XVI	The French king who, after being tried and found guilty of treason during the radical Jacobin phase of the Revolution, was put to death by the guillotine during the French Revolution.
National Assembly	A French congress established by representative of the Third Estate in 1789 during the French Revolution to enact laws and reforms in the name of the French people.
nationalism	The belief that peoples' main loyalty should be to their nation and to the people whom they share a common culture and history, rather than to a king or queen.

TABLE 11.2: (continued)

Reign of Terror	A period of time during the French Revolution when Maximilien Robespierre ruled France nearly as a dictator and thousands of political figures and ordinary citizens were executed, the guillotine being a common method of execution.
Robespierre, Maximilien	A radical Jacobin leader during the French Revolution. He came to dominate the Committee of Public Safety during the Reign of Terror. His abuse of power eventually led to his downfall; he was overthrown in 1794 and executed during the Thermidorian Reaction.
Storming of the Bastille	An important symbolic event taking place in the early days of the French Revolution in which ordinary citizens stormed and took control of the Bastille, a Paris prison used to contain political prisoners, in an attempt to obtain the gunpowder contained there. The date of the event, July 14, would eventually be enshrined as a French national holiday, similar to the 4th of July celebrated in the U.S.

Internet Resources

11.3 Latin America Gains its Independence

10.3 Latin American Independence

Student Learning Objectives

At the end of this section the student will be able to

- explain the impact of Napoleon Bonaparte and the Napoleonic Wars on Europe and Latin America.[WHS.9B]
- trace the influence of the American and French revolutions on Latin America, including the role of Simón Bolívar.[WHS.9C]
- identify examples of key persons who were successful in shifting political thought, including William Wilberforce.[WHS.21C]
- analyze information by sequencing, categorizing, identifying cause-and-effect relationships, comparing, contrasting, finding the main idea, summarizing, making generalizations and predictions, drawing inferences and conclusions, and developing connections between historical events over time.[WHS.29F]
- use social studies terminology correctly.[WHS.30A]
- use standard grammar, spelling, sentence structure, and punctuation.[WHS.30B]
- interpret and create written, oral, and visual presentations of social studies information.[WHS.30C]
- transfer information from one medium to another.[WHS.30D]

One of the most far-reaching effects of the American and French Revolutions was that they inspired independence movements in Latin America. A growing spirit of nationalism and the French ideals of liberty, equality, and fraternity inspired many Latin Americans to rise up against their French, Spanish, and Portuguese masters. Though most all of Latin America would win independence from colonial rule, it would actually bring an increase in poverty, and the dream of a united Latin America would quickly fall apart.

Latin American Society

The term *Latin America* applies to the lands south of the United States where Spanish, Portuguese, and French are spoken. All these languages developed from Latin. The region includes Mexico, Central America, South America, and islands of the Caribbean.

On the surface, the Latin American revolutions of the early 1800's appear similar to the American Revolution. In every case, revolutionaries over-threw a government controlled by a European country. The leaders of the revolution then set up a new national government.

However, there were important differences between conditions in Latin America and in the United States. In Latin America, colonial society was sharply divided into classes based on birth. Struggles among these classes played an important part in the revolutions.

At the top of Latin American society were the **peninsulares**, people who had been born in Spain or Portugal. They held the most important positions in colonial government and in the Roman Catholic Church.

Creoles ranked next after the peninsulares. Creoles were people who were born in Latin America but whose ancestors came from Europe. This class included many wealthy landowners and lesser government officials. The peninsulares and the creoles formed an aristocracy in Latin American society. Together, they made up less than one fifth of the population.

Below the peninsulares and creoles ranked the common people who had few political rights and little share in the region's wealth. The common people included mestizos, mulattoes, blacks, and Indians. Mestizos were people of mixed European and Indian ancestry. Mulattoes were of European and African ancestry. Some mestizos and mulattoes owned small farms or businesses. Most rented small farms from landlords. Most blacks worked as slaves on large plantations, although there were free blacks in many Latin American towns. Lowest ranking of all were the millions of Indians. They were legally free, but they were usually treated no better than slaves.

A Revolution in Haiti

The first colony to free itself from European rule was the French colony of Saint Domingue, on the island of Hispaniola. Almost all of the people who lived in the colony were slaves of African origin. In 1791, about 100,000 of them rose in revolt. **Toussaint L'Ouverture**, an ex slave, soon emerged as a leader. By 1801, he had moved to the eastern part of the island and freed the slaves there. In 1804, the former colony declared itself the independent country of **Haiti**.

South American Independence

Elsewhere in Latin America, creoles took the lead in battle for independence. The creoles had a number of long-standing grievances against Spain. Peninsulares held almost all the high government offices in Spain's Latin American lands and kept tight control over the economy of its colonies. Merchants in Spanish colonies could trade only with Spain and sent their goods only on Spanish ships. The valuable mines of Mexico and Peru were under direct Spanish control, which the creoles resented.

The direct cause of the Latin American revolts, however, was Napoleon's conquest of Spain in 1808, after which Napoleon made his brother, Joseph, king of Spain. Many creoles might have remained loyal to a Spanish king, but they felt no loyalty at all to a Frenchman placed on the Spanish throne by force.

Fighting broke out in 1810 in several parts of Latin America. The wars for independence were complicated and confusing. Loyalties were divided. The viceroys and their armies remained loyal to Spain, as did some creoles. Indians and mestizos fought on both sides, often forced into armies against their will.

Two leaders pushed much of South America to independence. **Simon Bolivar** was a writer, fighter, and political thinker. He survived defeats and exile to win independence for Venezuela in 1821. **Jose de San Martin** helped win independence for Argentina in 1816 and Chile in 1818. Bolivar led their combined armies to a great victory in 1824 that gave independence to all the former Spanish colonies.

Bolivar declared Venezuela's independence from Spain in 1811, but the struggle seesawed back and forth, but the turning point came in 1819. Bolivar built up an army from many sources. He promised to end slavery, winning many black volunteers. Other volunteers came from Europe. In January 1819, Bolivar led his 2,500 soldiers on a daring march through the towering Andes into what is now Columbia. Coming from this unexpected direction, he took the Spanish army completely by surprise in Bogota and defeated them.

Bolivar went on to free Venezuela in 1821. Next, he marched south into Ecuador. In the coastal city of Guayaquil, he met with the other great hero of the independence movement, San Martin. While Bolivar was freeing the northern part of South America, San Martin freed the south. After declaring Argentina's independence in 1816, his army freed Chile in 1817 after a grueling march across the Andes. Next, San Martin took his army north by sea to Lima, Peru, in 1821. The Spanish army retreated into the mountains of Peru. To drive them out, San Martin needed a much larger force. Otherwise, the Spaniards would remain a threat to all of independent South America. This was the problem that faced San Martin and Bolivar when they met at Guayaquil.

No one knows how the two men reached an agreement. But San Martin left his army for Bolivar to command. Soon after, San Martin sailed for Europe. He died, almost forgotten, on French soil in 1850.

Bolivar followed the Spaniards into the heights of the Andes. His forces defeated the Spanish army at the Battle of

Ayacucho in 1824. This was the last major battle of the war for independence.

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

Mexican Independence

In most Latin American countries, creoles led the revolutionary movements. In Mexico, ethnic and racial groups mixed more freely. There, Indians and mestizos played the leading role. Also, whereas in most Latin American countries the revolution began in the cities, in Mexico it began in the countryside.

On September 16, 1810, **Father Miguel Hidalgo**, a priest from the mountain village of Dolores, called on Indian peasants of his parish to rebel against their Spanish masters. Today, that call is known as the *grito de Dolores* (the cry of Dolores). He began a 200 mile march toward Mexico City, armed with sickles, stones, and clubs, picking up thousands of new recruits and weapons along the way. Creole landlords fled for their lives. Soon Hidalgo had a force of 60,000 men behind him. He declared an end to slavery and called for other reforms.

At Mexico City, however, the main Spanish army and the creoles joined forces against Hidalgo's army. Hidalgo was betrayed by one of his officers, captured, and executed by a firing squad.

The rebels found another strong leader in Jose Maria Morelos, who proved to be a far better general than Hidalgo had been. By 1813, Morelos' army controlled all of Mexico except for the largest cities. A Mexican congress, called by Morelos, declared Mexico an independent republic in 1813. Morelos wanted to set up a democratic government, tax the wealthy, and distribute lands to the peasants.

Many creoles supported the idea of independence, but they were not willing to accept Morelos' social reforms. A creole officer, Augustin de Iturbide, captured and executed Morelos in 1815. A few scattered groups of rebels fought on as guerrillas.

Suddenly, events took a new turn. In 1820, a revolution in Spain put a new group in power. Mexico's creoles feared that this Spanish government would take away their privileges. At once, the creoles united in support of independence. The very man who had killed Morelos, Iturbide, made peace with the last guerrilla leader. Then Iturbide proclaimed Mexico independent in 1821. Iturbide later made himself emperor, but he was soon ousted. When he tried to return to power in 1824, he was shot.

Caudillos Dominate Governments

By 1830, Latin America was home to 16 independent countries, but the citizens of these new countries had few political freedoms. All the countries were dominated by a small group of wealthy creole aristocrats. Army leaders had come to power during the long struggle with Spain, and they continued to control Latin America after independence. By 1830, nearly all the countries of Latin America were run by **caudillos**. Caudillos were political strongmen, usually army officers, who ruled as dictators. Many caudillos cared only for their own power and wealth. They did little to improve the lives of the common people. Changes of government most often took place at bayonet-point, as one caudillo was forced to give way to another.

Throughout Latin America, independence actually brought an increase in poverty, as turmoil continued in the region. The wars had disrupted trade and devastated cities and countryside. After all the destruction, the dream of a united Latin America quickly fell apart. In South America, Bolivar's united Gran Colombia divided into Colombia, Ecuador, and Venezuela in early 1830. And by 1841, the United Provinces of Central America had split into the republics of El Salvador, Nicaragua, Costa Rica, Guatemala, and Honduras.

The Monroe Doctrine

In one way, Latin America was luckier than other nonindustrial parts of the world. Despite the political confusion, Latin America was never again carved into colonies as Africa and Asia were in the late 1800's. Having won independence, Latin America succeeded in keeping it.

Spain, however, had not given up hope of winning back its colonies. France too saw a chance to take over land in Latin America. Both Britain and the United States, however, were determined not to allow such a development.

In 1823, U.S. President James Monroe announced “the American continents . . . Are henceforth not to be considered as subjects for future colonization by any European powers.” This statement is known as the **Monroe Doctrine**. Alone, the United States was not strong enough to enforce the Monroe Doctrine. However, Great Britain also wanted to protect Latin American independence for economic reasons. During the wars for independence, many Latin American countries began trading with Britain rather than with Spain. British banks and businesses invested heavily in South America, especially in Argentina and Brazil.

Britain's only real economic rival in Latin America was the United States. However, most United States' exports in the early 1800's came from the farm rather than the factory. Thus, there was little direct competition between the United States and Great Britain. Both countries were happy with the economic advantages they gained by Latin American independence.

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Vocabulary

[Quizlet Flashcards Vocabulary for Latin American Independence](#)

TABLE 11.3:

caudillos	Latin American dictators who ruled by military force in defiance of national policies.
Bolivar, Simon	A Venezuelan creole general who led South American armies against Spanish forces in the early 19th century in a bid for independence. Venezuela, Columbia, Ecuador, Peru and Bolivia would all gain their independence due in part to his military leadership.
Hidalgo, Miguel	A Mexican priest who, believing in enlightened ideals of government, called for a rebellion against Spanish control of Mexico. He led an unruly army of Indian and mestizo men numbering 60,000 toward Mexico city before facing defeat and execution.

TABLE 11.3: (continued)

L'Ouverture, Toussaint	The leader of the Haitian Revolution in 1791 in which he led an uprising of African slaves to force the French out of Haiti, thus making Haiti the first Latin American colony to gain independence.
Monroe Doctrine	A U.S. policy of opposition to European interference in Latin American, announced in 1823 by a U.S. president.
Wilberforce, William	An English reformer who led the parliamentary campaign against the British slave trade for twenty-six years until the passage of the Slave Trade Act of 1807. This act abolished the slave trade in the British Empire (though not slavery itself).

Internet Resources

10.3 Latin American Independence

Student Learning Objectives

At the end of this section the student will be able to

Identify methods used by archaeologists, anthropologists, historians, and geographers to analyze evidence. [29.A]

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Internet Resources

- The "Revolutions of Liberty", refer to revolutions of the 18th century, in which liberty, fraternity, life, ownership of property, and the pursuit happiness were ideals that united the people and inspired them fight for the cause.
- The revolutions illustrate the diffusion of cultural and political thought as the idea was born out of the English Civil War and the Glorious Revolution. This ideas spread to North America, back to Europe, then back across the Atlantic Ocean into Latin America. All expressing many of the same ideals.
- Revolutions should be analyzed through comparisons: such as comparing structures in SPICES, Stages-Reform, Radical and Reactionary
- The ideas in these Revolutions will be revisited in the Nationalist and Self-Rule Movements of the 20th century.

11.4 References

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CHAPTER 12 Chapter Eleven: Industrial Revolution

Chapter Outline

- 12.1 ECONOMIC SYSTEMS
 - 12.2 INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION
 - 12.3 REFERENCES
-

Mercantilism had been the preferred economic system of absolute monarchs in the newly formed nation-states. As the conditions that set the stage for the Industrial Revolution began to unfold new thoughts provoked by the enlightenment allowed for new economic systems to emerge.

Ideas presented by Adam Smith in the *Wealth of Nations* allowed for nations, groups, and individuals to specialize their production of goods. Ultimately, free enterprise, capitalism, and free market economies were born. The division of labor, the need for unskilled workers, and the innovators/inventors created a whole new way of manufacturing goods.

The impact was enormous, people began to move to the cities to find new opportunities, a middle class was born, and goods that had once been luxuries were now mass marketed. The factors that pushed the revolution were the enclosure movement, advances in agriculture, access to coal and iron, and the commercial revolution.

The textile industry and the innovation of the steam engine created an explosion of creativity which led to inventions such as the spinning jenny, factories, railroads, steamboats, interchangeable parts, electricity and the telegraph. However, not all was well during the Industrialization Revolution; crime, overcrowding, pollution, unsanitary working and living conditions, long work hours, loss of skilled workers, and child labor.

Karl Marx and Fredric Engels noticed these unsafe conditions and described them in the *Communist Manifesto*. They discussed the gap between business owners (bourgeoisie) and the working class (proletariat). Thus socialism and communism were born. Marx believed the workers across the world would unite and overthrow the bourgeoisie and the corrupt institutions of government and religion.

12.1 Economic Systems

11.1 Economic Systems

Student Learning Objectives

At the end of this section the student will be able to

- summarize the role of economics in driving political changes as related to the Neolithic Revolution and the Industrial Revolution.[WHS.17B]
- identify the historical origins and characteristics of the free enterprise system, including the contributions of Adam Smith, especially the influence of his ideas found in *The Wealth of Nations*. [WHS.18A]
- identify the historical origins and characteristics of communism, including the influences of Karl Marx. [WHS.18B]
- identify the historical origins and characteristics of socialism. [WHS.18C]
- analyze information by sequencing, categorizing, identifying cause-and-effect relationships, comparing, contrasting, finding the main idea, summarizing, making generalizations and predictions, drawing inferences and conclusions, and developing connections between historical events over time. [WHS.29F]
- use social studies terminology correctly. [WHS.30A]
- use standard grammar, spelling, sentence structure, and punctuation. [WHS.30B]
- interpret and create written, oral, and visual presentations of social studies information. [WHS.30C]
- transfer information from one medium to another. [WHS.30D]

Adam Smith's *The Wealth of Nations*

Before the Industrial Revolution, the economic theory of the psychology of limited wealth held that there was not enough wealth to go around for either individuals or nations and that therefore each nation accumulated as much wealth as possible. By allowing the production of surplus goods to sell, the Industrial Revolution brought changes to this thinking—now wealth could be seen as a resource to be created.

Scottish philosopher and political economist Adam Smith offered a theoretical explanation of this view. In his work *The Wealth of Nations* (1776), Smith describes the "natural laws" of wealth. One of his most important ideas was that of the "invisible hand," an unseen regulating force leading people to act in their own economic interests and also benefiting their nation's economic interest. For Smith, supply and demand regulates an economy, and economic transactions occur through mutual benefit to sellers and buyers.

Viewing government regulation and interference in business and economics as unnecessary and even harmful, Smith encourages a *laissez-faire* (hands-off) approach. Smith also explains that wealth is not dependent on a fixed amount of gold or silver but rather is created by increased economic activity, with a nation's wealth resulting from its people's labor and willingness to exchange goods and services. Combined with the changes brought by new industrial power, Smith's ideas would have a profound impact on European economic development during the 19th century.

Smith also speaks of transactions of mutual benefit. In other words, Smith basically maintains that the value of something, the nature of supply and demand, is the product of millions of transactions a day based on mutual benefit. If you go and buy a loaf of bread from a baker for one dollar, the baker sees it as beneficial to sell you the bread in return for the dollar, and so that is in his self interest. You see it as beneficial to exchange the dollar in return for the bread—that is in your self interest. Based on this mutual self interest inherent in the transaction, the value of bread is established based on the number of people that see it as in their interest to exchange a certain amount of money for a certain amount of bread. If indeed people decide that they are not willing to exchange money for bread,

**FIGURE 12.1**

Adam Smith, 18th-century Scottish economist

then people will not buy bread and the price of bread will go down as bakers reduce the price to make the purchase of bread in the self interest of those people who buy it.

Smith says that government regulation of prices or economics is not necessary—natural law will do just fine. Smith’s notion of the invisible hand and of economic natural law is very important to the notion of laissez-faire economics. Literally, hands-off economics is the idea that economics should be carried out in the absence of government interference. Combined with the Industrial Revolution, laissez-faire economics, on the one hand, can lead to great economic growth in the 19th century. On the other hand, it can also lead to some real abuses because 19th-century industrialists, using Smith’s notion of laissez-faire economics, resist any form of government regulation. And so you have factories with very bad working conditions, you have factories using child labor, and you have wages reaching their lowest possible level as human labor is treated as a commodity that can be paid for with the least amount of money possible. So it is no accident that over the course of the 19th century, Smith’s laissez-faire economics is to a certain extent tempered by government regulation. Smith himself writes that economics should be regulated by natural law but the principles of morals should play a role.

One of the other aspects of Smith’s work that is very important in conjunction with the Industrial Revolution is his notion that wealth can be created by increasing the total amount of economic activity. In other words, wealth is not limited in terms of a set amount of product being created or in terms of a set amount of gold or silver existing.

Wealth is the product of people working and being willing to exchange the products of their work for other people's product. And so Smith lays the theoretical foundation for the notion of a growth economy—the idea that wealth can be created by increased economic activity. If you combine Smith's notion of economic natural law with the incredible productive capacity made possible by industrial machinery, you create the situation for the dramatic growth economy of Europe in the 19th century.

Europe in the 19th century, by combining the potential of industry with modern economics, modern notions of credit, and modern banking systems produces the economic basis for a tremendous increase in production, wealth, and power. And while not everyone shares in that wealth initially—it takes Europe fully a century to devise social systems to allow for more equal sharing of wealth—the fact is, that this combination of economic theory and industrial power lays the groundwork for the domination of the world by Europe over the course of the 19th century.

Capitalism

Capitalism is an economic system in which most means of production are privately owned, and goods, services, and income are distributed through markets. Capitalism is also called free-market or free-enterprise economy. Under *laissez-faire* capitalism, the state is separated from the economy just as it is from religion. Proponents of capitalism believe that it can create social harmony through every individual's pursuit of self-interest. Theoretically, in allowing people and businesses to act unhampered by government regulations, capitalism causes wealth to be created in the most efficient manner possible, which ultimately raises the standard of living, increases economic opportunities, and makes available an ever-growing supply of products for everyone. In other words, as one person creates wealth for himself or herself, that person simultaneously creates wealth and opportunities for everyone else as the rich become richer, the poor become richer too. Detractors of capitalism contend that it exploits a large portion of society for the sake of a small minority of wealthy individuals. Supporters counter that a properly functioning capitalist system actually prevents exploitation and that in fact, government regulation of labor is what causes problems; it prevents individuals from living for their own sake. There should be no worker exploitation in a purely capitalist society, capitalists argue, because all workers are free to choose their employers. (It should be noted, however, that supporters of capitalism do not consider a job that does not completely satisfy a worker to be "exploitation"; in capitalist theory, exploitation only occurs when someone is physically forced to work against his or her will.) Moreover, in a capitalist regime, because employers are competing for workers, it is in the economic self-interest of employers to provide higher wages and better working conditions for their employees, lest they lose them to a competitor. In a properly functioning free market, all businesses are competing with one another for profit, which should prevent any one of them from gaining power over the entire field. Only a business that was vastly better than its competition could win a monopoly for itself, and that would be an acceptable result of superior business skills. According to economist Adam Smith and other supporters of capitalism, coercive monopolies can only occur when the government grants special treatment to one business in the form of franchises, subsidies, or tariffs. One of capitalists' main criticisms of socialism is that the government controls all means of production and thus creates the ultimate form of monopoly. Individual rights must always be upheld in order for capitalism to function effectively; that means that the majority must not be able to violate the rights of the minority. A constitutionally limited democracy, like that of the United States, is fairly effective at keeping a capitalist economic system working smoothly. Systems of government that concentrate power in the state at the expense of individual freedom, including communism, socialism, and fascism, are incompatible with *laissez-faire* capitalism. The origins of capitalism can be found in Europe in the 16th and 17th centuries. Before that time, any excess profits made by a manufacturer generally went toward such activities as the building of cathedrals; the Catholic Church discouraged too much pursuit of worldly wealth and tried to get people to spend money on spiritual enrichment instead. With the rise of Protestantism, however, hard work and wealth came to be seen as a worldly manifestation of God's blessing. During the 16th through 18th centuries, the English cloth industry began following capitalist tendencies; manufacturers began taking their profits and investing them in their production facilities in the hope of making even greater profits in the future. Also around that time, Europe's supply of precious metals like silver and gold was increasing, which meant an inflation of prices. Wages did not keep pace with inflation, and capitalist manufacturers benefited from that gap by increasing their profit margins. In addition, the rise of strong national states helped

capitalism by implementing such social constructs as uniform monetary systems and legal codes, which made it possible for private entrepreneurs to function profitably and safely. The Industrial Revolution of the 18th and 19th centuries changed the focus of capitalism from commerce to industry. Political liberalism of the time supported free trade, the gold standard, balanced budgets, and little poor relief. The social philosopher Adam Smith wrote the first major work on capitalist political economy, *An Inquiry into the Nature and Causes of the Wealth of Nations*, in 1776. Smith posited that societies progress through four stages: the original stage of hunters, a period of nomadic agriculture, a time of feudal farming, and a final stage of commercial interdependence. Each stage is accompanied by institutions that meet its needs: there is little need for civil government in the earlier stages, which don't involve private property, but the later ones need methods to protect the rich from the poor. Smith thought that the final stage should leave economic determinations to the market rather than let the government regulate the economy. That system, laissez-faire capitalism, was Smith's idea of perfect liberty. According to Smith, laissez-faire capitalism would function in an orderly manner through the protective mechanism of competition, which prevents people from following their passions and desires exclusively. Capitalism requires that individuals act in their own interest, but if everyone does that at the same time, the system will remain more or less in equilibrium. Many people competing with one another for betterment results in an "invisible hand" that regulates the economy such that the prices of commodities stay at their "natural" level, corresponding to the costs of their production. Wages, rents, and profits are subject to the same discipline, which results in a natural orderliness in the distribution of income among workers, rents to landlords, and profits to manufacturers. Smith argued that under the system of competition, national wealth could grow every year. The division of labor, aided by the prior accumulation of capital, would result in greater production than could be achieved by individuals working alone. Yet wealth could only grow if individuals did not inhibit it through artificial regulation. Smith argued against monopoly as much as against government regulation. Other thinkers have also written in defense of capitalism. For example, Ayn Rand thought that individual effort and ability were the sole source of all achievement, and that laissez-faire capitalism was the system most conducive to recognition and exercise of talent. Her connection of capitalism to individual rights and her thesis that individuals have the moral right to live for their own sake is the foundation of her philosophy of objectivism, which is one of capitalism's key philosophic defenses. Ludwig von Mises, an Austrian American, believed in a liberal marketplace and the power of the consumer; he argued that capitalism was the system that benefited the most people and that socialism was antithetical to individual quality of life. His book *The Anti-Capitalist Mentality* (1956) examined the attitudes of American socialist intellectuals toward big business and the free market. Mises was a proponent of the Austrian school of economics, which has been one of the leading schools of procapitalist thought since the late 19th century. Other leading capitalist thinkers include Eugen von Bohm-Bawerk, Carl Menger, Frédéric Bastiat, Dave Ricardo, George Reisman, Henry Hazlitt, John Maynard Keynes, and John Locke. During the 20th century, the application of capitalism changed. After World War I, international markets shrank, managed national currencies replaced the gold standard, and many nations implemented barriers to free trade. Most countries completely abandoned laissez-faire capitalism during the 1930s, and many of them implemented socialist forms of government assistance. At the turn of the 21st century, however, capitalism still survives in many countries.

Karl Marx's Response to Industrialization

Germany's Karl Marx was an important figure in 19th-century Europe as a philosopher, economic thinker, and socialist revolutionary, but the influence of his thought and his status as the founder of modern communism has placed him among the most influential people in the history of the modern world.

Karl Heinrich Marx was born to Jewish parents on May 5, 1818 in the Prussian city of Treves. His father converted to Christianity and had the entire family baptized as Protestants when Marx was six years old. After attending school at Treves, Marx went in 1835 to the University of Bonn to study law, as his father wished. Soon, however, the young man developed a preference for literature and philosophy and set his sights on a literary career. That choice of profession caused his father disappointment, which turned quickly to dismay as Marx misbehaved while away at school; he accumulated debts, fought a duel, and was jailed for drunk and disorderly conduct. Marx' father pulled him out of the school at Bonn and enrolled him instead at the University of Berlin in 1836 in hopes that the new

atmosphere would bring about a change in behavior.

It was during his days as a student in Berlin that Marx began to form his philosophical and political ideas. He studied history and philosophy and became involved with an extracurricular group known as the Young Hegelians. That circle combined a deep appreciation for the philosophy of Georg Wilhelm Friedrich von Hegel with a commitment to political action and subversion of the established order. Hegel's idea of the dialectic—in which two forces, the thesis and antithesis, clash and eventually produce a synthesis—played a decisive role in Marx' view of history. The second important element in Marx' historical thinking was a critique of Hegel made by philosopher Ludwig Feuerbach, who argued that it was not spirit that drives events in the real world, as Hegel maintained, but physical and human factors. Marx combined that insight with the theory of the dialectic to produce "dialectical materialism," the process by which, he believed, human history progressed.

While he was thus forming the foundations of his thought among like-minded peers in that informal group, Marx was also working his way through his formal studies. He finished a doctoral dissertation on Greek philosophy in 1841, but his radical political views disqualified him from teaching at the state-controlled universities. He turned to journalism and wrote for the *Rheinische Zeitung*, a newspaper of revolutionary outlook that was soon suppressed by the authorities.

In February 1842, Marx married Jenny von Westphalen, the daughter of a prominent government official. The newly married couple moved to Paris, and Marx continued his journalism career there. He became a vigorous advocate of radical socialism and continued to direct much of his work at a German audience. During that period, Marx met Friedrich Engels, and the two began their lifelong friendship and intellectual partnership. Many of Marx' writings throughout the course of his life would bear both their names. Though Engels often claimed modestly that he had only a small part in forming the ideas that appeared under their combined authorship, Marx himself stated that it was often difficult for him to separate their thought, so interdependent were their efforts. Still, there is no question that Marx was the more brilliant, original, and forceful of the two, especially in matters of economic theory. Engels was always more financially stable than his friend, and he helped sustain Marx through the penury that plagued the great thinker throughout his entire life.

The Communist Manifesto

The Prussian government did not like Marx propagating his leftist political views in France any more than in Prussia and requested that the French government expel the radical journalist. Marx then went to Brussels, where he was living when the Revolutions of 1848 broke out. Immediately before that wave of unrest swept through Europe, Marx and Engels drafted their famous *Communist Manifesto* (1848) for a group of German immigrant workers, known as the Communist League, living in London, England. That pamphlet was intended for a wider audience than Marx' more densely theoretical works and provided a clear exposition of the vision of revolutionary social change that he had developed.

In the *Communist Manifesto*, Marx employed his concept of dialectical materialism to history and argued that class struggle was the essential force driving forward historical progress. At each stage of history, one class exploited another, and the present stage was one in which two antagonistic classes faced each other: the bourgeoisie, or capitalists, which owned the wealth and means of production in society, and the working class, or proletariat, members of which worked as virtual slaves for the dominant class. Exploitation marked that relationship; the workers did not share ownership of the means of production, and the bourgeoisie gained profit from the labor of the workers. Because the logic of history demanded it, that struggle would eventually be resolved when the proletariat rose up in revolution and destroyed the basis of their exploitation—private property. Once everyone owned all things in common, class distinctions would be erased, and the class struggle that had marked human history since its beginnings would come to an end. Government and its coercive force would cease to be necessary, as people would administer their communities together for the common good. Once that final stateless and propertyless stage had been reached, true communism could be said to have arrived. Marx and other radical thinkers called their

doctrine "communism" to differentiate it from other socialist ideas that were not as thorough or rigorous.

The *Communist Manifesto* was a call to action—its final lines read, "The proletarians have nothing to lose but their chains. They have a world to win. Working men of all countries, unite!"—and was published in February 1848, the same month the revolution began in Paris. However, that pamphlet did not have an effect on the events of that dramatic year, because it was published too late and among too limited an audience. Marx went back to Prussia in the hopes of taking part in the revolutionary events there. While in Prussia, he wrote for a radical newspaper and associated himself with the revolutionary parties. The various revolutions were defeated by the forces of conservatism, and after a short stay in France, Marx settled in London in 1849. He would make that city his home for the rest of his life.

Marx and his family lived in grinding poverty over the next decades. He found sporadic work as a journalist and even wrote articles during one period for the *New York Tribune*, but only the generosity of Engels prevented the family from complete disaster. Marx published two lively analyses of the recent revolutionary events in France: *The Class Struggles in France* (1850) and *The Eighteenth Brumaire of Louis Napoleon* (1852). He also managed to continue his study of history and economics by spending his days reading at the public library. In 1859, he published *A Contribution to the Critique of Political Economy*, a work that foreshadowed his greatest contribution to economic theory, *Das Kapital* (the first volume of which was published in 1867). Those studies of political economy added even greater depth and sophistication to the insights Marx had gained through his earlier study of philosophy and history, and his thought continued to evolve.

In 1864, Marx formed the International Working Men's Association, an organization dedicated to spreading the revolutionary message of communism to the workers of the world. The group operated smoothly at first, and membership in the organization reached 800,000 by 1869. However, internal tensions and differences among the leadership, no doubt at least partially due to Marx' intolerant and often domineering behavior toward anyone who disagreed with him, caused the dissolution of the organization in 1876.

Marx continued to work during the last years of his life, though he was never able to publish the projected second volume of his *Das Kapital*. His personal life was dominated by tragedy. He lost four of his seven children before they reached adulthood, and his wife had several nervous breakdowns and illnesses. The root cause of those difficulties was poverty: the family was evicted more than once; clothing was scarce; their apartment lacked heat and the most basic comforts; and Marx himself was often ill with a variety of ailments. His wife died on December 2, 1881 as did his eldest daughter not long after in 1883. Suffering from poor health himself and filled with grief over those latest losses, Marx died of a lung abscess on March 14, 1883.

4 Types of Economic Systems

There are four primary types of economic systems in the world: traditional, command, market and mixed. Each economy has its strengths and weaknesses, its sub-economies and tendencies, and, of course, a troubled history.

Below we examine each system in turn and give ample attention to the attributes listed above. It's important to understand how different parts of the world function economically, as the economy is one of the strongest forces when it comes to balancing political power, instigating war and delivering a high (or low) quality of life to the people it serves. Anyone interested in economics on a global level should check out this fantastic course on the crisis of capitalism and why the global economy is teetering on the verge of collapse.

A traditional economic system is the best place to start because it is, quite literally, the most traditional and ancient type of economy in the world. There are certain elements of a traditional economy that those in more advanced economies, such as Mixed, would like to see return to prominence.

Where Tradition Is Cherished:

Traditional economies still produce products and services that are a direct result of their beliefs, customs, traditions, religions, etc. Vast portions of the world still function under a traditional economic system. These areas tend to be rural, second- or third-world, and closely tied to the land, usually through farming. However, there is an increasingly small population of nomadic peoples, and while their economies are certainly traditional, they often interact with other economies in order to sell, trade, barter, etc. Learn about the complexities of globalization and how it shapes economic relationships and affects cultures with this great class on the geography of globalization.

Minimal Waste:

Traditional economies would never, ever, in a million years see the type of profit or surplus that results from a market or mixed economy. In general, surplus is a rare thing. A third-world and/or indigenous country does not have the resources necessary (or if they do, they are controlled by wealthier economies, often by force), and in many cases any surplus is either distributed, wasted, or paid to some authority that has been given power.

Advantages And Disadvantages:

Certainly one of the most obvious advantages is that tradition and custom is preserved while it is virtually non-existent in market/mixed economies. There is also the fact that each member of a traditional economy has a more specific and pronounced role, and these societies are often very close-knit and socially satisfied. The main disadvantage is that traditional economies do not enjoy the things other economies take for granted: Western medicine, centralized utilities, technology, etc. But as anyone in America can attest, these things do not guarantee happiness, peace, social or, most ironically of all, economic stability.

2. Command Economic System

In terms of economic advancement, the command economic system is the next step up from a traditional economy. This by no means indicates that it is fairer or an exact improvement; there are many things fundamentally wrong with a command economy.

Centralized Control:

The most notable feature of a command economy is that a large part of the economic system is controlled by a centralized power; often, a federal government. This kind of economy tends to develop when a country finds itself in possession of a very large amount of valuable resource(s). The government then steps in and regulates the resource(s). Often the government will own everything involved in the industrial process, from the equipment to the facilities.

Supposed Advantages:

You can see how this kind of economy would, over time, create unrest among the general population. But there are actually several potential advantages, as long as the government uses intelligent regulations. First of all, a command economy is capable of creating a healthy supply of its own resources and it generally rewards its own people with affordable prices (but because it is ultimately regulated by the government, it is ultimately priced by the government). Still, there is often no shortage of jobs as the government functions similarly to a market economy in that it wants to grow and grow upon its populace.

Hand In The Cookie Jar:

Interestingly – or maybe, predictably – the government in a command economy only desires to control its most valuable resources. Other things, like agriculture, are left to be regulated and run by the people. This is the nature of a command economy and many communist governments fall into this category.

3. Market Economic System/Free Enterprise

A market economy is very similar to a free market. The government does not control vital resources, valuable goods or any other major segment of the economy. In this way, organizations run by the people determine how the economy runs, how supply is generated, what demands are necessary, etc.

Capitalism And Socialism:

No truly free market economy exists in the world. For example, while America is a capitalist nation, our government still regulates (or attempts to regulate) fair trade, government programs, moral business, monopolies, etc. etc. The advantage to capitalism is you can have an explosive economy that is very well controlled and relatively safe. This would be contrasted to socialism, in which the government (like a command economy) controls and owns the most profitable and vital industries but allows the rest of the market to operate freely; that is, price is allowed to fluctuate freely based on supply and demand.

Market Economy And Politics:

Arguably the biggest advantage to a market economy (at least, outside of economic benefits) is the separation of the market and the government. This prevents the government from becoming too powerful, too controlling and too similar to the governments of the world that oppress their people while living lavishly on controlled resources. In the same way that separation of church and state has been vital to America's social success, so has a separation of market and state been vital to our economic success. Yes, there is something wary about a system which to be successful must foster constant growth, but as a result progress and innovation have occurred at such incredible rates as to affect the way the world economy functions.

4. Mixed Economic System

A mixed economic system (also known as a Dual Economy) is just like it sounds (a combination of economic systems), but it primarily refers to a mixture of a market and command economy (for obvious reasons, a traditional economy does not typically mix well). As you can imagine, many variations exist, with some mixed economies being primarily free markets and others being strongly controlled by the government. Learn more about an essential part of our economy with this free post on understanding the stock market.

Benefits Of A Mixed Economy:

In the most common types of mixed economies, the market is more or less free of government ownership except for a few key areas. These areas are usually not the resources that a command economy controls. Instead, as in America, they are the government programs such as education, transportation, USPS, etc. While all of these industries also exist in the private sector in America, this is not always the case for a mixed economy.

Disadvantages Of A Mixed Economy:

While a mixed economy can lead to incredible results (America being the obvious example), it can also suffer from similar downfalls found in other economies. For example, the last hundred years in America has seen a rise in government power. Not just in imposing laws and regulations, but in actually gaining control, becoming more difficult to access while simultaneously becoming less flexible. This is a common tendency of mixed economies.

Please Respect The Thin Line:

A current, pivotal debate between Democrats and Republicans is the amount of governmental control. Can a true balance exist? Where should there be more government regulation? Where should there be less? These questions have no real answer; it is subjective, and therefore only a relatively small portion of the population will, at any given time, agree with the state of a mixed economy. It must be a strong form of government indeed to avoid collapsing under this constant pressure.

(ISN) Interactive Student Notebook Assignments

Copied content specific questions

(ISN) Discussion and Study Questions

Guiding Questions

(ISN) Tech Activities

Technology assignment that makes them do something with a computer

Vocabulary

[Quizlet Flashcards Vocabulary for Economic Systems](#)

TABLE 12.1:

capitalism	An economic system based on private ownership and on the investment of money in business ventures to make a profit.
communism	An economic system in which, in theory, all means of production are owned by "the people," private property does not exist, and all goods and services are shared equally.
economic freedom	The freedom to produce, trade, and consume any goods and services acquired without the use of force, fraud or theft.
free enterprise	An economic system where the fewest possible restrictions are placed on business activities and ownership, and individuals are permitted to make their own economic decisions.
laissez-faire	The idea that government should not interfere with or regulate industries and businesses.

TABLE 12.1: (continued)

law of supply and demand	The economic theory that prices are determined by the interaction of supply and demand.
Marx, Karl	Acknowledged as the "father of communism," an opponent of capitalism who in his "Communist Manifesto" argued that the most important driver of history was that of class struggle. He believed that the conflict between those who owned the means of production (capitalists and the bourgeoisie) and those who had only their ability to labor (the proletariat) would eventually result in communist revolutions whereby private property would be abolished and wealth would be collectively owned by the workers. Marx's writings can be seen as a reaction to the abuses of the early Industrial Revolution.
Smith, Adam	Widely cited as the father of capitalism, he argued in his book, <i>The Wealth of Nations</i> , that self-interest and competition were positive forces that worked as an "invisible hand" to guide a healthy and efficient economy. He was a proponent of laissez-faire economics and was opposed to the mercantilist practices of his day.
socialism	An economic system in which the factors of production are owned by the public and operate for the welfare of all.

Internet Resources

12.2 Industrial Revolution

11.2 Industrial Revolution

Student Learning Objectives

At the end of this section the student will be able to

- explain how 17th and 18th century European scientific advancements led to the Industrial Revolution.[WHS.8A]
- explain how the Industrial Revolution led to political, economic, and social changes in Europe.[WHS.8B]
- identify the major political, economic, and social motivations that influenced European imperialism.[WHS.8C]
- explain the effects of free enterprise in the Industrial Revolution.[WHS.8E]
- identify important changes in human life caused by the Neolithic Revolution and the Industrial Revolution.[WHS.17A]
- describe the changing roles of women, children, and families during major eras of world history.[WHS.24A]
- analyze information by sequencing, categorizing, identifying cause-and-effect relationships, comparing, contrasting, finding the main idea, summarizing, making generalizations and predictions, drawing inferences and conclusions, and developing connections between historical events over time.[WHS.29F]
- use social studies terminology correctly.[WHS.30A]
- use standard grammar, spelling, sentence structure, and punctuation.[WHS.30B]
- interpret and create written, oral, and visual presentations of social studies information.[WHS.30C]
- transfer information from one medium to another.[WHS.30D]

With the beginning of the Industrial Revolution in the late 18th and early 19th centuries, dramatic changes in social and economic conditions started to transform the lives of workers and consumers. Many of the period's earliest effects occurred in England, especially in the textile industry, where a boom in production greatly increased the availability of clothing while decreasing its cost. Today, people around the world continue to benefit from the mass production of clothing that began during the early phases of the Industrial Revolution.

New inventions, increased demand for manufactured goods, and increased access to raw materials were all factors behind early industrialization, which grew out of earlier, well-established systems and practices of manufacturing and production such as the putting-out system.

Pre-industrialization and the Putting-Out System

The putting-out system, also known as the domestic system or cottage industry, was widely used in Western Europe during the 17th century. In this system, merchants "put out" raw material (such as unspun wool) to rural workers who, in their homes, performed different tasks in the process of creating handmade, finished products that the merchants then sold. Workers usually owned their own tools, such as spinning wheels and looms.

Textiles made up a large portion of the goods produced in the putting-out system. For workers, this system offered numerous advantages, including the ability to set their own hours and adapt work time to demands of family life. The system also allowed children to work alongside family members, receiving training and supervision.

For merchants employing rural workers, the system allowed the payment of lower wages than skilled craftsmen in cities demanded. On the other hand, merchants found that the putting-out system was slowed by bottlenecks in home-based production, as when spinners' labor outpaced that of weavers. Moreover, greater supervision of workers

was needed to increase efficiency and decrease theft. As a result, common workplaces began to replace the home as the site of production for many workers. This was the beginning of the factory system.

New Technologies: Water Power and the Spinning Jenny

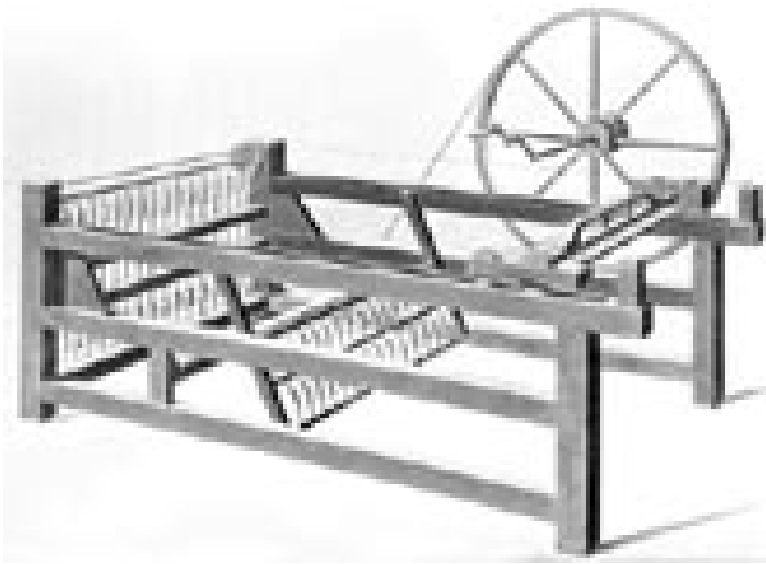


FIGURE 12.2

The spinning jenny was an important invention in the textile industry in that it was the first machine to use multiple spindles simultaneously. It was invented by James Hargreaves in 1764.

The first industrial products were textiles, which required multiple steps of production. During the 18th century, several inventions gained improvements over the putting-out system and helped shift manufacturing away from homes and into factories. These mechanical inventions—developed before the use of steam power—were the flying shuttle, the mechanical carder, the spinning jenny, the water frame, and the power loom.

The flying shuttle, patented in 1733 by John Kay, allowed quicker weaving as well as the weaving of wider pieces of cloth. Before the flying shuttle, weaving with a hand loom required a shuttle (a piece of wood with yarn attached) to be passed back and forth by hand to perform the weaving process, which was limited by a worker's own speed and arm width.

The mechanical carder, developed in 1748 by Lewis Paul, was an automatic machine that increased the amount of wool that could be carded. Carding prepares wool for spinning by combing raw wool fibers so that they lie parallel to one another.

The spinning jenny, invented by James Hargreaves in 1767 and patented in 1770, allowed for the much quicker spinning of thread. While earlier spinning wheels could turn only a single spindle at a time, the spinning jenny could handle multiple spindles at once.

The water frame, patented by Richard Arkwright in 1769, combined the spinning jenny with water power or animal power and greatly increased the spinning jenny's speed. The water frame was another step in the mechanization of the spinning process and helped move the task out of homes and into factories.

Edmund Cartwright's invention in 1785 of the first water-powered loom was also an important step in the rise of the factory system. With improvements made to Cartwright's early model, the power loom met the demands created by increased thread production and wove cloth more quickly and efficiently.

Refined uses of water power enhanced the efficiency of machines for textile production. However, water power was limited by availability of running water to turn waterwheels, and factories usually had to be near a river. Soon, water

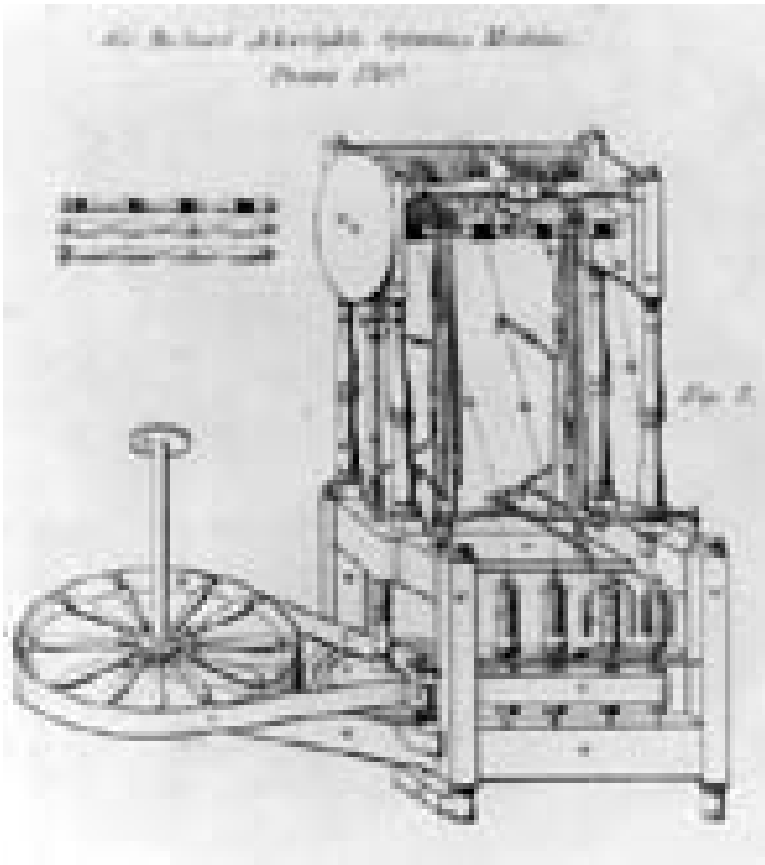


FIGURE 12.3

Sir Richard Arkwright's 1769 spinning machine, an advance over the hand-driven Spinning Jenny, was driven by animal or water power.

power was replaced by steam as the driver of mechanized production.

Invention and Applications of the Steam Engine

The invention of the steam engine by Thomas Newcomen in the early 18th century was fundamental to the Industrial Revolution. Through combining steam power with mechanized production, the speed, efficiency, and output of textile manufacture were greatly enhanced.

For a number of reasons, the early development of the steam engine was based in Britain. In the 17th and 18th centuries, the wide availability of education—especially in engineering—aided the rise of steam engine technology. England's ability to create high-quality metalwork was another factor, as was the local availability of coal and iron.

A steam engine converts chemical energy into mechanical energy. By burning fuel to boil water, the engine creates pressurized steam, which is vented to push a piston and create motion to drive a machine. During the 1760s, James Watt improved Newcomen's steam engine, making it more powerful and reliable. Steam engines could now power factory machines such as the spinning jenny, resulting in a huge increase in manufacturing output. Almost one-fifth of British mechanical production was steam-powered by the close of the 18th century.

Other applications for steam power were quickly found. In England, the first steam-powered train, the *Rocket*, appeared in the 1830s, and thousands of miles of track were built by the mid-19th century. Steamships—able to rapidly carry passengers and heavy loads across oceans and up or down rivers—soon transformed water travel and naval warfare. Steam engines also powered an early machine gun and internal combustion engines and were used to turn lathes and mill grain.

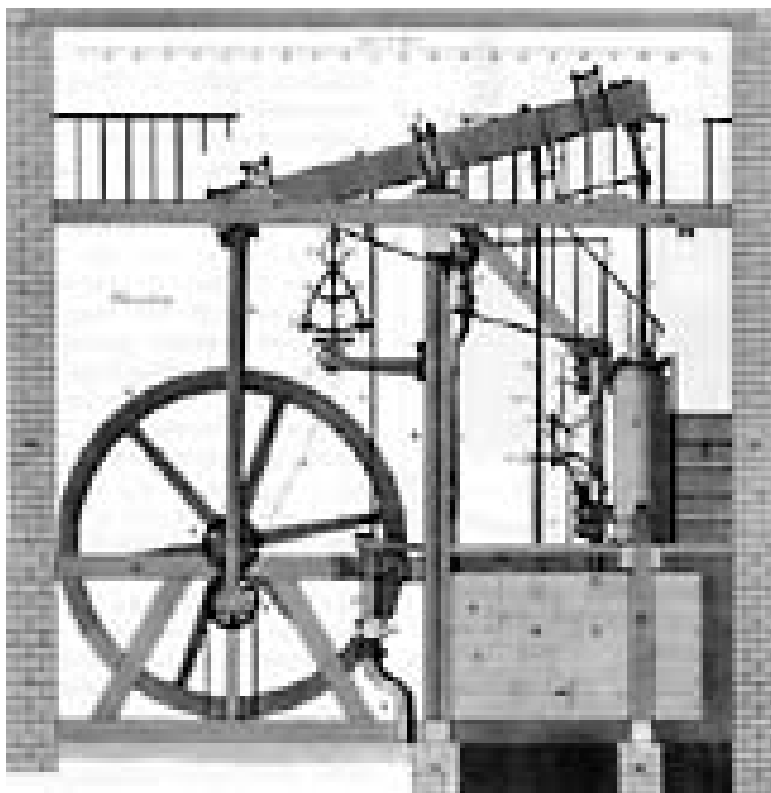
**FIGURE 12.4**

Illustration of James Watt's condensing steam engine.

The Industrial Revolution is possibly the most significant development in human history. Had it not happened, the world in which we live today would be very different. But when it comes to defining exactly what the Industrial Revolution is, the task is not quite so clear-cut as it might seem. What we do know is that dramatic technological, social, and economic changes did occur, traditionally accepted as starting in the 18th century in Britain, then affecting other countries in the 19th century (and to a certain extent still continuing today). Although other periods of change and economic expansion had occurred previously in the course of human history, what made these particular ones significant is that they did not reverse themselves; ever since, human societies expect continuing progress and economic growth, even if they do not always happen. That is, there was a definite discontinuity in the pattern of economic and social relationships in society and in our expectations of what the future will be like.

Human productivity in the past was limited by the extent of human or animal muscle power; previously, attempts to harness other energy sources—wind, water—were limited and unreliable. The breakthrough achieved in the 18th century dramatically increased productivity and meant that economies were now able to achieve increasing levels of output on an ongoing basis. Any output increases that may have occurred before were limited and reversible. Eighteenth-century development broke through what could be called the Malthusian ceiling, population growth bumping up against this higher level of output, which became inadequate both to feed a larger population and to provide for future productivity increases. Consequently, any further population growth was choked off and the balance between population and available resources restored. After the 18th century, however, the output gains that were now made possible would not be eaten up by a growing population to end the expansion but instead became a permanent part of modern life.

In order to harness the new energy source, new production techniques came into being. The old manual artisan technologies were replaced by machines, made out of metal, capable of operating at high speeds and located in large workplaces. The result was a huge expansion of output possibilities, limited only by the extent of the market.

Although large numbers of workers laboring together in one place were not unknown before, work in the pre-

industrial period tended to be decentralized, typically on farms and in the home. Partly because of the technological requirements of the steam engine (it was large and produced more power than one worker could utilize efficiently) and partly because of the advantage to the capitalist employer of being able to supervise all his employees in one place and exert control over how they worked, however, the centralization of production in the factory resulted in the separation of home from work and introduced a new artificial discipline to daily work.

So long as societies were predominantly farming communities, population was scattered and few urban areas of any significant size existed. Exploitation of the steam engine and the dynamics of centralized factory production, however, encouraged the formation of large industrial towns in which the workforce lived within close proximity to their work, often under horrendous conditions. As a result, although electricity and transportation and communications improvements have subsequently made more decentralized workplaces possible, in today's industrialized economies, the majority of the population lives in an urbanized area.

Pre-industrial societies are characterized by natural rhythms. Agricultural work depends on the season and on the stage of growth; the workday typically is limited by the amount of natural light available. Life revolves around the local community. Industrialization changes all that. People work to the pace of the machine and are timed by the clock. Artificial light extends the working day. Manufacturing and postindustrial service economies no longer are dependent on time of day, the season, or even on locally available inputs, as transportation and communications improvements have brought previously inaccessible regions of the globe into easy contact with each other. Horizons are no longer local but are global; the expansion of international trade has made outsourcing—having work done in a different region of the world—possible, and inputs as well as goods and services can now come from almost anywhere in the world.



FIGURE 12.5London Docks

Up until about the 16th century, people in most parts of the world shared similar standards of living, although, of course, the upper or ruling class lived more luxurious lifestyles. For most of the time, the standard of living for the majority was adequate, if periodically punctuated by the chronic distress, hunger, and sickness that accompanied periods when the harvests failed. With the dramatic increase in output made possible by industrialization, and by accompanying technological advances applied elsewhere in the economy, such experiences are now unlikely. Today, the problem is less one of producing too little as it is of distribution: getting food to areas of localized shortage. Even as world population has grown, the ability to provide a higher level of material well-being has grown faster. And in the advanced industrial economies, the problem may well be one of too much food, as rising levels of obesity and its associated health disorders have replaced hunger and malnutrition as social problems. This development has not

been experienced in all parts of the world equally, however. What we see instead is a growing disparity between rich nations and poor ones and between rich and poor in any specific society, which is not an economic problem so much as a political one. Economists' forecasts of a convergence of world income levels have yet to be realized.

Although there were significant short-run costs associated with the first Industrial Revolution—for the first few generations of the new laboring population, life in the new industrial towns was arduous—over the centuries, industrialized societies have become materially better off in the absolute sense. Not only do people have access to more goods and services, but also life expectancy is longer, infant mortality is lower, diets are better, literacy is taken for granted, girls are educated, better health care is available, and what were formerly luxury items have become essential parts of daily living. Products that were beyond the wildest imagination of even the most creative inventors in the 19th century have become commonplace today, such as cell phones, knifeless surgery, wireless personal computers, self-diagnosing cars, to mention only a few.

In pre-industrial societies, people expected to live more or less as their ancestors had; this is not the case today, when lifestyles are not only different but are expected to be an improvement over those of one's grandparents.

Eli Whitney

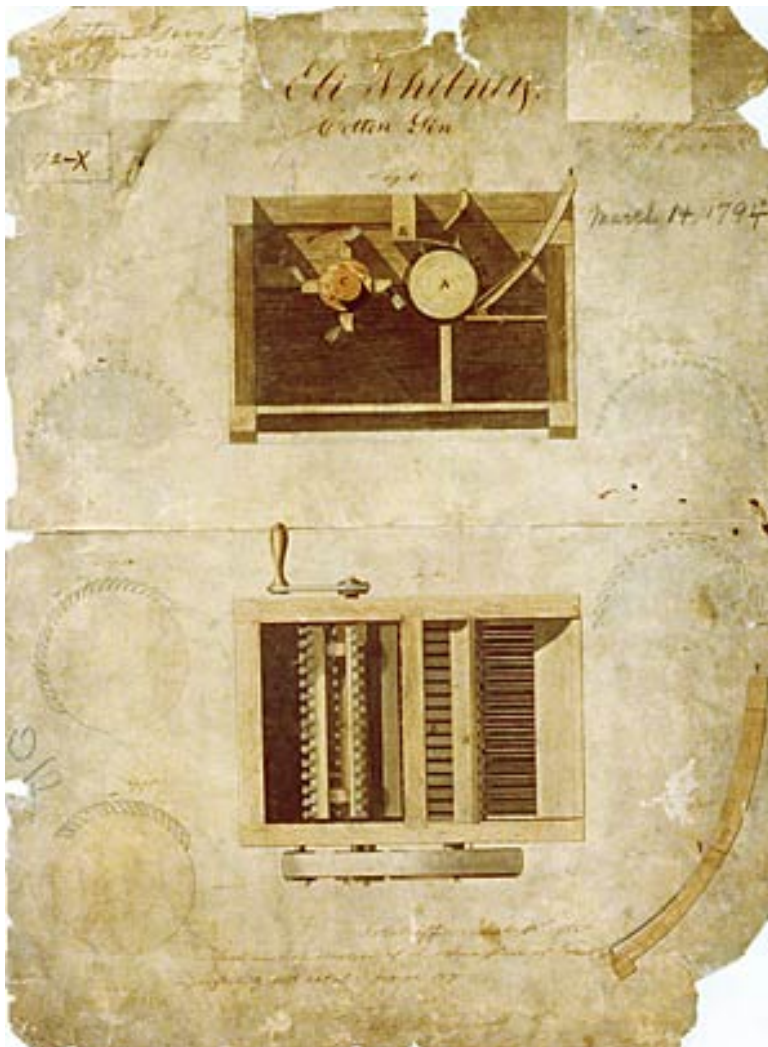


FIGURE 12.6

Eli Whitney

Eli Whitney is best known as the inventor of the cotton gin, which revolutionized the American cotton industry. However, his genius for invention yielded another innovation that was at least as important: the concept of interchangeable parts for manufacturing systems. This led to the development of mass production and the Industrial Revolution of the 19th century in America. Whitney's two inventions in the late 18th century made the South a booming cotton-producing region and the North one of the leading manufacturers in the world in the 19th century.

The men on the plantation he lived showed Whitney how difficult it was to get the cotton fibers out of the tough, prickly seeds to which they were attached. Whitney immediately got the idea that some kind of machine with metal projections might make the task more efficient, so he went to work on making one. In 1793, he finished designing his "cotton gin" ("gin" being a shortened form of the word "engine"). This machine had metal wires that protruded through slats so that when the gin was dragged through a field of cotton plants, the wires caught up the cotton fibers and pulled them out of the seeds. Whitney's invention enabled planter to produce 50 pounds of cleaned cotton a day with one gin, where before it had taken a worker a whole day just to accumulate a single pound.

**FIGURE 12.7**

Patent drawing of the cotton gin, 1794. Eli Whitney's gin mechanized cotton fiber production by separating the cotton from the seed pod.

Whitney did not realize that his machine would have such enormous and far-reaching effects. Slavery had been gradually dying out in the South because of poor crop yields; slaves simply could not harvest enough crops to make plantations profitable. The cotton gin changed all that, as slaves who used the new machine could now harvest 50 times what they previously had, making the plantation system profitable once again. Whitney used a \$50,000

grant from the state of South Carolina to return to the North and manufacture his machine. The design for the gin was so simple, however, that other manufacturers began copying it, and Whitney spent most of his profits in legal fees as he tried to protect his 1794 patent.

In 1798, Whitney, whose talent as an inventor had become well known across the nation, was contracted to make 10,000 muskets for the government. Knowing that he could never complete the order if he crafted every single musket individually, he decided to use a machine to make every part of the musket identical. Thus, each musket was exactly like the one before and after it, so if any parts broke or got lost, a replacement was readily available. (A French gunsmith had tried the same idea earlier, but this was the first time anyone in the United States had used the process). The idea was a new one for U.S. manufacturers and had dramatic implications for the industry.

Cynical about the value of patents at this point, Whitney wasted no time with patenting this invention. He made a fortune anyway, even though it took him eight years to complete the two-year contract on the muskets. He received another contract for guns in 1812 that he completed on time. His next contract went even more smoothly—partly because he invented a metal-milling machine in 1818 that allowed even unskilled workers to cut pieces of metal to precise measurements and partly because he introduced the idea of division of labor in his factories, allowing workers to specialize in particular tasks.

The latter development was another of Whitney's major contributions to manufacturing. With one group of people churning out one part of a machine and another group manufacturing another, the concept of mass production was born.

Electricity is Tamed

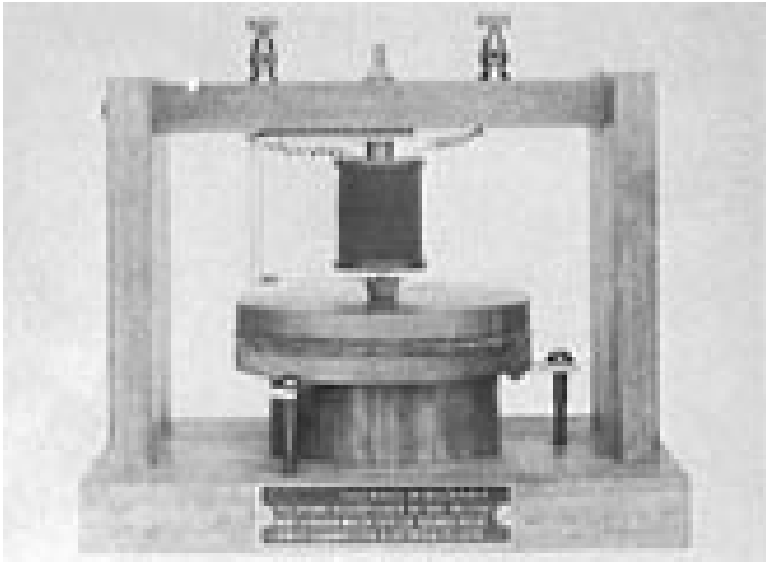
The first electrical instruments for telegraphic transmission were invented in the United States by the American inventor Samuel Morse in 1838 and in Britain the same year by the British physicist Sir Charles Wheatstone in collaboration with the British engineer Sir William F. Cooke. Morse used a simple code—composed of dots and dashes—in which messages were transmitted by electric pulses passing over a single wire. The first public telegram, "What Hath God Wrought," flew from Washington to Baltimore in 1844. Within a few years, the means of sending several messages simultaneously over a single line was developed, allowing one message to be transmitted in each direction between two stations at the same time.

Quadruplex telegraphy was invented in 1874 by the American engineer Thomas Edison. In 1915, multiplex telegraphy came into use, permitting the transmission of eight or more messages simultaneously. By 1850, news and information were traveling via telegraph among all the major U.S. cities on the East Coast. London and Paris were connected by telegraph by means of a telegraph cable laid under the English Channel in 1851. In 1866, the transatlantic cable was laid to carry messages between the United States and Europe. By 1875, it was possible to send a message around the world in only five minutes! As telegraph lines ran across the United States, often located in railroad stations, Western Union Company, the first telegraph company in the United States, put the Pony Express out of business.

The Centennial Exposition and the Telephone

In 1876, the United States celebrated its 100th birthday with a grand exposition in Philadelphia. The Centennial Exposition introduced many new products—from ketchup and root beer to electric lighting. In a corner of an upstairs gallery, a young schoolteacher accompanied by his assistant got his invention ready to show the judges. The schoolteacher's name was Alexander Graham Bell. His assistant was Thomas Watson.

Emperor Pedro II of Brazil was one of a panel of distinguished judges. When the emperor held the telephone to his ear, he heard Bell, some 500 feet away, reciting Hamlet's soliloquy. The emperor's excited exclamation was soon

**FIGURE 12.8**

This model of Alexander Graham Bell's first telephone is a duplicate of the instrument through which speech sounds were first transmitted electrically in 1875. Bell filed a patent for his invention in 1876 and it became the main attraction at the Centennial Exposition in 1876

echoed by the other judges and by the public. The telephone was on its way.

After the exposition, the Bell Company began selling telephones. They sold 230 in the first year, with their first sales to a burglar alarm company. Doctors and pharmacists usually bought the first telephones in each new town. Pharmacies let people use the telephone for free. In 1879, President Rutherford B. Hayes put the first telephone in the White House. Long-distance telephones took longer, but the needed technology was developed by 1892.

When Bell's patent expired in 1893, dozens of independent companies sprang up to compete. Then, J.P. Morgan bought the Bell Company, now called American Telephone & Telegraph Company (AT&T), and began freezing out competition. By World War I, AT&T had a virtual monopoly.

Electricity

While Italian scientist Alessandro Volta produced the first electric battery in 1800, significant commercial use of electricity awaited the development of generators and motors from the work of English scientist Michael Faraday, who developed the transformer some 30 years later.

Use of electricity in private homes, however, would revolutionize the lives of individuals. In the 1880s, public power companies opened on both sides of the Atlantic, allowing individual homes to purchase electricity for lighting. By the 1890s, electric cook stoves were introduced. Electric washing machines went on the market in 1918, followed the next year by electric refrigerators.

The changes that electricity made in daily life were monumental. Electric lights provided better illumination than candles or kerosene lanterns, and they saved the time previously spent in cleaning lamps and trimming wicks, or in making candles. Furthermore, electric lights allowed for an extended workday by lamp light rather than being reliant on natural light. Electric cook stoves eliminated wood chopping and fire-building and produced no ashes or cinders that needed to be hauled away. Electric washing machines slashed the amount of time needed to do the family laundry from days to hours.

Radios and Beyond

Near the end of the 19th century, Guglielmo Marconi filed a patent application for a "wireless telegraph," the forerunner of the radio. In 1901, he transmitted the first radio signal across the Atlantic. Governments were quick

to recognize the usefulness of wireless telegraphy for military purposes and for ships at sea. By 1911, U.S. laws required radio equipment on most sea-faring vessels.

The first commercial radio programs were broadcast over telephone lines. U.S. investors discovered this new possibility while visiting the Austro-Hungarian Empire, where they heard evening broadcasts of concerts and lectures. More than 5,000 New Jersey subscribers signed up for the broadcasts within the first few months, paying \$1.50 per month and listening over headphones. Many canceled quickly, disappointed in sound quality and in the headphone system.

Amateur radio enthusiasts continued to experiment with short-wave radio communication. The development of radio receivers began within a few years. Then, in 1917, the United States banned private ownership of radio receivers for the duration of the war. The spread of radio as a form of public communication would wait until after World War I.

Urban and Rural Life in Industrial England

London was, by today's standards, a middling metropolis, home to about half a million people in 1700, to 900,000 in 1801, and to a bit more than 10% of England's population as a whole. By 18th-century standards, however, it was a giant—a magnificent Colossus or a ravening monster, depending on one's biases—vastly larger than any other town in the nation. For better or worse, London remained the center of England's political, financial, commercial, cultural, and intellectual life.

London dazzled the visitor with its sheer size and variety. There were glass-fronted shops crammed with merchandise, bustling docks forested with towering ships' masts, ferries, brothels, heavy and perilous shop signs, hospitals, hundreds of coffee houses, hundreds of taverns, thousands of alehouses and brandy shops, three synagogues, and 300 churches with their spires rising high above the other structures. There were houses whose upper stories jutted out over the streets (at times nearly meeting the upper stories of the homes across the way). There were dozens of markets, including Billingsgate for fish and coals, Covent Garden and the Stocks for vegetables, Leadenhall for meat and leather, Smithfield for livestock, Bear Key and Queenhithe for grain and meal, and a host of others for hay, cherries, apples, and cloth. There were also fairs, circulating libraries, and above all the great cathedral of St. Paul's whose huge dome dominated the London skyline.

Then there were the people: servants running errands, sedan chairmen carrying wealthy passengers, pickpockets, footpads, prostitutes, beggars, ballad sellers, rioters, country squires in town on business, lawyers, craftsmen, doctors, booksellers, printers, and footmen clinging to rattling carriages. There were milkwomen, town criers, knife grinders, boys gambling at dice, and street vendors crying their wares—fish, oysters, apples, oranges, nuts. Tinkers wandered through the streets calling for pots to mend. Carters drove through the streets cursing pedestrians who got in their way, bouncing on rutted streets past communities of Welsh, Cornish, Irish, black, Huguenot, German, Swiss, and Jewish Londoners.

London had an abundance of everything, from traffic to culture to filth. It had newspapers, art exhibitions, freak shows, streets full of sewage and horse dung and butchers' offal, hundreds of hackney coaches for hire, 15,000 street lamps, cattle and sheep being driven to market, and skies almost perpetually full of rain or coal smoke. Sunny days were rare enough in the metropolis to create a holiday spirit. At times the skies were night-dark as early as 10 a.m.; soot fell in the rain, and the stench of the city could carry, with the right wind, for miles. The city was noisy, dirty, smelly, crowded, and deadly. Diseases, particularly the ubiquitous "fevers," spread rapidly, and for much of the century deaths exceeded births, though immigration from the countryside continued to raise the population.

During this period, British culture in London and the countryside became progressively homogeneous. Newspapers and novels spread ideas and mores. Mobility blurred regional differences, as landed gentry migrated between their country estates, London, and holiday spots like Bath and Brighton. Workers moved, too, to London, provincial cities,

mill towns, or neighboring villages in search of jobs. Servants of the rich might travel with them, or accompany an employer's married daughter to her new household. Men (and the occasional disguised woman) joined the army, navy, or militia, and traveled around the country or the world. Others traveled to harvest crops or dig canals.

Provincial towns sprouted civilizing institutions that mimicked London's: pleasure gardens, libraries, theaters, bookstores, coffeehouses, hospitals, and scientific societies. London fashions appeared in country villages and market towns, albeit with some delay, and ladies newly arrived from the metropolis were apt to sneer at a hat or hoop a year out of date.

English daily life was slowly becoming more unified, but regional idiosyncrasies remained. Weights and measures still varied from one region to another. Work conditions and wages still varied widely, with wages being generally higher in the south and east. Britain had a multitude of accents, dialects, and even languages. Cornish was still spoken in parts of the far southwest until about 1780, and Welsh and Gaelic were still in common use in areas outside England. Most residents of the Isle of Man spoke their own language, Manx, as well.

Work Duties Roles Change

A few generalizations may be applied to most 18th-century work: women and children were lower paid than men; children began to work quite early, as young as four or five; and the lower the family income, the more likely it came from several sources, with family members combining seasonal farm labor, textile production, factory work or some other manual labor, scavenging, or even petty crime.

Wages tended to be higher in London and in the south than in the north, though northern wages rose faster late in the century, when industrialization was well under way. Workers had little recourse when they had complaints about their employers, especially when "combinations" (labor unions) were being made illegal and guilds were losing their ancient power. Some areas or trades had special tribunals for these matters; others were left with strikes and riots when perquisites were ended and wages were stagnant, reduced, or unpaid. Even in the best of circumstances, workers were often paid irregularly and infrequently—in some cases, only once a year, or when they left their employers' service. The work day might be as short as 10 hours or as long as 16; the number of days worked varied by trade but in most cases was 6 per week. Unemployment rose during winter (when agricultural laborers had little to do), peace (when soldiers had little to do), and the London season (when servants and tradesmen dependent on country gentry had little to do).

A third of all workers in 1800, and an even larger percentage earlier in the century, were employed in agriculture. In small towns, the percentage was much higher; Tilbrook, Bedfordshire, had 219 residents in 1800, 214 of whom worked the land. Most of these agricultural workers were tenants who paid rent in cash or produce, or day laborers who were hired by landlords and tenant farmers. Day laborers might find work by going door to door, or by presenting themselves at "mops," or regional hiring fairs. Domestic servants, especially in smaller households, helped out with harvesting and dairying, and urban workers might migrate to the countryside during harvest to make extra income. In some cases, craftsmen combined a trade, like weaving, with farming.

Servants made up another large class of workers. A great household might have as many as fifty servants; a middle-class household might have between two and ten. Almost everyone strove to hire at least one, but the poor could afford none at all, a serious situation when all wash was done by hand and all cooking and heating required the nurturing of fires. All in all, there were perhaps from 600,000 to 700,000 domestic servants.

Most servants came from the country, where at the age of 16 or so boys went into apprenticeships or farm labor, and girls into domestic service. Servants were usually hired for a year-long term, beginning and ending at Michaelmas (September 29), and were paid yearly. They found posts by getting referrals and recommendations, by going to work for wealthier relatives, or, increasingly, by using employment agencies known as "register offices." Some were

supplied, chiefly to inns and alehouses, by workhouses, which paid the employers a premium to take pauper girls off their hands. Such workhouse servants were especially susceptible to abuse, sexual assault, and even murder.

Getting a job was less than half the battle. Keeping it was just as tricky. An employer could dismiss a servant for the slightest cause: rudeness, dishonesty, suspected theft, or even inconvenience—some landowners simply dismissed most of their country house staff when they traveled to London or abroad. Servants proven to have stolen their masters' goods were not merely fired but hanged. Servants, too, often quit out of dissatisfaction, though for them the stakes were higher. A fired servant was due her wages to date, but one who quit was entitled to nothing. Unless she already had another post lined up, she might be unemployed for months. Her situation was especially precarious if she left her last job without a good character reference. Nevertheless, turnover was high, especially in smaller households, where there was little chance for promotion; the average length of employment in 2- to 10-servant households was from 2 to 4 years.

Wages were certainly low. Admittedly, servants usually got food and lodging in addition to wages, but pay was often in arrears or paid in goods rather than cash. Employers deducted for breakage, loans, mistakes, absence from church, holiday absences (even as little as three days at Easter and Christmas), drunkenness, and other major and minor in fractions. However, good servants could often bargain for raises or better jobs, and many, despite employers' resistance, insisted on "a month's wages, or a month's warning" when dismissed.

Men were rarer than women in domestic service; of an estimated 910,000 servants in England and Wales in 1806, only 110,000 were men. Part of this discrepancy was due to earlier and higher taxes on male servants, and part was due to men's wider occupational options. Men clustered in the higher-paid, higher-status, less arduous service jobs—butter, who looked after the dining room and wine cellar, decanted and bottled wine and ale, and served liquor; groom, who took care of the horses and tack, accompanied his employer on horseback, and held the master's horse or riding jacket; coachman; footman, who waited at table and ran errands; running footman, who cleared a path for the coach on city streets; gamekeepers; steward, who managed a country estate, paid its bills, and kept the owner informed; and gardener. This was precisely why employers were taxed more for male servants—male servants cared for luxuries like wine, coaches, horses, and extensive gardens. But everyone needed female servants to do the unavoidable tasks of daily life—laundering, sewing, emptying chamberpots, dusting, hauling water, lighting fires, and shopping.

Plenty of other occupations offered small wages and limited opportunities for advancement. Unskilled and semiskilled workers did the heavy, dirty jobs, hauling and cleaning, extracting and building.

A new area of employment was factory work. Men, women, and children alike were drawn to the relative job security and decent wages. In some cases, there were bonuses for especially good work, sickness insurance (paid for by mandatory employee contributions), schools for the employees' children, and even whole mill towns built from scratch with chapels, shops, and gardens. There were also disadvantages to factory work: loss of control over work hours and materials, an insistence on punctuality represented by bells and clocking in, dangerous machinery into which children sometimes had to climb to retrieve broken threads, and fines or firing for a variety of infractions, including insubordination, bringing alcohol on the premises, lateness, sleeping, talking, and idleness.

The workers who attracted the most sympathy were, not coincidentally, some of the youngest. Chimney sweeps were not alone in beginning their trade at age four or five, but they worked in especially harsh conditions. They cleaned the chimneys from inside, scuttling up the flues using their feet and backs and scrubbing the soot loose with brushes. If they refused to climb, their masters prodded them with pins or fires. They faced a host of dangers, the most terrifying of which was the high-paid work of putting out chimney fires. The soot that coated their bodies and lungs also caused skin ailments, urinary infections, and scrotal cancer. To keep them from taking up too much room in the chimneys, they were fed little and dressed in few clothes, even at the height of the winter cleaning season. If they lived to the age of twelve or so, they were too big for the work and were abandoned by their employers.

The Family of the 18th century

Eighteenth-century households typically contained nuclear families, with children often leaving in their teens for apprenticeships, domestic service, or other work. Marriage usually took place only when the courting couple could afford to set up house on their own, so the average age of marriage was relatively late, about 25 to 27. Some people never succeeded at all; 10 to 20% of the population never married.

Early in the century, people of property were married by arrangement. It was common for families to decide on a union, haggle over the financial ramifications of the marriage, and then present it to the prospective bride and groom, who were given an opportunity to meet and (usually) to veto the match if they found it too distasteful. Lady Mary Wortley Montagu, who was in such a position as a young woman, wrote, "People in my way are sold like slaves, and I cannot tell what price my masters will put on me." Actually, it was the other way around: it was the young men who were purchased. Fathers offered, along with their daughters, a sum of money called a dowry to help the couple get started in life. This might be quite a small nest egg in the case of a servant who had saved her own dowry, or a staggering quantity of money or land. Elizabeth, Countess of Sutherland, brought her husband an 800,000-acre dowry in 1785.

By 1800 the tide had turned. The dowry was still of critical importance, and parents still threatened to withdraw financial support for a son or daughter who married against their wishes; however, now the young people met at assemblies, balls, and spas; chose their own spouses; (usually) presented the choice to their parents for approval or veto; and then began a round of haggling over the financial settlements.

Below the middle class, most of the control over courtship remained, as it had always been, in the hands of the courting couple. There were no great estates to dispose of, no huge dowries to foster parental influence, and, for the most part, less chaperonage, since both parties were likely to be out of the house and working by age 15 or 16. Couples met at fairs, in the workplace as fellow servants, or at church. Often, they were longtime acquaintances; most villagers married people from within ten miles of home. A man might give his sweetheart ribbons, fans, food, gloves, and other small tokens of affection, all of which had to be returned if the woman broke off the courtship for any reason.

Life for the Children

Prior to the 18th century, children were viewed as small, unruly adults. This perception was reflected in their "literature" (Bible stories and tales of witches and demons designed to frighten them into docility), the ferocious chastisements to which they were subjected, and their clothes, which were almost exactly like those of adults. During the 18th century, however, there was an increasing tendency to view childhood as a special state of innocence, during which children could be molded and shaped by love and education. During the second half of the century, there were ample signs that things were changing. The increase in maternal breast-feeding was one example of a more hands-on approach to parenting. Fathers and mothers proudly played with their children and commissioned more portraits of them, and children began addressing their parents by informal, affectionate names like "mama" and "papa." Children, especially younger children, were given nicknames like Sukey and Jackee, and were dressed in looser, less formal clothes. Discipline in many families became less harsh, even lax.

There were special activities and products for children. Oral tales of fairies, Will o' the Wisp, and other folk creatures were supplemented by children's books, a whole new genre created by publisher John Newbery. Children's songs and rhymes included variations of rhymes still familiar today, like "Hush-a-bye Baby," "Lulliby Baby Bunting," "Jack and Gill" (an early illustration shows both these characters as boys), "Bah, Bah, Black Sheep," "Old King Cole," "Hey Diddle, Diddle," "London Bridge," and "Hickere Dickere Dock." Others are less familiar today, like "Wide-Mouth Waddling Frog." The purposes of these songs, however, were the same as today—to entertain and to

calm children.

Parents also bought toys for their children, including rattles, small tops called tototums, dolls, wagons, and sports equipment. Children also made up their own amusements. They played hoops, trap-ball, and barley-break. Bad little girls called names and pulled off visitors' wigs; good little girls practiced milking the cow or "dressed Babies [dolls], acted Visitings, learned to Dance and make Curtsies." Bad little boys threw snowballs at coachmen; good little boys played football or cricket. Play, in short, was one part mischief, one part organized game, and one part pretending to be an adult—in preparation for courtship, the marriage market, and founding a family of one's own.

Whether early or late in the century, some families were simply dreadful. Parents had near-total control over their children and took full advantage of it. The actress Fanny Kemble was imprisoned in a shed for a week as punishment for misbehavior, and Francis Place was beaten until the stick broke. Susanna Wesley, mother of Methodist preachers Charles and John, bragged that her children "when turned a year old (and sons before)... were taught to fear the rod, and to cry softly." Many parents still expected silence and unquestioning obedience, and many children still regarded their parents with respect or fear rather than warmth. In poorer families, children were put to work by age four or five. They helped with laundry, farm chores, textile work (like spinning and carding wool) done at home, factory work, and shopkeeping. London's urchins worked as crossing sweepers or chimney sweeps. Some children had teeth sold to make dentures for the rich. Some were abandoned or orphaned and turned to prostitution and thievery. The revolution in attitudes toward childhood was a slow and gradual one indeed, for it was accompanied by an acceptance, even an enthusiasm, for child labor. Jonas Hanway, a reformer who took up the causes of workhouse infants and chimney sweeps, was revolted by families who sought charity when they had children from ages eight to fourteen who were earning no wages. Dan Tucker, in 1758, wrote that Birmingham button factories, by hiring children, saved "80 or even 100%" while training "Children to an Habit of Industry, almost as soon as they can speak."

Once married, a woman became a ghost or shadow—present yet not present—in the eyes of the courts. According to Sir William Blackstone, it was simple: "[I]n marriage husband and wife are one person, and that person is the husband" with "the very being, or legal existence, of the woman... suspended during marriage." All her property and debts at marriage became her husband's, as well as any wages she earned or property she acquired thereafter. Nothing in her husband's home, not even her own undergarments, technically belonged to her, nor could she give anything away or bequeath anything in a will without his consent. Her children were his to dispose of as he pleased; she had no legal right over their education, housing, or marriages. If her husband accused her of adultery and sued her lover for damages, she was barred from testifying or from calling witnesses in her own behalf. There was no such thing as marital rape under the law; a man was entitled to have sex with his wife whenever he chose. He could send her to a private madhouse. He could confine her to her home against her will. He could beat her as long as he used a stick no bigger in circumference than his thumb, hence the phrase "rule of thumb." Women could "pray the peace" against their husbands for repeated and particularly vicious attacks, putting them on a kind of probation, though this recourse was seldom used. Women could also ask for a separation on the grounds of cruelty, though the suit could be denied if they had offered any provocation, disobedience, or bad temper at any time in the marriage, and even if granted, a separation would have condemned most women to abject poverty.

Mortality in general was very high. It was common for the surviving spouse to remarry, sometimes several times. Some women were better off after a husband died; 18th-century marriage could be more like a jail sentence than a loving companionship, and rich women were often allowed a sum of money, called a jointure, in widowhood. Widows also enjoyed more legal freedom than married women. But for most women, who earned far less than men for the same work, widowhood meant instant poverty.

Advances in Medicine

France's Louis Pasteur was a 19th-century scientist who is credited with founding the field of microbiology. His research into bacteria and disease revolutionized contemporary understanding of microorganisms. His discoveries

**FIGURE 12.9**

Louis Pasteur in his laboratory. The French scientist is best known for his pioneering work in bacteria and disease research that led to a process to keep milk from souring.

also led to improvements in the health of the general populace: he proposed a means of killing bacteria in such liquids as milk, wine, and beer, while his research into pathology led to vaccinations against two deadly diseases—anthrax and rabies.

Pasteur's professors and fellow students were heavily involved in the study of crystals (clear, colorless glass) and their effects on light. Pasteur himself quickly focused on the study of crystals suspended in tartaric and racemic acids (both of which are formed in the process of making wine). His doctoral research led him to his first major discovery. While tartaric and racemic acids have identical chemical structure, the crystals in the two have different effects on polarized light. Pasteur was curious about how this could be, given their identical chemical structure. A closer study of both acids led Pasteur to the realization that racemic acid contained two different crystals: one was chemically identical to those in tartaric acid, the other had a chemical structure that was the mirror image of the former. This structural difference accounted for their different effects on light. It was this discovery of mirror-image molecules that first established Pasteur's scientific reputation.

Because of the notoriety of Pasteur's research on tartaric and racemic acids, he was approached by a local factory owner who hoped that the scientist could help him with the fermentation and preservation of his product, beet juice. The research that Pasteur embarked on for the factory owner led to his second major discovery. Up until that time, scientists had believed that yeast acted as a chemical catalyst during the process of fermentation, causing the breakdown of complex sugar molecules into simpler sugars. Pasteur concluded that yeast was not an inorganic catalyst but a living organism that consumed sugar in beet juice, leaving alcohol as a waste product. Pasteur also

concluded that the juice went sour when other microorganisms, bacteria, fermented sugar into lactic acid.

Pasteur applied his beet juice findings to the fermentation process in wine making. The French wine industry had been plagued by widespread spoilage of casks of wine. Pasteur suggested that as with beet juice, spoilage was caused by bacteria, which could be killed by heating the wine to 120 degrees before the aging process began. Though many French winemakers balked at the idea of heating their wine, Pasteur's theory proved effective in ending spoilage. Pasteur's discovery is considered by many to mark the beginning of the field of microbiology because it was the first time that real understanding of microscopic organisms was attained through experimentation.

In 1862, Pasteur was again approached by a group of industrialists with a serious problem. The French silk industry, then a very important sector of the national economy, was being devastated by a mysterious disease that was killing the silkworms. Despite the fact that he knew nothing about silkworms, Pasteur agreed to investigate the problem. After five years of research, Pasteur concluded that a microscopic parasite was killing worms and spreading through their food source: mulberry leaves. Pasteur's plan to eradicate the parasite necessitated the destruction of all the infected worms. The drastic measure wiped out the parasite and put the industry back on its feet.

Spontaneous generation theory was an idea commonly held by 19th-century scientists that bacteria arose by themselves, most commonly in dead plants or animals. Pasteur, while doing research on fermentation, had noted that fermentation seemed to occur more quickly in liquids that were left in open containers, exposed to the air. This observation led him to speculate that bacteria might be introduced to liquids via the air rather than arising spontaneously from the liquid itself.

Pasteur devised an experiment to test his hypothesis. He filled two containers with a broth he knew to be prone to bacterial growth. He then tightly sealed one container and left the other exposed. Bacteria grew only in the open container, suggesting that the bacteria did not come from the broth itself. Pasteur also found that, just as with wine, heating a variety of liquids—milk, beer, wine—killed the bacteria in them. This process came to be known as pasteurization.

By the 1870s, Pasteur had turned his attention to diseases. His initial research focused on anthrax, a fatal skin disease that often affected animals and that could spread to human beings. Building on the research of German scientist Robert Koch, Pasteur developed an anthrax vaccine for cattle. As part of his experiment, he vaccinated 31 of 60 sheep, goats, and cows. He then infected all 60 animals with anthrax. Four days later, all but four of the unvaccinated animals had died, with the remaining four very ill. None of the vaccinated animals ever developed symptoms.

Next, Pasteur began doing research on rabies, a fatal disease of the nervous system contracted through animal bites. Pasteur could find no bacteria in animals infected with rabies. He eventually realized that the disease was caused by some other form of germ (later identified as a virus). Still, he successfully created a vaccine for animals against the disease. He was reluctant to test the serum on humans, but in 1885, a young boy who had been bitten by a rabid dog was brought to Pasteur. Knowing that without the vaccine the boy was certain to die, Pasteur injected him with the serum over the course of several days. The boy never fell ill.

Marie-Curie

Marie-Curie; (7 November 1867 – 4 July 1934) was a Polish and naturalized-French physicist and chemist who conducted pioneering research on radioactivity. She was the first woman to win a Nobel Prize, the first person and only woman to win twice, the only person to win twice in multiple sciences. She was also the first woman to become a professor at the University of Paris, and in 1995 became the first woman to be entombed on her own merits in the Panthéon in Paris.

She was born Maria Salomea Skłodowska [U+02C8] in Warsaw, in what was then the Kingdom of Poland, part of the

Russian Empire. She studied at Warsaw's clandestine Floating University and began her practical scientific training in Warsaw. In 1891, aged 24, she went to study in Paris, where she earned her higher degrees and conducted her subsequent scientific work. She shared the 1903 Nobel Prize in Physics with her husband Pierre Curie and with physicist Henri Becquerel. She won the 1911 Nobel Prize in Chemistry.

Her achievements included a theory of radioactivity (a term that she coined), techniques for isolating radioactive isotopes, and the discovery of two elements, polonium and radium. Under her direction, the world's first studies were conducted into the treatment of neoplasms, using radioactive isotopes. She founded the Curie Institutes in Paris and in Warsaw, which remain major centers of medical research today. During World War I, she established the first military field radiological centers.

The Second Industrial Revolution



FIGURE 12.10

A flywheel assembly line at the Ford Motor Company's Highland Park, Michigan plant in 1913. The use of a moving line reduced a car's assembly time from 12 hours to 93 minutes. The automatic conveyor belt revolutionized the Industrial Age. Faster assembly meant quicker availability, giving impetus to America's car culture and an increasingly mobile society.

The Second Industrial Revolution, beginning roughly in the early 1870s and lasting through World War II, continued the processes of mechanization, urbanization, and change that had begun during the first phase of the Industrial Revolution. The Second Industrial Revolution produced commodities for consumers based on new scientific and technological advances that would not have been imaginable only 20 years before. The rise of massive corporate entities capable of wielding enormous amounts of power also marked the Second Industrial Revolution. The United Kingdom had been a leader of industrialization during the original Industrial Revolution. During the Second Industrial Revolution, industrialization in Britain continued. Large quantities of steel were produced more than 8 million tons. Furthermore, there were many new and important innovations, including Charles Parson's steam turbine in 1884. Moreover, huge chemical corporations like Ludwig Mond Chemical Business and Imperial Chemical Industries were founded. Nonetheless, the expansion of industrialization was far stronger in the United States and Germany than in Britain.

The United States had made amazing progress during the first phase of the Industrial Revolution. Industries formed to produce the machines needed to settle the new country and grew to enormous sizes when they were successful but they still required a lot of skilled labor to produce goods. Companies operating during the Second Industrial Revolution created production and assembly processes that could be executed with less skill and fewer workers. Through his commercial bank, J. P. Morgan financed promising new technologies and invested in railroads, electrical equipment, and steel production. The bank not only financed the growth of industry but also financed consolidations and mergers. Occasionally, the bank even underwrote governments during financial crises and wars, including the

U.S. government twice (once in 1894 and then again in 1907).

Another key player in the Second Industrial Revolution, Andrew Carnegie founded the Carnegie Steel Company in 1875 to provide the steel for buildings, bridges, industrial equipment, ships, and automobiles within the United States. Carnegie also led the conversion of the iron industry to the steel industry, and soon his was the largest steel company in the world.

The other major U.S. financier of the Second Industrial Revolution was John D. Rockefeller. Rockefeller founded the Standard Oil Company that provided the oil for the growing transportation network in the United States. Standard Oil was the largest and most powerful company in the United States between 1880 and 1910. Initially, the company refined, shipped, and marketed oil for such products as medicine, lubricants, and kerosene to light homes and factories.

Henry Ford's contribution to the Second Industrial Revolution directly affected a large number of Americans on a daily basis by providing the automobiles that gave people true mobility. In 1908, the Ford Motor Company delivered the first Model T automobile. Using well-established components for cars at that time, Ford standardized their design and production so that the Model T could be manufactured as it was carried on a conveyor down an assembly line. Semiskilled workers added components to each car as the product passed their workstation. Marketed as a family car for the rapidly growing middle class rather than for the rich, the car was priced at less than half the cost of other cars on the market initially \$825 but reduced to \$290 by 1924.

Germany also led the development of the Second Industrial Revolution. Expansion of industry, foreign trade, and innovation explain the Germans' success. The annexation of Alsace and Lorraine in 1871 left Germany in control of the largest iron ore deposits and iron works in Western Europe. After that annexation, production of iron ore in Germany rose dramatically from 684,600 tons in 1872 to 1,859,000 tons in 1882. Iron was key in the industrial and economic expansion of the country.

Another strength of Germany was its colonial enterprise. Germany had colonies in key areas in Africa, including Zanzibar, Cameroon, Gabon, Togoland, and Samoa. Those colonies not only contributed new sources of tropical and semitropical raw materials but also created new trade markets. German trade companies like Woermen, Victorsons and Bremen, and J. C. Godeffroy & Son dominated the foreign trade markets. By 1914, Germany was the second-largest trading nation in the world. Underlying those foreign trade markets was a well-developed shipbuilding trade and improved inland transportation routes (roads, canals, and railways).

The introduction of cartels also became key to the success of Germany during the Second Industrial Revolution. Cartels took four forms in Germany; they consisted of a group of companies that agreed either to share the market, to fix market prices, to fix the volume of production within each company, or to share all the profits. Profit-sharing industrial cartels like the Gelsenkirchen Mining Company, the Rote Erde Iron works, and the Schalk Mining and Smelting Company created monopolies and thus thrived under such agreements.

Like the United States, the banks in Germany encouraged industrial innovation and expansion. German banks funded foreign investment, drove the export market, and expanded Germany's economic interests overseas. Funding allowed quick and continuous economic growth, which permitted Germany to expand more rapidly than its rivals. The bank funding also allowed the continuation of scientific and technological progress within Germany. Werner Siemens created the electric dynamo, Nikolaus Otto invented the gas engine, Gottlieb Daimler made the petrol engine, and Rudolf Diesel invented the heavy-oil engine. Those innovations improved productivity and created new enterprises.

One of those new enterprises was the chemical industry. There were three types of chemical industries: heavy chemical, artificial fertilizers, and miscellaneous. The heavy chemical industry produced sulfuric acid and alkalis. The artificial fertilizers industry created phosphate fertilizers for agricultural use. Other chemical industries produced

coal tar, mineral dyes, explosives, pharmaceutical products, cosmetics, and plastic materials.

France moved into the Second Industrial Revolution after recovering from the Franco-Prussian War. France, especially in the northern districts, was rich in iron ore. The demand for rails made those deposits essential. A boom in pig iron resulted, which in turn stimulated a need for coal. Unfortunately, the manufacturing costs in France were higher than in other industrialized nations. Furthermore, France's marine trade was inferior to that of Britain and Germany. Those facts reduced the potential for industrialization in France.

The Second Industrial Revolution affected other countries as well, although its effects were less dramatic in many of them. In Russia, for example, although some factories existed, cottage industries still predominated during the Second Industrial Revolution and beyond. Nonetheless, agricultural and textile industries that produced and used grain, flax, and cotton flourished with industrialization. While the production and trade of iron never reached its full potential in Russia, in 1902, an engineering cartel called Prodamata strengthened iron usage by designing such promising products as locomotives, wagons, and cutlery. By far, the greatest industrial success in Russia came from oil. The extraction and refinery of crude oil into kerosene, paraffin, and lubricating oils was a great Russian innovation.

Canadian industrialization relied heavily on foreign investments and railway development. Major railway building began in the 1870s. Canadian agriculture and wood pulp and mineral production grew rapidly, and the nation became a major exporter to Western Europe and the United States. Canada had large holdings of nickel and asbestos, and modern mining equipment allowed the nation to expand output amid a rising standard of living. Extensive immigration around 1900 provided needed labor to fuel the economic growth. After World War I, U.S. investment increased, and U.S. firms located manufacturing subsidiaries in Canada. Unusually, Canada's industrial economy was heavily tied to other countries and to exports. By the 1950s, Canada exported a full third of its total output and imported a third of the manufactured goods consumed. Because of its dependence on import-export trade, Canada suffered greatly from international setbacks like the Great Depression, but it boomed when war needs or prosperity elsewhere stimulated international demand.

Although Japan was a latecomer to industrialization after centuries of isolation, the Japanese government quickly made up for lost time. As other Asian countries became outright colonies of industrialized European powers or found their independence severely compromised, Japan quickly mastered industrial production and became a colonial power in its own right. In 1895, Japan won from the Chinese government commercial concessions in Korea and annexed Taiwan; in 1910, it formally annexed Korea. Japan's colonies provided Japanese companies with access to raw materials (coal in Korea, food in Taiwan) and markets for industrial goods.

During the Meiji Restoration, the Japanese government subsidized certain businesses, or *zaibatsus*, and allowed them to monopolize key areas of the economy. In return, the *zaibatsus* helped the government to achieve its national economic goals. A key component of Japan's industrial development strategy was to keep its wages low as a competitive advantage. That approach meant, however, that the domestic market was always underdeveloped, and *zaibatsus* were forced to go abroad in a search for markets as well as to find natural resources. By the 1930s, Japan's strategy was paying off with rapid expansion and factory production. Japan made large inroads into the markets of other imperial powers; for instance, Japanese textiles captured half of the Indian market (previously an exclusive preserve of British manufacturers). Following World War II, the United States intended to limit Japan's industrialization, but by the late 1940s, confronted with a communist government in China (and the impending Korean War), the United States favored the reindustrialization of Japan instead and limited punishment of its wartime leaders. Partly at the insistence of its Allies, the United States required that Japan remain demilitarized, which shifted the focus of Japanese business and government to its domestic market.

Most Latin American countries had gained their political independence in the 1820s and 1830s, but as exporters of raw materials, they remained economically dependent on such industrialized countries as Great Britain throughout the 19th century and much of the 20th century. Deindustrialization of traditional manufacturing work occurred under

the pressure of British industrial goods. Despite the new nations' economic and social reforms in the mid- and late 19th century, most of Latin America's population remained peasants, although an urbanized working and middle class emerged in Argentina, Brazil, and Mexico. Many obstacles retarded industrial expansion in Brazil in particular and Latin America in general: the scarcity of liquid capital; the lack of an adequate system of currency, credit, and banking; a dearth of skilled workers and technicians; and the absence of a transportation network. In addition, the effects of slavery and ingrained mercantilism further hindered industrialization efforts.

The countries of Africa were not affected by the industrialization of the Second Industrial Revolution as much as they were by the colonial expansion of the industrial powers. The Berlin Conference of 1884-1885 began the scramble for Africa, which was seen as a new market and source of raw materials. Colonial powers quickly seized land and created countries by amalgamating or splitting various ethnic groups and people of various religions. Most colonial powers forced new economic, political, and social systems on the new colonies. The effects of that era of colonization included the destruction of traditional ethnic, gender, and class boundaries and relationships.

There is no denying that the two revolutions, known collectively as the Industrial Revolution but actually composed of two significant phases, have prompted fundamental change. New household products, most notably stoves, refrigerators, dishwashers, washing machines and dryers, and automatic furnaces and air conditioners, have transformed the home. New recreational products like telephones, cameras, radios, televisions, record players, and golf carts have changed how people play. New products for industry, particularly synthetic materials, welding machines, testing machines, and office machines, have changed the workplace. The introduction of computers, telecommunications, and automation products has brought even more substantial change. All had their roots in the new technologies created during the first and second phases of the Industrial Revolution. The so-called computer revolution that followed the Second Industrial Revolution has created even more opportunities and more challenges, which should continue well into the 21st century.

(ISN) Interactive Student Notebook Assignments

Copied content specific questions

(ISN) Discussion and Study Questions

Guiding Questions

(ISN) Tech Activities

Technology assignment that makes them do something with a computer

Vocabulary

[Quizlet Flashcards Vocabulary for Industrial Revolution](#)

TABLE 12.2:

Curie, Marie	A French-Polish physicist and chemist famous for her pioneering research on radioactivity. She was the first woman to earn a Ph.D. at a French university and the first person to ever be honored with two Nobel Prizes, in both physics and chemistry.
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TABLE 12.2: (continued)

domestic system	A production system widespread in 17th-century western Europe in which merchant-employers provided raw materials to rural producers who usually worked in their homes. Finished products were then returned to the employers in return for a wage payment (also referred to as cottage industries, or the "putting-out system").
Edison, Thomas	An American inventor and businessman who developed many devices that greatly influenced life around the world, including the phonograph, the motion picture camera, and the first practical incandescent light bulb. Dubbed "The Wizard of Menlo Park."
Industrial Revolution	The shift, beginning in England during the 18th century, from making goods by hand to making them by machine.
mass production	The manufacture of goods in large quantities, often using standardized designs and assembly-line techniques.
Pasteur, Louis	A French chemist and microbiologist whose "germ theory" established the idea that most diseases are caused by germs. He also developed new vaccines and developed the process of pasteurization in which germs are killed through heat.
steam engine	An engine that converts pressurized steam into mechanical energy, arguably the most important technology of the Industrial Revolution.
unions	An association of workers, formed to bargain for better working conditions and higher wages.
urbanization	The growth of urban areas as a result of rural migration into cities.
Watt, James	A Scottish inventor and mechanical engineer whose improvements to the steam engine were fundamental to the changes brought about by the Industrial Revolution.

- The Industrial Revolution began in Britain in the late 18th century and spread to the United States and the European Continent.
- The new economic systems of free enterprise, socialism, and communism developed in response to these changes
- Key factors were population growth, urbanization, coal and iron, entrepreneurship, and laissez-faire.
- New innovations were made in agriculture, manufacturing, transportation, and communication

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CHAPTER 13**Chapter Twelve: Age of Imperialism****Chapter Outline**

13.1 AGE OF IMPERIALISM

The rise of the Gunpowder Empires in the Middle East and the gains in sea navigation made by both the Portuguese and the Spanish motivated the rest of the Western European nations to join the game.

The major motivations are the need for resources primarily iron and coal; then in the second wave of imperialism steel, rubber, and oil. Other factors such as nationalism were also starting to surface. As each nation, hoped to surpass their neighbor. The conflicts of the Reformation and the Revolutions of Liberty were somewhat handled. In their place came the ideas of Darwin and Rudyard Kiplings "White Man's Burden" which justified the actions that would be taken in India, Africa, and China to name a few. In addition, advances in the textile industry, transportation, communication, weapons, and agriculture would enable Europe especially Britain to build an empire that stretches from the western of edge of the Pacific to its eastern coast in Canada.

13.1 Age of Imperialism

12.1 Age of Imperialism

Student Learning Objectives

At the end of this section the student will be able to

- identify major causes and describe the major effects of the following important turning points in world history from 1750 to 1914: the Scientific Revolution, the Industrial Revolution and its impact on the development of modern economic systems, European imperialism, and the Enlightenment's impact on political revolutions.[WHS.1E]
- identify the major political, economic, and social motivations that influenced European imperialism.[WHS.8C]
- explain the major characteristics and impact of European imperialism.[WHS.8D]
- create and interpret thematic maps, graphs, and charts to demonstrate the relationship between geography and the historical development of a region or nation.[WHS.15A]
- analyze and compare geographic distributions and patterns in world history shown on maps, graphs, charts, and models.[WHS.15B]
- locate places and regions of historical significance directly related to major eras and turning points in world history.[WHS.16A]
- analyze the influence of human and physical geographic factors on major events in world history, including the development of river valley civilizations, trade in the Indian Ocean, and the opening of the Panama and Suez canals.[WHS.16B]
- interpret maps, charts, and graphs to explain how geography has influenced people and events in the past.[WHS.16C]
- describe the major influences of women such as Elizabeth I, Queen Victoria, Mother Teresa, Indira Gandhi, Margaret Thatcher, and Golda Meir during major eras of world history.[WHS.24B]
- explain the roles of military technology, transportation technology, communication technology, and medical advancements in initiating and advancing 19th century imperialism.[WHS.28B]
- analyze information by sequencing, categorizing, identifying cause-and-effect relationships, comparing, contrasting, finding the main idea, summarizing, making generalizations and predictions, drawing inferences and conclusions, and developing connections between historical events over time.[WHS.29F]
- use social studies terminology correctly.[WHS.30A]
- use standard grammar, spelling, sentence structure, and punctuation.[WHS.30B]
- interpret and create written, oral, and visual presentations of social studies information.[WHS.30C]
- transfer information from one medium to another.[WHS.30D]

Imperialism

Imperialism occurs when a strong nation takes over a weaker nation or region and dominates its economic, political, or cultural life. This type of foreign policy was practiced by European nations and Japan throughout the 1800s and early 1900s. In every case, the stronger nation would experience industrialization prior to practicing imperialism on a foreign nation or region. This was due to the nearly insatiable demand for cheap raw materials and the need for markets to buy manufactured goods.



FIGURE 13.1

Trade depicted is through the Suez Canal

Industrial Roots

Abundant raw materials and vast markets are needed in order to maintain an industrialized economy. Raw materials such as iron and cotton can be turned into products such as steel and textiles. Finally, these products need to be sold to a market in order to realize a profit.

The forces of industrialization caused nations to begin looking outside of their borders for cheaper and more abundant raw materials. Foreign populations were also viewed as vast markets where goods produced in domestic factories could be sold.

Other Causes

Nationalism, or pride in one's country, also contributed to the growth of imperialism. Citizens were proud of their country's accomplishments, which sometimes included taking over foreign areas. As European nations became competitive with one another, there was an increased pressure to practice imperialism in order to maintain a balance of power in Europe.

As Europeans took over foreign lands, they viewed the culture of the native population to be inferior to their own. This concept became known as "The White Man's Burden" after a popular poem by the same name was published by Rudyard Kipling in 1899. Some interpreted this poem to mean that it was the duty of imperializing nations to bring western culture and sensibility to the savage native populations that were encountered in far off lands. This is sometimes referred to as Social Darwinism, or the belief that all human groups compete for survival, and that the stronger groups will replace the weaker groups. Others saw it as a warning to western nations to stop the harmful practice of imperialism.

TABLE 13.1: Causes of Imperialism

Economic Motives	The Industrial Revolution created an insatiable demand for raw materials and new markets.
Nationalism	European nations wanted to demonstrate their power and prestige to the world.

TABLE 13.1: (continued)

Balance of Power	European nations were forced to acquire new colonies to achieve a balance with their neighbors and competitors.
White Man's Burden	The Europeans' sense of superiority made them feel obligated to "civilize the heathen savages" they encountered.

India

British East India Company

During the 1700s, a joint-stock company called the British East India Company was chartered by Queen Elizabeth I of England. The company's main objective was to make a profit for shareholders by exploiting the abundant natural resources and gaining access to the markets in India.

To do this, the British East India Company successfully used "divide and conquer" tactics to increase their control over entire regions of the Indian subcontinent. This strategy entailed fanning the flames of religious division between native Muslim and Hindu groups, and taking advantage of the political rivalries that existed between local native rulers.

By the 1830s, the British government had taken over control of the East India Company. Under British rule, native customs such as sati, the ritual suicide of a wife after her husband's death, were banned. The British built schools and railroads, and missionaries spread Christianity.

Sepoy Mutiny

By 1857 the British army in India included a large number of Indian soldiers, or Sepoys. The rifle cartridges that were distributed to the Sepoys had to be bitten to remove a cover before being inserted into a gun. Rumors circulated among the Sepoys that this cover had been greased with beef and pork fat. This angered Muslim Sepoys who were not supposed to consume pork, and the Hindu Sepoys who were not supposed to eat beef. Thus, the Sepoys revolted against the British army, which eventually ended the conflict through use of force. This resulted in the British government officially taking control of India, making it a colony.

Some view this as the first act of Indian independence, which would not be achieved until after WWII with the formation of the countries of India and Pakistan.

Rivalries in India: 1748-1760

Both the French and the English East India Companies, to advance their commercial interests, offer military support in dynastic struggles within powerful Indian states. Helping a candidate to the throne opens a new region of influence, a new market.

The death in 1748 of the Moghul viceroy in Hyderabad is followed by French and English assistance for rival sons of the dead ruler. Soon the two European nations are also fighting on opposite sides in a war of succession in the Carnatic (the coastal strip north and south of Madras).

The French candidate succeeds in Hyderabad, and the English favorite prevails in the Carnatic. But the most striking event in either campaign is a dramatic intervention by Robert Clive in 1751. With 200 British and 300 Indian soldiers he seizes Arcot (the capital of the Carnatic) and holds it through a seven-week siege.

His action, and his subsequent defeat of a French and Indian force in battle, wins the throne for his candidate. It

also has the effect of diminishing the prestige in Indian eyes of the French army. Until now the French have had the better of the British in India (most notably in their capture of Madras in 1746).

France and Britain remain rivals in southern India for the rest of the century. It is in the north that the balance changes significantly in Britain's favor, after a disaster of 1756. In that year the nawab of Bengal, Siraj-ud-Daula, overwhelms the British settlement in Calcutta and locks some of his captives overnight in a room of the fort. The details of precisely what happened that night are obscure, but the event becomes known to the British as the Black Hole of Calcutta.

To recover Calcutta, Clive sails north from Madras in October 1756. The fort is back in British hands by January 1757. But Clive now decides to intervene further in the politics of Bengal.

He aims to place a more compliant nawab, Mir Jafar, on the throne of Bengal, and he achieves his purpose after defeating Siraj-ud-Daula at Plassey in June 1757. For the next three years Clive virtually rules the rich province of Bengal, using Mir Jafar as his political puppet. In doing so he establishes the pattern by which British control will gradually spread through India, in a patchwork of separate alliances with local rulers.

In 1760 Clive returns to England, the possessor of vast and rapidly acquired wealth. Here too he sets a pattern, this time an unmistakably bad one. He is the first of the 'nabobs', whose fortunes derive from jobbery and bribes while administering Indian affairs.

Seven Years' War: 1756-1763

At the start of the Seven Years' War the balance between the empires of France and Britain looks much as it has been since the late 17th century. By the end of it, in 1763, the situation is transformed. The change is less great in India. Even so, British rule in Bengal, established informally from 1757, represents an unprecedented level of European involvement in the subcontinent - and a level unmatched by France.

If the difference in India appears as yet slight, these years change out of all recognition the colonial situation in America. British victory over the French, clinched in the capture of Quebec in 1759, is followed by dramatic French concessions in the Paris peace treaty of 1763.

The war at sea: 1793-1796

The renewal of war between Britain and France in 1793 is a continuation of a century-long conflict between the two most aggressive imperial powers. In recent engagements the results have favored Britain, particularly in Canada and India during the Seven Years' War.

In the new conflict the first arena of war is another rich colonial region, the West Indies. During 1794 the British seize several of the smaller French islands in the Caribbean, at an extremely heavy cost in terms of troops dying of yellow fever. On 1 June 1794 (the Glorious First of June in British accounts) Richard Howe destroys a French squadron in the Atlantic - but fails in his primary purpose of harming the rich convoy being accompanied on its journey from America to France. “

The greatest damage to French interests in the West Indies is done not by British fleets but by the ideals of the French Revolution.

Middle East

Natural Resources

Beginning in the 1800s, imperialism was also practiced in the Middle East. The prime attraction for most European nations was the presence of vast oil fields. The machinery produced as a result of the Industrial Revolution required

oil to keep numerous moving parts lubricated. As the internal combustion engine became more popular around 1900, oil was also needed as a fuel.

Strategic Location

Strategy also played a major role in the European conquest of the Middle East through imperialism. Two areas that Europe paid particular attention to were the Suez Canal and Palestine.

Suez Canal

The French originally set out to build the Suez Canal in 1859. However, Britain soon became jealous because of the potential impact the shortcut between the Mediterranean and Red Seas could have on trade with its Indian colony. In 1875, the British wrested financial control of the Suez Canal away from the French, and eventually made all of Egypt a protectorate in 1882.

European Imperialism in China

Opium Wars

In the early 1800's, the British treasury was being depleted due to its dependence upon imported tea from China. The Chinese still considered their nation to be the Middle Kingdom, and therefore viewed the goods the Europeans brought to trade with Western factories in Canton, China, as nearly worthless trinkets. To solve this trade imbalance Britain imported opium, processed from poppy plants grown in the Crown Colony of India, into China.

Chinese officials attempted to ban the importation of the highly addictive opium, but ultimately failed. The British declared war on China in a series of conflicts called the Opium Wars. Superior British military technology allowed them to claim victory and subject the Chinese to a series of unequal treaties.



FIGURE 13.2

British control of Hong Kong

Unequal Treaties

According to the 1842 Treaty of Nanjing, the Chinese were to:

1. Reimburse Britain for costs incurred fighting the Chinese
2. Open several ports to British trade
3. Provide Britain with complete control of Hong Kong
4. Grant extraterritoriality to British citizens living in China

Spheres of Influence

Eventually several European nations followed suit, forcing China to sign a series of unequal treaties. Extraterritoriality guaranteed that European citizens in China were only subject to the laws of their own nation and could only be tried by their own courts. Eventually western nations weary of governing foreign lands, established spheres of influence within China which guaranteed specific trading privileges to each nation within its respective sphere.

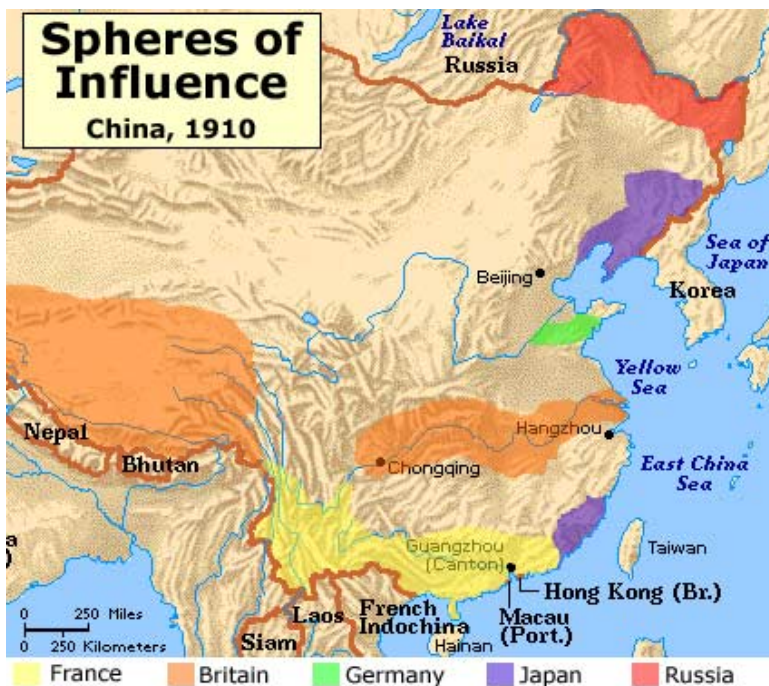


FIGURE 13.3

Eventually the United States demanded equal trading status within China, and rather than carve out its own sphere of influence, simply announced the Open Door Policy in 1899. This stated that all nations should have equal trading rights regardless of spheres of influence. While this may have prevented the further expansion of spheres of influences, it did little to restore Chinese sovereignty.

Effects of European Imperialism in China

Disgusted with the failed efforts of the Manchu Dynasty in ridding China of opium or foreign influence after the Opium Wars, Chinese citizens staged the Taiping Rebellion between 1850-1864. Already weakened, the Chinese officials turned to foreigners for help in putting down the rebellion, killing millions of Chinese in the process.

After the further insult of the Open Door Policy, Chinese nationalist staged the Boxer Rebellion in 1900. Viewed as a threat to the profits they enjoyed in their imperialist spheres of influence, foreign nations formed an international coalition that ended the uprising. With this victory, additional concessions were granted to foreign nations within China.

Finally, 5,000 years of dynastic rule in China came to an end in 1911. China tumbled into civil war as local warlords sought to control their locals, while nationalist leaders such as Sun Yixian sought to unify China. Civil war took hold of China after Sun's death as Mao Zedong and his communist forces battled Sun's successor Jiang Jieshi for control of the country. In 1949, Mao established a communist government in mainland China while Jiang Jieshi fled to Taiwan and established a democratic government there.

Japanese Imperialism

Prior to the 1850's Japan had limited contact with the west. Only the Dutch were allowed to trade with Japan at the port of Nagasaki once a year.

Commodore Matthew Perry

In 1853, the U.S. sent a fleet of ships under the command of Commodore Mathew Perry to Japan in order to end the nation's self-imposed isolation and open it to trade. Soon, the Britain, Russia, and Holland negotiated similar treaties. The intrusion of the West would become a turning point for feudal Japan. The Tokugawa shogunate was criticized and ultimately overthrown for allowing western nations into Japan.

Meiji Restoration

In 1868, Emperor Mutsushito was restored to the throne. He decided that in order to withstand the imperialistic might of the West, Japan would need to adopt western ways. This movement would be known as the Meiji Restoration.

Japanese scholars were sent abroad to learn as much as possible about the West. Feudalism was abandoned in Japan in favor of a written constitution and the establishment of modern mechanized armed forces. Western technology was adopted which allowed the Japanese to fully industrialize in less than 50 years. By the end of the Meiji Restoration, the Japanese no longer feared that they would be imperialized. Rather, they set out to practice imperialism themselves.

Japan's Empire

In 1894-95 the Japanese engaged the Chinese in the Sino-Japanese War as they sought natural resources and trading rights on mainland Asia. These motives also brought them into conflict with Russia in the 1904-05 Russo-Japanese War. Japan achieved victory in both conflicts, and Europeans in Japan during the Meiji Restoration surprised the world in doing so. The destruction of the Russian Navy by the Japanese marked the first time an Asian nation had defeated one from Europe.

With the 1905 Treaty of Portsmouth, Japan earned the following:

1. Chinese port city trading rights;
2. Control of Manchuria in China;
3. Korea became its protectorate;
4. Annexation of the island of Sakhalin

Japan was quickly emerging as a world-class power using western technology and methods while still maintaining its traditional cultural values.

Greater East Asia Co-Prosperity Sphere

During the early 1900s, Japan practiced imperialism throughout Asia. A campaign to rid Asia of European imperialism was waged in which Japan occupied nations once held by the French, British, and the Dutch. Native leaders were installed as part of puppet governments that were manipulated by the Japanese.

By 1940, Japan announced that it would form a Greater East Asia Co-Prosperity Sphere which encouraged Asian nations to resist western imperialists in order to contribute to the industrial needs of the Japanese war machine. In fact, Japan was practicing its own form of imperialism by dominating its Asian neighbors.

Post-War Success

Japan's imperialistic ambitions soon brought the nation into conflict with the United States in WWII. After losing WWII, Japan was occupied by the United States during which time democratic reforms were instituted. The emperor was forced to renounce his divinity and the Japanese armed forces were disbanded. A parliamentary democracy was established and the United States provided economic aid to rebuild infrastructure.

Soon, Japan demonstrated its economic prowess without taking advantage of its Asian neighbors through imperialism. By the 1980's Japan was being compared to the United States and West Germany as one of the great economic powers of the world.

Slave Trade Ends

Anti-Slave Trade Legislation

In the 1400s, the Portuguese established a number of trading outposts along the coastline of Africa. Later in the 1600s, the Dutch established the Cape Town settlement on the southwestern tip of Africa. Many of these early settlements were the starting point of the African Slave Trade that enslaved and forcibly sent many Africans overseas.

By the 1800s, many European nations had passed laws banning the slave trade. Thanks in part to the Abolitionist movement.

“God Almighty has set before me two Great Objects: the suppression of the Slave Trade and the Reformation of Manners.”

“You may choose to look the other way but you can never say again that you did not know.”

[U+2015] William Wilberforce

However, the illegal slave trade continued well throughout the 1800s.

Scramble For Africa

In the 1870s, the Belgian King Leopold sent emissaries to establish trade with native Africans in the Congo. This single act began a flurry of imperialistic activity as the other nations of Europe, including: France, Great Britain, Germany, Spain, Germany, Italy, and Portugal.

Berlin Conference

To avoid conflict with one another in Africa, European leaders met in Berlin, Germany. With little regard or representation for native Africans, the European powers set about carving up Africa according to the following guidelines:

**FIGURE 13.4**

William Wilberforce was an MP, a committed Christian and a vanguard in the abolition of the slave trade in the British Empire. He campaigned all his life, despite opposition and ill health and championed reform in many areas of society. He was founder of the Church Mission Society.

1. Any sovereign power which wanted to claim any territory should inform the other powers “in order to ... make good any claim of their own.”
2. Any such annexation should be validated by effective occupation.
3. Treaties with African rulers were to be considered a valid title to sovereignty.
4. By 1900, the only areas of Africa remaining independent were Liberia and Ethiopia.

Zulu Resistance

In the 1830s descendants of the original Dutch settlers, now called Boers, migrated into the interior of South Africa and began to engage in conflicts with the Zulu. These battles with the Boer settlers continued well into the late 1800s, but never truly threatened Zulu sovereignty.

The Zulu were a south African tribe that placed an emphasis on military organization and skill, as established by their legendary leader Shaka Zulu. Under Shaka’s rule, the Zulu broadened their land claims throughout southern Africa.

Eventually, the Zulu came into the conflict with the British army as they expanded their control over southern Africa and invaded the homeland of the Zulu.

Despite early victories, the Zulu were eventually defeated by the technology and vast resources at the command of the British troops. Soon, all of southern Africa would come under British control.

Cecil Rhodes and the Boer War

Cecil Rhodes was instrumental in assuring British dominance of southern Africa. He founded the De Beers Mining Company, eventually controlling 90% of the world's diamond production. After becoming prime minister of the Cape Colony (now South Africa) in 1890, he used his influence to strengthen British control over the region.



FIGURE 13.5

Cecil Rhodes stands astride the whole of Africa.

His master plan was to establish a Cape to Cairo railroad line that would link British colonial interests in Africa between Egypt and the Cape Colony in southern Africa. The Boers, however, provided heavy and eventually armed resistance to this proposal. After authorizing an aggressive invasion of the Boer Republic of Transvaal which ended poorly, Rhodes was removed from office. However, the seeds of the Boer War had been sown.

Great Britain decided to annex the Boer republics, and with Boer resistance came the Boer War (1899-1902). By all accounts the fighting was vicious, with the Boers employing guerilla tactics and the British eventually using 450,000 troops to achieve victory.

In 1910, the various British colonies in southern Africa were united as the Union of South Africa, eventually becoming the nation of South Africa after WWII.

Tribalism

Because European nation carved Africa up with no regard for traditional tribal boundaries, Africa still suffers from tribalism. Modern African nations often contain several different tribes that harbor ill feelings towards one another. Therefore, inter-tribal conflict is a common in Africa often leading to civil wars and power struggles within national governments.

Impact of European Imperialism

In the short-term, imperialism was a very profitable foreign policy which came at the expense of the foreign regions where it was being practiced. Cultural diffusion also occurred, leading to an exchange of ideas between the West and the East. For example, European methods of education were adopted, leading foreigners to study ideas of liberty and democracy embraced during the Enlightenment and various political revolutions. This exchange eventually led to the demise of imperialism and colonialism throughout the world after World War Two.

(ISN) Interactive Student Notebook Assignment

1. Create a map detailing the area in which the British Empire controlled.
2. List the Imperialistic European nations and the areas that they colonized.
3. Explain the causes and motivations that led to European imperialization of Asia and Africa.
4. Analyze map "Spheres of Influence"; and then explain the significance of the location of each sphere of influence for each nation in the legend.

(ISN) Discussion and Study Questions

1. Guiding Questions

(ISN) Tech Activities

Technology assignment that makes them do something with a computer

Vocabulary

[Quizlet Flashcard Vocabulary for Age of Imperialism](#)

TABLE 13.2:

imperialism	The policy of extending the rule or authority of an empire or nation over foreign countries.
"new imperialism"	The colonial expansion between 1830 and 1914 that contrasts with older forms of imperialism due to increased overseas possessions as well as the greater industrial capabilities now available to the imperial powers.
social darwinism	An ideology that seeks to apply the biological concepts of Darwin's evolutionary theory to society and politics.
informal imperialism	A form of imperialism used to maintain indirect control of a colony, where local government officials are used to maintain imperial control, and a limited degree of self-rule is permitted.

TABLE 13.2: (continued)

"white man's burden"	A phrase taken from a poem by English poet Rudyard Kipling characterizing imperialism as a noble enterprise, by which white men were encouraged to colonize and rule over other nations for the benefit of those people.
"Scramble for Africa"	A process of invasion, occupation, colonization and annexation of African territory by European powers between 1881 and 1914.
Berlin Conference	Meetings begun in 1845 at which representatives from European nations agreed upon rules for the division and colonization of Africa.
Cecil Rhodes	A key British imperialist who controlled 90% of the diamond industry and dreamed of building a British railroad from Cairo, Egypt to Cape Town, South Africa.
Leopold II	A Belgian king who ruled the Congo as his private estate, killing millions in order to increase production on his rubber plantations.
Suez Canal	A man-made waterway completed in 1869, built with French money and Egyptian labor, that connected the Red and Mediterranean Seas.
Opium Wars	A conflict between Britain and China, lasting from 1839 to 1842 that resulted in foreigners having extraterritorial rights at various Chinese ports.
"spheres of influence"	Areas in which countries have some political and economic control but do not govern directly.
Taiping Rebellion	A mid-19th century peasant rebellion in China against the Qing dynasty that lasted for 14 years and briefly managed to take control over much of southeastern China.
"Open Door" Policy	A policy proposed by the United States in 1899 in which all nations would have equal opportunity to trade in China.
Boxer Rebellion	A rebellion in southeastern China in 1900 aimed at ending foreign influence in the country, eventually put down by a multi-national force of the imperial powers.
Sepoy Mutiny	An 1857 rebellion of Hindu and Muslim soldiers against the British in India after British officials responded badly to rumors that sepoy (Indian) soldiers were being asked to use gun cartridges sealed with beef and pork fat.
Panama Canal	A man made waterway in Panama built by the United States and opened in 1914 that connected the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans.
Spanish American War	A conflict in 1898 between the United States and Spain in which the United States supported Cuba's fight for independence.
Monroe Doctrine	A U.S. policy opposed to European interference or the establishment of colonies in Latin America.

TABLE 13.2: (continued)

Meiji Restoration	A series of events that restored the Emperor as ruler of Japan and led to Japan's industrialization and adoption of Western ways.
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Internet Resources

- Motivations were primarily economic, but nationalism, militarism, and feeling of racial superiority contributed to developing colonization and domination of the nations outside of Europe and the United States.
- The imperialist nations were Britain, France, Germany, the Dutch, United States, Russia and Japan
- Areas colonized were Africa, South and East Asia, and Southeast Asia.
- Key links were the Suez and Panama Canals
- Industrial innovations allowed Europeans to control areas where they were considerably outnumbered through the use of weapons such as the Gatling gun. Other technologies such as the railroad and the train, allowed Europeans to push across the continents to find the much needed resources of iron, rubber, oil, and build agribusinesses that utilized local and migrant labor on plantations to feed its now thriving cities.

CHAPTER 14 Chapter Thirteen: World War I and the early 20th Century Revolution

Chapter Outline

- 14.1 WORLD WAR I
 - 14.2 THE RUSSIAN REVOLUTION OF 1917
 - 14.3 THE MEXICAN REVOLUTION
-

The three events examined in this unit in many ways set the stage for much of what would happen throughout the rest of the Twentieth Century. World War I introduced the world to “total war,” where governments redirected all their energies, institutions, and manpower to obtain victory. New industrial weapons made it the most destructive war the world had seen. The failure of its peace settlement would contribute toward the outbreak of an even more destructive war two decades later. The Russian Revolution, caused in part by the war itself, would usher in a radical transformation of Russian society and establish the world’s first communist government. Over the next several decades, the Soviet Union would actively sponsor and assist Communist movements and revolutions around the world in an effort to broaden its sphere of influence. Finally, the Mexican Revolution unleashed a violent competition for political and economic reform that would eventually pave the way for a new national constitution that would bring much needed reform and stability to Mexico. By the end of the conflict, the Institutional Revolutionary Party (PRI) would establish itself as the primary political party in Mexico for the next 71 years.

14.1 World War I

13.1 World War I

Student Learning Objectives

At the end of this section the student will be able to:

- identify major causes and describe the major effects of the following important turning points in world history from 1914 to the present: the world wars and their impact on political, economic, and social systems; communist revolutions and their impact on the Cold War; independence movements; and globalization.[WHS.1F]
- identify the importance of imperialism, nationalism, militarism, and the alliance system in causing World War I.[WHS.10A]
- identify major characteristics of World War I, including total war, trench warfare, modern military technology, and high casualty rates.[WHS.10B]
- explain the political impact of Woodrow Wilson’s Fourteen Points and the political and economic impact of the Treaty of Versailles, including changes in boundaries and the mandate system.[WHS.10C]
- create and interpret thematic maps, graphs, and charts to demonstrate the relationship between geography and the historical development of a region or nation.[WHS.15A]
- analyze and compare geographic distributions and patterns in world history shown on maps, graphs, charts, and models.[WHS.15B]
- locate places and regions of historical significance directly related to major eras and turning points in world history.[WHS.16A]
- interpret maps, charts, and graphs to explain how geography has influenced people and events in the past.[WHS.16C]
- explain the significance of the League of Nations and the United Nations.[WHS.20D]
- identify examples of politically motivated mass murders in Cambodia, China, Latin America, the Soviet Union, and Armenia.[WHS.22C]
- explain the effects of major new military technologies on World War I, World War II, and the Cold War.[WHS.28C]
- use appropriate reading and mathematical skills to interpret social studies information such as maps and graphs.[WHS.29H]

World War I introduced new technologies that generated a new kind of war – “total war.” It ushered in the notion of war on a grand and global scale, leaving behind a landscape of death and destruction such as was never before seen, and a death toll that included countless civilians. It devastated the economies of Europe and destroyed many acres of farmland, homes, villages and towns. A sense of disillusionment, insecurity, and despair settled over the survivors. Its impact would help to ignite the Russian Revolution, one of the most significant events of the 20th century. Finally, the failure of the WWI peace settlement would contribute toward the outbreak of an even more destructive war two decades later.

Prelude to War

It had been 100 years since a major war had been fought on European soil (Napoleonic Wars). Many Europeans believed that the industrial revolution had produced such a frightening arsenal of new and powerful weapons that the idea of a major war was now unthinkable. But serious tensions were building between the **Great Powers** of Europe (Great Britain, France, Germany, Italy, Austria-Hungary, and Russia). In the **Balkans**, part of the new Austria-Hungarian Empire, rising nationalism among the persecuted **Slavic** minorities was a serious concern. In 1914, a single incident would eventual bring most all of the European nations into a terrible, long war in which a roughly estimated 8 million soldiers and 6 million civilians would lose their lives. We call it World War I, or, The Great War.

Let's review the situation among the major powers and problem areas of Europe in 1914:

Great Britain - She is politically stable, an industrial giant, has the largest navy in the world, and is quite busy running a world empire. Britain is content and desires to stand alone, but she has become alarmed at the rising power, both militarily and economically, of a relatively new nation, Germany. In particular, the British are concerned over Germany's growing industrial capabilities and its desire to build a navy large enough to challenge Britain's control of the seas (recall that Britain and Germany are separated only by the North Sea).

Italy - She is also a relatively new nation that, although powerful, is still politically unstable. She is friendly toward Germany and Austria-Hungary. The three nations have signed a defensive treaty known as the **Triple Alliance**, whereby each nation has promised not to fight one another should war ever break out. Because Italy is practically surrounded by coastline, however, she certainly does not desire to wage a war against a major sea power such as Great Britain either.

France and Germany - **Otto Von Bismarck**, the prime minister of Germany, had used war, trickery, and diplomacy to unite the various Germanic states into a new nation by 1870. In 1870, France and Germany had fought the **Franco-Prussian War** in which France suffered a humiliating defeat, was forced to pay Germany a huge sum of money, and lost **Alsace-Lorraine**, an area rich in iron and coal deposits. France seeks protection, revenge, and a return of Alsace-Lorraine from Germany, and begins looking for allies. France remains politically disunited and still weak from the Franco-Prussian War, however. After securely uniting Germany (primarily through war), Bismarck then embarked on a policy of peaceful diplomacy, believing that so long as France remained isolated and without allies, she would not pose a threat to Germany. In 1890 - **Kaiser William II**, a "vain, neurotic man," comes to power, removes Bismarck, and is envious of Great Britain's world empire and navy. He is determined to challenge Great Britain's industrial and naval power. Germany continues its rapid industrialization, seeks colonies (nearly going to war against France in Morocco), and begins a buildup of its navy. Great Britain has become alarmed and begins to seek alliances rather than continue to stand alone.

Russia - She has been slow to develop industrially and is a backward nation compared to Western Europe. Russia, however, has the largest population and army in all of Europe. Russia has recently been humiliated in several wars or crisis (the Crimean War against France and Great Britain, the Russo-Japanese War, and the Balkan Crisis). She remains weak and humiliated. France desires Russia as an ally and is loaning it money to develop its industry. Russia is also interested in forming alliances with the **Slavic** peoples of the **Balkans** (most Russians were also Slavs) in order to gain access to the warmer waters and trade of the Mediterranean. France and Russia promise to come to each other's aid should either be attacked by a third country. Great Britain eventually agrees not to fight France or Russia should a war break out. These agreements between the nations of France, Great Britain and Russia formed the **Triple Entente**.

Austria-Hungary (a dual monarchy with a single army and foreign policy) Austria-Hungary is interested in securing its southern region that is heavily populated by a restless, persecuted, and increasingly nationalistic Slavic minority (the Austrians were a Germanic people). She is also interested in expanding south into the Balkans in order to maintain control over its Slavic population.

The Balkans - This region had for many years been part of the **Ottoman Empire**, which had become weak and was now unable to maintain its control over the area (the Ottoman Empire was called the "**sick man of Europe**" in these days). The area was made up of many ethnic groups, though most of them spoke Slavic languages. They had been persecuted terribly under Ottoman rule. These ethnic groups were taking advantage of the weakness of the Ottomans and breaking away to form independent nations. They are weak, however, and threatened by Austria-Hungary, which wishes to absorb them into their empire. **Serbia**, an independent, Slavic nation, desires to absorb all Slavs into an expanded Serbia. This desire of the Slavs to create a large, Slavic nation in the Balkans became known as Pan-Slavism. Such a plan, of course, would require the breakup of Austria-Hungary, one of the Great Powers of Europe. Russia desires to defend their Slavic cousins from Austrian-Hungarian rule and does not want to see Austria-Hungary control these nations, as this would spoil their plans to have access to the Mediterranean as well as to once again display her weakness to the rest of the world. Russia does not feel it can afford to suffer another embarrassing defeat or humiliation. The Slavic population of the Balkans, meanwhile, looks to Russia for protection against the expansionist desires of Austria-Hungary.

Because of the opposing interests of Russia and Austria-Hungary, and the demands of Serbian nationalists, it was here in the Balkans where most people feared a war could break out. The Balkans thus became known as the “**powder keg of Europe.**” Indeed, it would be in the Balkans where the “war to end all wars” would begin.

Adding to these tensions was a growing spirit of **militarism** (the glorification of armed strength). By 1914, many Europeans believed war was inevitable as all the Great Powers were building up large, standing armies. With the exception of Great Britain, who relied on her navy for defense, all the other European powers had adopted **conscription** (compulsory military service). Generals made war plans and yearned for a chance to put their plans into practice. Each country feared sitting around and waiting while their enemy became stronger. Many urged their leaders not to wait. Civilians, who had not experienced a major, general war in over 100 years, remembered only the glory of war and not the horrors of the Napoleonic wars.

Thus, the primary underlying causes of WWI were:

- (1) The competing imperial interests of the Great Powers of Europe
- (2) Slavic nationalist aspirations and Austro-Hungarian imperialist ambitions in the Balkans
- (3) The division of Europe into threatening alliances
- (4) A growing spirit of militarism

These underlying causes needed only a spark to ignite the most destructive war the world had ever seen. The spark would be ignited in the Balkans and quickly spread throughout Europe, engulfing practically the entire continent into war.

The Start of War

On June 28, 1914, Archduke Franz Ferdinand, heir to the throne of the Austro-Hungarian Empire, and his wife, Sophie, were paying a state visit to Sarajevo, the capital of Bosnia. The royal pair was shot point blank range as they rode through the streets of Sarajevo in an open car. The killer was **Gavrilo Princip**, a 19-year-old member of the Black Hand, a secret society committed to ridding Bosnia of Austrian rule.

Because the assassin was a Serbian, Austria decided to use the murders as an excuse to punish Serbia. An angry Kaiser Wilhelm II urged Austria to be aggressive and he offered Germany’s unconditional support. In effect, this gave Austria a “**blank check,**” or the license to do what it wanted in Serbia.

On July 23, Austria presented Serbia with an **ultimatum** (a list of demands that if not met, will lead to serious consequences). The ultimatum was deliberately harsh. Demands included an end to all anti-Austrian activity. In addition, Serbian leaders would have had to allow Austrian officials into their country to conduct an investigation into the assassinations. Serbia knew that refusing the ultimatum would lead to war against the more powerful Austria. Therefore, Serbian leaders agreed to most of Austria’s demands. They offered to have several others settle by an international conference.

Austria, however, was in no mood to negotiate. The nation’s leaders, it seemed, had already settled on war. On July 28, Austria rejected Serbia’s offer and declared war.

Leaders all over Europe suddenly took alarm. The fragile European stability seemed about to collapse. The British foreign minister, the Italian government, and even Kaiser Wilhelm himself urged Austria and Russia to negotiate. But it was too late. The machinery of war had been set in motion. On July 29, the first Austrian artillery shells fell on Serbia’s capital, Belgrade.

After this first military action, a series of events followed in quick succession. With news of Austria’s attack on Belgrade, Russia ordered a general mobilization of its troops on July 30, 1914. Germany, interpreting this move as a final decision by Russia to go to war, promptly ordered its own mobilization. Although the Russian tsar and German Kaiser were communicating feverishly by telegraph throughout this time, they failed to convince each other that they were only taking precautionary measures. Britain made an attempt to intervene diplomatically, but to no avail. On August 1, the German ambassador to Russia handed the Russian foreign minister a declaration of war.

On August 3, Germany, in accordance with the **Schlieffen Plan**, declared war on France as well. The Schlieffen Plan was a German military plan, formulated in 1905, that addressed how Germany should handle the threat of a war on two fronts with Russia and France. In short, the plan stipulated that if war were expected, Germany first attack France before embarking upon military actions against Russia. The rationale for this approach was that Russia would require several weeks in order to mobilize its troops and assemble them along the German border. Under the plan, Germany hoped to overrun France in only six weeks by attacking across France's borders with Belgium and Holland, which were less fortified than the border with Germany.

Germany now made clear its intention to cross the neutral nation of Belgium in order to reach France's least fortified border, in violation of its own treaty in respect to neutral countries. Therefore, Britain, which had a defense agreement with Belgium, declared war on Germany the next day, August 4th.

By mid-August 1914, the battle lines were clearly drawn. On one side were Germany and Austria-Hungary, known as the **Central Powers** because of their geographic location in the heart of Europe. On the other side were Great Britain, France, and Russia. They were known as the **Allied Powers**, or the Allies.

Other powers soon joined the war. In October, Turkey joined the Central Powers. A year later, Bulgaria did the same. In the beginning, Italy stayed neutral. The Italians said that the Triple Alliance was a defensive alliance and Germany had been the aggressor. However, nine months later Italy joined the Allies against Germany and Austria.

In the late summer of 1914, millions of soldiers marched happily off to battle, convinced that the war would be short. Only a few people foresaw the horrors ahead. Staring out over London at nightfall, Britain's foreign minister, Sir Edward Grey, said sadly to a friend, "The lamps are going out all over Europe. We shall not see them lit again in our lifetime." Therefore, the German high command decided to send thousands of men to the east, which weakened the western army, whose supply lines were growing thin.

At the **Battle of the Marne River**, the German advance was topped dead in its tracks and the German generals gave the order to retreat. Paris was saved. The German retreat left the Schlieffen plan in ruins. A quick victory in the west was no longer possible. Germany had no hope of a quick victory in the east either. Although the Germans won several battles against the Russians in 1914, Russia was simply too big for overnight conquest. Germany's generals now faced the fearful prospect of a long war on two fronts.

Total War: A New Kind of Warfare

After the Battle of the Marne, the war on the Western Front settled into a stalemate. Both sides dug in and held their existing positions. By early 1915, each army had built an elaborate system of tunnels, shelters, and trenches, from which they engaged in **trench warfare**. These battle lines stretched more than 600 miles from the English Channel to the Swiss border. The space between the two sets of trenches won the grim name of "**no-man's land**." As soldiers settled into the trenches for weeks and then months and then years, people began to realize that this war was unlike any other in history. Life in the trenches was pure misery. "The men slept in mud, washed in mud, ate mud, and dreamed in mud," wrote one soldier. The trenches swarmed with rats, fresh food was nonexistent, and sleep was nearly impossible. When the officers ordered an attack, their men went "**over the top**" of their trenches into a bomb-out landscape. There, they usually met murderous rounds of machine-gun fire. Armies traded huge losses for pitifully small land gains.

The slaughter within the trenches reached a peak in 1916. At the Battle of Verdun, that lasted more than five months, each side would lose more than 300,000 men. At the Battle of the Somme, in the first day of battle alone, more than 20,000 British soldiers were killed. Several months later, each side had suffered over half a million casualties. What did each side gain from these two great battles? Near Verdun, the Germans advanced about four miles. In the Somme valley, the British advanced about five miles.

During World War I, countries on both sides used the technology of the Industrial Revolution to help their armies. They invented new weapons and made older ones more deadly. One of these new weapons was the automatic **machine gun**. It fired so rapidly that a soldier's only protection was to take cover in the trenches. In 1915, Germany turned to **poison gas**, a mixture that choked and blinded its victims. The Allies quickly began using gas too. In 1916, the **tank** came into use. While millions of soldiers struggled on the ground, a handful of fighting men launched a

new kind of battle in the air. Here, **airplanes** took part in war for the first time in history. The age of the dogfight, or aerial battle, began. New weapons also changed the war at sea. Early in the war, Great Britain used its navy to blockade the North Sea coast in order to keep food and war materials from reaching Germany. The Germans fought back with a new invention, the **submarine** or **U-boat**. Germany would use its large fleet of U-boats to attack ships carrying food and war supplies to Britain.

World War I soon became a **total war**, meaning that countries devoted all their resources to the war effort. In each of the major countries fighting the war, the entire force of government was dedicated to winning the conflict by taking control of the economy. Governments told factories what to produce and how much. Numerous facilities were converted to munitions factories. Nearly every able-bodied civilian was put to work. So many goods were in short supply that governments turned to **rationing**.

In the past, most wars had been fought by professional soldiers. World War I was different. The long trench lines were manned by drafted civilians. In every country, the vast majority of men between 20 and 40 years of age were in military service for the duration of the war.

Governments also suppressed anti-war activity, censored news about the war, and used **propaganda** (one-sided information designed to persuade) to keep up morale and support for the war. All the warring countries used books, posters, and news reports to arouse hatred of the enemy.

Total war also meant that governments turned to help from women as never before. Thousands of women replaced men in factories, offices, and shops. Women built tanks and munitions, plowed fields, paved streets, and ran hospitals. They also kept troops supplied with food, clothing, and weapons. Although most women left the work force within the year the war ended, the war changed many people's views of what women were capable of doing.

A Global Conflict

As trench warfare became the primary characteristic on the Western Front, fighting on other fronts played a crucial role in tipping the balance between the Allies and the Central Powers. In the east, Russians and Serbs battled Austrians, Turks, and Germans. The war in the east was more a war of movement than in the west, but here too stalemate was common. But in 1914, the Germans crushed the invading Russians at the Battle of Tannenberg. Afterward, the Germans gradually pressed the Russians a back into their own land.

Russia never recovered from its defeat at Tannenberg. Short of food, guns, boots, and even blankets, the Russian army had only one asset – numbers. Russia's enormous populations was used to refill the ranks of the army despite over-whelming casualties. For more than three years, that army tied up hundreds of thousands of German troops in the east. Thus, Germany could never hurl its full fighting force at the west.

As the war dragged on, the Allies desperately searched for a way to end the stalemate. In February 1915, the British, Australian, New Zealand, and French troops made repeated assaults on the Dardanelles, the straits linking the Black and Mediterranean seas. The hoped to open the straits to send much needed supplies to Russia. Defending the straits were the Ottoman Turks, who had joined the Central Powers in October of 1914. The Allied assault, known as the **Gallipoli campaign**, turned into another bloody stalemate. After almost a year of fighting, the Allies were forced to give up.

Later, the British mounted more indirect campaigns against the Ottomans by organizing Arab nationalists in the Middle East. These campaigns were more successful than the direct attack on Turkey had been. Particularly devoted to the Arab cause was a British soldier named T.E. Lawrence, better known as Lawrence of Arabia, who led daring guerrilla raids against the Turks. The Arabs were eager to revolt against their Turkish overlords. Gradually, Allied forces took control of Baghdad, Jerusalem, and Damascus.

Far from the battlefields of Europe, places in Asia and Africa also saw fighting. Japan declared war against Germany within a few weeks after war had broken out in Europe. The Japanese quickly overran German possessions in China and captured most of Germany's Pacific island colonies. In Africa, the British and French conquered most of Germany's possessions. In German East Africa (modern Tanzania), however, Germany managed to hold out to the bitter end.

The United States Enters the War

Although the Central Powers had won important military successes in 1916, those efforts had nearly exhausted their resources and manpower. Food shortages were already critical because of the British blockade. Worse, Germany's potato crop failed in the summer of 1916.

Desperate to strike a decisive blow, Germany decided to take a new risk. On January 31, 1917, the Germans announced that their submarines would sink without warning any ship in the waters around Britain. This policy was called **unrestricted submarine warfare**.

The Germans had tried this policy earlier in the war. On May 7, 1915, a German U-boat had sunk the British passenger ship **Lusitania**, killing 1,198 people including 139 United States citizens. The attacks had outraged people in the United States. President Woodrow Wilson had sent a strong protest to Germany. The Germans, fearing that the United States would declare war, backed down. They agreed to give warning to ships of a neutral country before firing.

When the Germans returned to unrestricted submarine warfare in 1917, they knew their decision would lead to war with the United States. However, they hoped to starve Britain into defeat before the United States could mobilize. Three days after Germany announced its plans, President Woodrow Wilson warned Germany that the United States would take any action necessary to protect its citizens. Soon after, German U-boats sank three American ships bound for Great Britain.

In February 1917, another event added fuel to the fire. The British intercepted a telegram from Germany's foreign secretary, Arthur Zimmermann, to the German minister in Mexico. The message said that Germany would help Mexico "reconquer" the land it had lost to the United States if Mexico would ally itself with Germany. The British quickly decoded the message and gave it to the United States government.

When the **Zimmermann note** was made public, many Americans called for war against Germany. Even before news of the note, many Americans had sided with the Allies. A large part of the American population felt a bond with England. The two nations had shared a common ancestry and language, as well as similar democratic institutions and legal systems. In addition, reports - some true and others not - of German war atrocities stirred anti German sentiment in the United States. More importantly, America's economic ties with the Allies were far stronger than those with the Central Powers. America traded with Great Britain and France more than twice as much as with Germany. The Zimmermann note simply proved to be the final straw. On April 2, 1917, President Woodrow Wilson asked Congress to declare war. The United States entered the war on the side of the Allies.

This was much needed news for the Allies, as just a month earlier Czar Nicholas II had renounced his throne. Russia's suffering during the war had chipped away the people's support for the Czar. The new government hoped to continue fighting the war, but the Russian armies refused. Just months later, a new revolution struck. Communists seized Russia's government. They quickly signed the **Treaty of Brest-Litovsk** with Germany that gave up huge amounts of Russian territory in return for peace. In March 1918, Germany tried one final attack. Once again, the German army nearly reached Paris. The soldiers were tired, and supplies were short, thought. The Allies, now with fresh American troops, drove the Germans back.

Upon this news, Bulgaria and the Ottoman Empire surrendered. In October, a revolution toppled the emperor of Austria-Hungary. In November, Kaiser Wilhelm II was forced to step down in Germany. The new government agreed to stop fighting, and on November 11, 1918, the war was over.

The Cost of the War

The Cost of the War was staggering. Beyond the 8 million soldiers and 6 million civilians that lost their lives, World War I had shaken the economic and social foundations of Europe. A whole generation of young men had been struck down. France lost 20% of its men between the ages of 20 and 44, and Germany lost 15%. Almost every family in Europe had a son, a husband, or a brother who had been killed or maimed.

The war also left deep scars in the memories of those who survived. Among them were writers, painters, and composers who passed on their experiences to others through their works. Their bitterness and pessimism ran through much of the art and literatures of the 1920's and 1930's. Disillusioned and disheartened, these young people became known as the **Lost Generation**. Britain's under-secretary of the navy, Winston Churchill said that victory

had been “bought so dear as to be indistinguishable from defeat.”

A Flawed Peace

Peace talks were scheduled to be held in Paris. The main leaders, the so called **Big Three**, were Woodrow Wilson of the United States, Georges Clemenceau of France, and David Lloyd George of Britain. None of the defeated countries had been allowed to take part in the discussions. Their representatives were present now only to hear the verdict.

Wilson pushed for his peace plan called the **Fourteen Points**. He wanted to end secret treaties and alliances and give people the right to form their own nation, a policy known as **self-determination**. Self-determination meant allowing people to decide for themselves under what government they wished to live. In short, Wilson hoped to end imperialism. He also hoped to establish a **League of Nations**, a world organization that could police the actions of nations and prevent future wars. His Fourteen Points also argued for freedom of the seas, the ending of secret treaties, removing economic barriers to trade, and reducing the size of national armies and navies.

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

The treaty established the League of Nations, as Wilson had hoped. It would include 32 nations, with the United States, Britain, France, Japan, and Italy making up the leadership. Germany and Russia were left out of the League. The treaty took away German land in Europe and its colonies. Limits were placed on the size of Germany's armed forces. France regained Alsace-Lorraine and won the right to work the rich mines of the Saar basin for 15 years. After that time, the people of the Saar region were to have the right to rejoin Germany if they so wished.

Poland once again became an independent nation. The new Poland received a large strip of German land called the **Polish Corridor**. This strip cut off East Prussia from the rest of Germany and gave Poland access to the Baltic Sea.

The treaty had many clauses designed to keep Germans from ever again threatening the peace. The size of the German army was strictly limited. Germany could not manufacture war material. Submarines and airplanes were also banned. Furthermore, the Germans were forbidden to place any troops in the **Rhineland**, a strip of land in western Germany between the Rhine River and the French border.

Finally, Germany was given complete blame for the war in came to be known as the **war guilt clause**. Germany therefore, would be required to pay **reparations** (payments for war damage) to the Allies for the damage caused. The final reparations bill came to \$31 billion, which Germany was to pay over the next 30 years.

Other Treaties Created New Nations

The Versailles treaty with Germany was just one of five signed in Paris during 1919 and 1920. The other Central Powers also suffered losses in territory. However, out of the ashes of these old empires, Wilson's idea of national self-determination guided the creation of several new nations.

Turkey was forced to give up almost all of their old empire. Their territory was limited to what is now the country of Turkey. The lands that the Ottomans lost in Southwest Asia were formed into several new territories: Iraq, Lebanon, Palestine, Transjordan, and Syria. These areas became **mandates**, (a territory that was administered on behalf of the League of Nations). The League of Nations assigned control of Palestine, Iraq, and Transjordan to Great Britain, Syria and Lebanon went to France. The treaty also recognized the independence of Saudi Arabia.

Several new countries were carved out of the Austro-Hungarian Empire. Austria and Hungary were both recognized as independent nations. However, they lost some territory to the newly formed countries of Poland, Czechoslovakia, and Yugoslavia. Even before the peace treaty was signed, Germany had to cancel the severe Treaty of Brest-Litovsk in which Germany had taken about a fourth of Russia's European territory. Even so, Russia ended by losing more land than Germany. The Allies, fearful of Russia's new revolutionary government, wanted to protect Russia's neighbors to the west. As a result Russia lost land to both Romania and Poland. Finland, Estonia, Latvia, and Lithuania, which had all declared their independence from Russia in 1918, were recognized as nations.

The new country of Czechoslovakia included a region called the **Sudetenland**. Some 3 million Germans lived in this border region. Furthermore, the treaties forbade any union between Germany and the now tiny state of Austria,

whose 6 million people were nearly all German speaking.

The United States Rejected the Treaty

Across the Atlantic, many Americans objected to the Treaty of Versailles, especially to the League of Nations. Some believed that the United States' best hope for peace was to stay out of European affairs. Other Americans feared the League might undermine the powers of Congress in foreign affairs. They wanted to be sure, for example, that no American soldiers could be ordered to fight without Congress's consent. After a bitter debate, the United States Senate refused to join the League of Nations or accept the Treaty of Versailles. The United States worked out a separate treaty with Germany and its allies several years later.

In the end, the Treaty of Versailles did little to build a lasting peace. Instead, it left a legacy of bitterness and hatred. In the hearts of the German people. Other countries felt cheated and betrayed by the peace settlements. Lacking the support of several world powers, the League of Nations was in no position to take action on these complaints. It was, as one observer described it, "a peace built on quicksand."

(ISN) Interactive Student Notebook Assignments

1. Copied content specific questions

(ISN) Discussion and Study Questions

1. Guiding Questions

Vocabulary

[Quizlet Flashcards for World War I](#)

TABLE 14.1:

imperialism	the policy of extending the rule or authority of an empire or nation over foreign countries.
nationalism	the belief that peoples' main loyalty should be to their nation and to the people whom they share a common culture and history.
militarism	a policy of glorifying military power and keeping a standing army prepared for war.
Alliance System	defensive military agreements between European nations that were meant to preserve the balance of power in Europe, but instead became one of the causes for dragging all of the Great Powers into World War I.
Franz Ferdinand	heir to the throne of Austria-Hungary whose assassination in 1914 would begin a chain of events that launched World War I.
trench warfare	a form of warfare in which opposing armies fight each other from trenches dug into the battlefield.
Armenian genocide	mass murder committed during WWI by the Ottoman Turks against approximately one million Christians who lived in the Ottoman Empire.
Woodrow Wilson	President of the U.S. during WW I who presented his 14 Points at the Paris Peace Conference at the close of war.

TABLE 14.1: (continued)

Fourteen Points	President Woodrow Wilson's plan for peace at the Paris Peace Conference of 1919.
League of Nations	an international organization proposed by U.S. President Woodrow to promote disarmament and prevent future wars.
mandate system	the system established after World War I to administer former territories of the German and Ottoman empires, essentially where the victors took control of conquered territories as the spoils of war.

TABLE 14.2:

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14.2 The Russian Revolution of 1917

13.2 The Russian Revolution of 1917

Student Learning Objectives

At the end of this section the student will be able to

- identify major causes and describe the major effects of the following important turning points in world history from 1914 to the present: the world wars and their impact on political, economic, and social systems; communist revolutions and their impact on the Cold War; independence movements; and globalization.[WHS.1F]
- identify the causes of the February (March) and October revolutions of 1917 in Russia, their effects on the outcome of World War I, and the Bolshevik establishment of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics.[WHS.10D]
- analyze information by sequencing, categorizing, identifying cause-and-effect relationships, comparing, contrasting, finding the main idea, summarizing, making generalizations and predictions, drawing inferences and conclusions, and developing connections between historical events over time.[WHS.29F]
- use social studies terminology correctly.[WHS.30A]
- use standard grammar, spelling, sentence structure, and punctuation.[WHS.30B]
- interpret and create written, oral, and visual presentations of social studies information.[WHS.30C]
- transfer information from one medium to another.[WHS.30D]

The Russian Revolution of 1917 was one of the most significant events in the 20th century, and marked one of the most radical turning points in Russia's 1,300-year history. The Russian Revolution removed Russia from WWI and brought about the transformation of Russia into the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics (USSR). It replaced Russia's traditional monarchy with the world's first Communist state. The new communist government, led by Vladimir Lenin, would solidify its power only after three years of civil war. The revolution affected economics, social structure, culture, international relations, industrial development, and most any other benchmark by which one might measure a revolution. Although the new government would prove to be at least as repressive as the one it replaced, the country's new rulers were drawn largely from the intellectual and working classes rather than from the aristocracy—which meant a considerable change in direction for Russia. Over the next several decades, the Soviet Union would actively sponsor and assist Communist movements and revolutions around the world in an effort to broaden its sphere of influence.

Causes

The Russian Revolution was the culmination of a long period of repression and unrest. From the time of Peter the Great, the czarist government had increasingly become an autocratic bureaucracy that imposed its will on the people by force, with wanton disregard for human life and liberty.

In 1881, student revolutionaries who were angry over the slow pace of political change assassinated Alexander II, a reform-minded czar. When his son, Alexander III took the throne, he halted all reforms in Russia, clinging to the principles of "autocracy, orthodoxy, and nationality." To wipe out revolutionaries, Alexander III used harsh measures. He imposed strict censorship on published materials and written documents, including private letters. His secret police carefully watched both secondary schools and universities. Political prisoners were exiled to Siberia.

To establish a uniform Russian culture, Alexander III oppressed other national groups within Russia. He made Russian the official language of the empire and forbade the use of minority languages, such as Polish, in schools. Alexander made Jews the special target of persecution, leading to a wave of **pogroms** – organized violence against

Jews – where police and soldiers stood by and watched Russian citizens loot and destroy Jewish homes, stores, and synagogues.

When **Nicolas II** became czar in 1894, he was determined to maintain the principle of autocracy. Russia, however, was slowly industrializing, which only further spread discontent. Grueling working conditions, miserably low wages and child labor were common, while trade unions were outlawed. As the gap between the rich and poor grew, exploited laborers who worked in factories and built the railway lines organized strikes.

Amid the widespread unrest of workers and other members of Russian society, various revolutionary movements began to grow and compete for power. The group that would eventually succeed in establishing a new government in Russia followed the views of **Karl Marx**. These revolutionaries believed that the industrial class of workers would overthrow the czar. The industrial class would then form “a dictatorship of the proletariat.” In such a state, the workers would rule. One such Marxist group the, **Bolsheviks**, supported the idea that change could best be brought about by a small number of committed revolutionaries willing to sacrifice everything for radical change. The major leader of the Bolsheviks was Vladimir Ilyich Ulyanov, who adopted the name of **Lenin**. He had an engaging personality, was an excellent organizer, and was ruthless. In the early 1900’s, Lenin fled to Western Europe to avoid arrest by the czarist regime. He maintained contact with other Bolsheviks until he believed he could safely return to Russia.

Crisis at Home and Abroad

The revolutionaries would not have to wait long to realize their visions. Between 1904 and 1917, Russia faced a series of crisis. These events showed the czar’s weakness and paved the way for revolution.

Bloody Sunday: The Revolution of 1905

The year 1905 revealed all too clearly Czar Nicholas II’s perceived indifference, brutality, and weakness. On Sunday, January 9, a crowd of over 100,000 marched peacefully through the center of St. Petersburg, eventually assembling in front of the Czar’s Winter Palace. Unaware that the tsar was not in town that day, they called for the tsar to appear so that they could present him with a petition.

The police, who had just finished putting down a series of strikes by industrial workers, followed their standing orders to get rid of any problems. Their solution was to open fire on the crowd, which included women and children as well as church leaders. As the crowd scattered, police pursued them on horseback, continuing to fire on them. Many in the crowd were trampled to death in the ensuing panic. Estimates of the total death toll range from a few hundred to several thousand.

News of the massacre spread quickly, and many saw it as a sign that the tsar no longer cared about his people. The incident earned Nicholas the title “Nicholas the Bloody” even though he did not in fact know about the violence until it was already over. An unorganized series of demonstrations, riots, strikes, and assorted episodes of violence erupted across Russia in the following months.

The Russian Constitution and Duma

Any chance for Nicholas II to regain his standing was soon lost, as Russia was rocked by a long series of disasters, scandals, and political failures. During the first half of 1905, Russia suffered a humiliating military defeat against Japan in the **Russo-Japanese War**. Later in the year, the tsar reluctantly gave in to heavy political pressure and granted Russia its first constitution. Permission to form Russia’s first parliament, called the **Duma**, was also soon granted.

The leaders of the first Duma that met in May 1906 were moderates who wanted Russia to become a constitutional monarchy similar to Britain. Hesitant to share his power, the czar dissolved the Duma after ten weeks. Other Dumas would meet later. Yet none would have real power to make sweeping reforms.

In the meantime, Nicholas’s own family became the subject of a different sort of crisis. His wife, Alexandra, had begun consulting with a mystic peasant named **Grigory Rasputin** in a desperate attempt to help her hemophilic son, Alexis. It seemed to her that Rasputin had the ability to ease the boy’s symptoms. In time, the self-proclaimed monk Rasputin gained political influence over the tsar through his wife, while at the same time engaging in scandalous

sexual escapades throughout the Russian capital. Rumors quickly spread that Rasputin had magical powers and that he had the entire royal family under some sort of spell.

World War I

It was in the midst of this scandal that Nicholas drew Russia into World War I in the summer of 1914. In 1915, Nicholas moved his headquarters to the war front. From there, he hoped to rally his discouraged troops to victory. His wife, Czarina Alexandra, ran the government while he was away, ignoring the czar's chief advisers and, instead continuing to fall under the influence of Rasputin. The war was a disaster for Russia: it caused inflation, plunged the country into a food shortage, and ultimately cost the lives of nearly 5 million Russian soldiers and civilians, as well as a series of humiliating military defeats. As in the Russo-Japanese War, Russia's involvement in World War I revealed the weaknesses of czarist rule and military leadership.

The war was the final straw for the Russian people. In 1916, a group of nobles murdered Rasputin, fearing his increasing role in government affairs. But it was too late, as popular discontentment was at an all-time high. Soldiers mutinied, deserted, or ignored orders. On the home-front, food and fuel supplies were dwindling. Prices were wildly inflated. People from all classes were clamoring for change and an end to the war. Neither Nicholas nor Alexandra proved capable of tackling these enormous problems.

The March Revolution

With Russia faring poorly in World War I and facing severe food shortages, strikes and public protests happened in the country with increasing frequency during 1916 and early 1917. Violent encounters between protesters and authorities also increased.

On February 23, 1917, a large gathering of working-class women convened in the center of Petrograd to mark International Women's Day. The gathering took the form of a protest demonstration calling for "bread and peace." While the demonstration began peacefully, the next morning it turned violent as the women were joined by hundreds of thousands of male workers who went on strike and flooded the streets, openly calling for an end to the war and even to the monarchy. Feeding on their outrage with each passing day, the demonstrations became larger and rowdier, and the outnumbered police were unable to control the crowds.

With news of the unrest, Tsar Nicholas II, who was away visiting his troops on the front, sent a telegram to Petrograd's military commander on February 25, ordering him to bring an end to the riots by the next day. In their efforts to carry out the tsar's order, several troops of a local guard regiment fired upon the crowds on February 26. The regiment fell into chaos, as many soldiers felt more empathy for the crowds than for the tsar. The next day, more than 80,000 troops mutinied and joined with the crowds, in many cases directly fighting the police.

The events in March of 1917 forced Czar Nicholas II to abdicate his throne. The Czarist rule of the Romanov dynasty, which spanned over three centuries, had finally collapsed. The March Revolution succeeded in bringing down the czar, yet it failed to set up a strong government to replace his regime.

Leaders of the Duma established a provisional government under the leadership of Alexander Kerensky. His decision to continue fighting the war cost him the support of both soldiers and civilians. As the war dragged on, conditions inside Russia worsened. Angry peasants demanded land. City workers grew more radical. Social revolutionaries, competing for power formed **soviets**. Soviets were local councils consisting of workers, peasants, and soldiers. In many cities especially Petrograd, the soviets had more influence than the provisional government.

The Bolshevik Revolution

The Germans launched their own "secret weapon" that would erode the provisional government's authority. They arranged Lenin's return to Russia after many years of exile. The Germans believed that Lenin and his Bolshevik supporters would stir unrest in Russia and hurt the Russian war effort. Traveling in a sealed railway boxcar, Lenin reached Petrograd in April 1917.

Lenin and the Bolsheviks recognized their opportunity to seize power. They soon gained control of the Petrograd soviet, as well as the soviets in other major Russian cities. By the fall of 1917, people in the cities were rallying to the call, "All power to the Soviets." Lenin's slogan of "**Peace, Land, and Bread,**" was gaining widespread appeal.

Lenin decided to take action.

In November 1917, without warning, Bolshevik Red Guards made up of armed factory workers stormed the Winter Palace in Petrograd. They took over government offices and arrested the leaders of the provisional government. The Bolshevik Revolution was over in a matter of hours. Not a single shot was fired, as those appointed to guard these sites either fled or were disarmed without incident. Even the headquarters of the General Staff—the army headquarters—was taken without resistance.

After Lenin's government secured power, one of its first major goals was to get Russia out of the World War. In November 1917, the new government ordered Russian troops to cease all hostilities on the front. In March of 1918, Russian and Germany signed the **Treaty of Brest-Litovsk**.

Russia's exit from the war was very costly, but Lenin was desperate to end the war at any cost, as the Germans were threatening to . In the peace, Lenin consented to give up most of Russia's territorial gains since the time of Peter the Great. The lost territories included Finland, Poland, Latvia, Lithuania, Estonia, Ukraine, Belarus, Bessarabia, and the Caucasus region, along with some of the coal-mining lands of . The Soviets would not regain these territories until the end of World War II.

Civil War Rages in Russia

Still recovering from their painful losses of land to Germany, the Bolsheviks now face a new challenge – stamping out their enemies at home. Their opponents formed the White Army. The revolutionary leader, Leon Trotsky, who helped negotiate the Treaty of Brest-Litovsk expertly commanded the Bolshevik Red Army. From 1918 to 1920, civil war raged in Russia. Several Western nations, including the United States, sent military aid and forces to Russia to help the White Army.

Russia's civil war proved far more deadly than the earlier revolutions, and even deadlier than its involvement in World War I. Around 15 million Russians died in the three-year struggle and in the famine that followed. The destruction and loss of life from fighting, hunger, and a worldwide flu epidemic left Russia in chaos.

In the end the Red Army triumphed and finally crushed all opposition to Bolshevik rule. The victory showed that the Bolsheviks were able both to seize power and to maintain it. Yet in the aftermath of the civil war, Lenin and the Bolsheviks faced over-whelming problems.

Lenin's New Economic Policy

War and revolution destroyed the Russian economy. Trade was at a standstill. Industrial production dropped and many skilled workers fled to other countries. Lenin, who helped mastermind the Bolshevik Revolution, shifted his role. He turned to reviving the economy and restructuring the government.

In March 1921, Lenin launched the **New Economic Policy (NEP)** by temporarily putting aside his plan for a state-controlled economy. Instead, he resorted to a small-scale version of capitalism. The reforms under the NEP allowed peasants to sell their surplus crops instead of turning them over to the government. Individuals could buy and sell goods for profit. The government kept control of major industries, banks, and means of communication, but it let some small factories, businesses, and farms operate under private ownership. Lenin also tried to encourage foreign investment.

Political Reforms

The many different nationalities within Russia had always posed an obstacle to national unity. Communist leaders also saw nationalism as a threat to unity and party loyalty. To keep nationalism in check, Lenin organized Russia into several self-governing republics under the central government. In 1922, the country was named the **Union of Soviet Socialist Republics (USSR)**, in honor of the councils that helped launch the Bolshevik Revolution. Each republic was controlled from the new capital, Moscow.

The Bolsheviks also renamed their party the Communist Party. The name came from the writings of Karl Marx. He had used the word communism to describe the classless society that would exist after the workers had seized

power. In 1924, the Communists created a constitution based on socialist and democratic principles. In reality, the Communist Party held all the power. Lenin had established a dictatorship of the Communist Party, not “a dictatorship of the proletariat,” as Marx had promoted. Thanks partly to the new policies and to the peace that followed the civil war, the USSR slowly recovered. By 1928, the country’s farms and factories were producing as much as they had before World War I. Lenin did not live to see this recovery. He had several strokes and spent the last 18 months of his life as a semi-invalid. His death in 1924 would open a power struggle for control of the party and the country. Eventually, Lenin’s successor, Joseph Stalin, would build a totalitarian state in the USSR, dramatically transforming the government and controlling every aspect of citizen’s life.

(ISN) Interactive Student Notebook Assignments

1. Copied content specific questions

(ISN) Discussion and Study Questions

1. Guiding Questions

Vocabulary

[Quizlet for the Russian Revolution of 1917](#)

TABLE 14.3:

Russian Revolution	ended czarist rule in Russia, put into place a provisional government, and later, brought about Bolshevik communist control of a new Soviet Union.
Nicholas II	the last Tsar of Russia and of the Romanov dynasty, deposed of his powers in the 1917 October Revolution.
Vladimir Lenin	leader of the communist Bolsheviks who overthrew the Russian provisional government in 1917 and ruled the Soviet Union until 1924.
Bolsheviks	the Russian communists, led by Vladimir Lenin, who overthrew the Russian provisional government in the October Revolution of 1917.
October Revolution	the second of two revolutions taking place in Russia in 1917 in which the Bolshevik communists took control of Russian government.
Russian Civil War	a conflict fought between Bolshevik communist armies (reds) and those opposed to their takeover of the Russian government (whites) from 1918 to 1920.
USSR	acronym for the United Soviet Socialist Republic, or, the Soviet Union.

The Russian Revolution of 1917 was one of the most significant events in the 20th century, and marked one of the most radical turning points in Russia’s 1,300-year history. The Russian Revolution removed Russia from WWI and brought about the transformation of Russia into the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics (USSR). It replaced Russia’s traditional monarchy with the world’s first Communist state. The new communist government, led by Vladimir Lenin, would solidify its power only after three years of civil war. The revolution affected economics, social structure, culture, international relations, industrial development, and most any other benchmark by which one might measure a revolution. Although the new government would prove to be at least as repressive as the one it

replaced, the country's new rulers were drawn largely from the intellectual and working classes rather than from the aristocracy—which meant a considerable change in direction for Russia. Over the next several decades, the Soviet Union would actively sponsor and assist Communist movements and revolutions around the world in an effort to broaden its sphere of influence.

Causes

The Russian Revolution was the culmination of a long period of repression and unrest. From the time of Peter the Great, the czarist government had increasingly become an autocratic bureaucracy that imposed its will on the people by force, with wanton disregard for human life and liberty.

In 1881, student revolutionaries who were angry over the slow pace of political change assassinated Alexander II, a reform-minded czar. When his son, Alexander III took the throne, he halted all reforms in Russia, clinging to the principles of “autocracy, orthodoxy, and nationality.” To wipe out revolutionaries, Alexander III used harsh measures. He imposed strict censorship on published materials and written documents, including private letters. His secret police carefully watched both secondary schools and universities. Political prisoners were exiled to Siberia.

To establish a uniform Russian culture, Alexander III oppressed other national groups within Russia. He made Russian the official language of the empire and forbade the use of minority languages, such as Polish, in schools. Alexander made Jews the special target of persecution, leading to a wave of **pogroms** – organized violence against Jews – where police and soldiers stood by and watched Russian citizens loot and destroy Jewish homes, stores, and synagogues.

When **Nicolas II** became czar in 1894, he was determined to maintain the principle of autocracy. Russia, however, was slowly industrializing, which only further spread discontent. Grueling working conditions, miserably low wages and child labor were common, while trade unions were outlawed. As the gap between the rich and poor grew, exploited laborers who worked in factories and built the railway lines organized strikes.

Amid the widespread unrest of workers and other members of Russian society, various revolutionary movements began to grow and compete for power. The group that would eventually succeed in establishing a new government in Russia followed the views of **Karl Marx**. These revolutionaries believed that the industrial class of workers would overthrow the czar. The industrial class would then form “a dictatorship of the proletariat.” In such a state, the workers would rule. One such Marxist group the, **Bolsheviks**, supported the idea that change could best be brought about by a small number of committed revolutionaries willing to sacrifice everything for radical change. The major leader of the Bolsheviks was Vladimir Ilyich Ulyanov, who adopted the name of **Lenin**. He had an engaging personality, was an excellent organizer, and was ruthless. In the early 1900's, Lenin fled to Western Europe to avoid arrest by the czarist regime. He maintained contact with other Bolsheviks until he believed he could safely return to Russia.

Crisis at Home and Abroad

The revolutionaries would not have to wait long to realize their visions. Between 1904 and 1917, Russia faced a series of crisis. These events showed the czar's weakness and paved the way for revolution.

Bloody Sunday: The Revolution of 1905

The year 1905 revealed all too clearly Czar Nicholas II's perceived indifference, brutality, and weakness. On Sunday, January 9, a crowd of over 100,000 marched peacefully through the center of St. Petersburg, eventually assembling in front of the Czar's Winter Palace. Unaware that the tsar was not in town that day, they called for the tsar to appear so that they could present him with a petition.

The police, who had just finished putting down a series of strikes by industrial workers, followed their standing orders to get rid of any problems. Their solution was to open fire on the crowd, which included women and children as well as church leaders. As the crowd scattered, police pursued them on horseback, continuing to fire on them. Many in the crowd were trampled to death in the ensuing panic. Estimates of the total death toll range from a few hundred to several thousand.

News of the massacre spread quickly, and many saw it as a sign that the tsar no longer cared about his people. The incident earned Nicholas the title "Nicholas the Bloody" even though he did not in fact know about the violence until it was already over. An unorganized series of demonstrations, riots, strikes, and assorted episodes of violence erupted across Russia in the following months.

The Russian Constitution and Duma

Any chance for Nicholas II to regain his standing was soon lost, as Russia was rocked by a long series of disasters, scandals, and political failures. During the first half of 1905, Russia suffered a humiliating military defeat against Japan in the **Russo-Japanese War**. Later in the year, the tsar reluctantly gave in to heavy political pressure and granted Russia its first constitution. Permission to form Russia's first parliament, called the **Duma**, was also soon granted.

The leaders of the first Duma that met in May 1906 were moderates who wanted Russia to become a constitutional monarchy similar to Britain. Hesitant to share his power, the czar dissolved the Duma after ten weeks. Other Dumas would meet later. Yet none would have real power to make sweeping reforms.

In the meantime, Nicholas's own family became the subject of a different sort of crisis. His wife, Alexandra, had begun consulting with a mystic peasant named **Grigory Rasputin** in a desperate attempt to help her hemophilic son, Alexis. It seemed to her that Rasputin had the ability to ease the boy's symptoms. In time, the self-proclaimed monk Rasputin gained political influence over the tsar through his wife, while at the same time engaging in scandalous sexual escapades throughout the Russian capital. Rumors quickly spread that Rasputin had magical powers and that he had the entire royal family under some sort of spell.

World War I

It was in the midst of this scandal that Nicholas drew Russia into World War I in the summer of 1914. In 1915, Nicholas moved his headquarters to the war front. From there, he hoped to rally his discouraged troops to victory. His wife, Czarina Alexandra, ran the government while he was away, ignoring the czar's chief advisers and, instead

continuing to fall under the influence of Rasputin. The war was a disaster for Russia: it caused inflation, plunged the country into a food shortage, and ultimately cost the lives of nearly 5 million Russian soldiers and civilians, as well as a series of humiliating military defeats. As in the Russo-Japanese War, Russia's involvement in World War I revealed the weaknesses of czarist rule and military leadership.

The war was the final straw for the Russian people. In 1916, a group of nobles murdered Rasputin, fearing his increasing role in government affairs. But it was too late, as popular discontentment was at an all-time high. Soldiers mutinied, deserted, or ignored orders. On the home-front, food and fuel supplies were dwindling. Prices were wildly inflated. People from all classes were clamoring for change and an end to the war. Neither Nicholas nor Alexandra proved capable of tackling these enormous problems.

The March Revolution

With Russia faring poorly in World War I and facing severe food shortages, strikes and public protests happened in the country with increasing frequency during 1916 and early 1917. Violent encounters between protesters and authorities also increased.

On February 23, 1917, a large gathering of working-class women convened in the center of Petrograd to mark International Women's Day. The gathering took the form of a protest demonstration calling for "bread and peace." While the demonstration began peacefully, the next morning it turned violent as the women were joined by hundreds of thousands of male workers who went on strike and flooded the streets, openly calling for an end to the war and even to the monarchy. Feeding on their outrage with each passing day, the demonstrations became larger and rowdier, and the outnumbered police were unable to control the crowds.

With news of the unrest, Tsar Nicholas II, who was away visiting his troops on the front, sent a telegram to Petrograd's military commander on February 25, ordering him to bring an end to the riots by the next day. In their efforts to carry out the tsar's order, several troops of a local guard regiment fired upon the crowds on February 26. The regiment fell into chaos, as many soldiers felt more empathy for the crowds than for the tsar. The next day, more than 80,000 troops mutinied and joined with the crowds, in many cases directly fighting the police.

The events in March of 1917 forced Czar Nicholas II to abdicate his throne. The Czarist rule of the Romanov dynasty, which spanned over three centuries, had finally collapsed. The March Revolution succeeded in bringing down the czar, yet it failed to set up a strong government to replace his regime.

Leaders of the Duma established a provisional government under the leadership of Alexander Kerensky. His decision to continue fighting the war cost him the support of both soldiers and civilians. As the war dragged on, conditions inside Russia worsened. Angry peasants demanded land. City workers grew more radical. Social revolutionaries, competing for power formed **soviets**. Soviets were local councils consisting of workers, peasants, and soldiers. In many cities especially Petrograd, the soviets had more influence than the provisional government.

The Bolshevik Revolution

The Germans launched their own "secret weapon" that would erode the provisional government's authority. They arranged Lenin's return to Russia after many years of exile. The Germans believed that Lenin and his Bolshevik

supporters would stir unrest in Russia and hurt the Russian war effort. Traveling in a sealed railway boxcar, Lenin reached Petrograd in April 1917.

Lenin and the Bolsheviks recognized their opportunity to seize power. They soon gained control of the Petrograd soviet, as well as the soviets in other major Russian cities. By the fall of 1917, people in the cities were rallying to the call, “All power to the Soviets.” Lenin’s slogan of “**Peace, Land, and Bread,**” was gaining widespread appeal. Lenin decided to take action.

In November 1917, without warning, Bolshevik Red Guards made up of armed factory workers stormed the Winter Palace in Petrograd. They took over government offices and arrested the leaders of the provisional government. The Bolshevik Revolution was over in a matter of hours. Not a single shot was fired, as those appointed to guard these sites either fled or were disarmed without incident. Even the headquarters of the General Staff—the army headquarters—was taken without resistance.

After Lenin’s government secured power, one of its first major goals was to get Russia out of the World War. In November 1917, the new government ordered Russian troops to cease all hostilities on the front. In March of 1918, Russian and Germany signed the **Treaty of Brest-Litovsk**.

Russia’s exit from the war was very costly, but Lenin was desperate to end the war at any cost, as the Germans were threatening to invade Petrograd. In the peace, Lenin consented to give up most of Russia’s territorial gains since the time of Peter the Great. The lost territories included Finland, Poland, Latvia, Lithuania, Estonia, Ukraine, Belarus, Bessarabia, and the Caucasus region, along with some of the coal-mining lands of southern Russia. The Soviets would not regain these territories until the end of World War II.

Civil War Rages in Russia

Still recovering from their painful losses of land to Germany, the Bolsheviks now face a new challenge – stamping out their enemies at home. Their opponents formed the White Army. The revolutionary leader, Leon Trotsky, who helped negotiate the Treaty of Brest-Litovsk expertly commanded the Bolshevik Red Army. From 1918 to 1920, civil war raged in Russia. Several Western nations, including the United States, sent military aid and forces to Russia to help the White Army.

Russia’s civil war proved far more deadly than the earlier revolutions, and even deadlier than its involvement in World War I. Around 15 million Russians died in the three-year struggle and in the famine that followed. The destruction and loss of life from fighting, hunger, and a worldwide flu epidemic left Russia in chaos.

In the end the Red Army triumphed and finally crushed all opposition to Bolshevik rule. The victory showed that the Bolsheviks were able both to seize power and to maintain it. Yet in the aftermath of the civil war, Lenin and the Bolsheviks faced over-whelming problems.

Lenin’s New Economic Policy

War and revolution destroyed the Russian economy. Trade was at a standstill. Industrial production dropped and

many skilled workers fled to other countries. Lenin, who helped mastermind the Bolshevik Revolution, shifted his role. He turned to reviving the economy and restructuring the government.

In March 1921, Lenin launched the **New Economic Policy (NEP)** by temporarily putting aside his plan for a state-controlled economy. Instead, he resorted to a small-scale version of capitalism. The reforms under the NEP allowed peasants to sell their surplus crops instead of turning them over to the government. Individuals could buy and sell goods for profit. The government kept control of major industries, banks, and means of communication, but it let some small factories, businesses, and farms operate under private ownership. Lenin also tried to encourage foreign investment.

Political Reforms

The many different nationalities within Russia had always posed an obstacle to national unity. Communist leaders also saw nationalism as a threat to unity and party loyalty. To keep nationalism in check, Lenin organized Russia into several self-governing republics under the central government. In 1922, the country was named the **Union of Soviet Socialist Republics (USSR)**, in honor of the councils that helped launch the Bolshevik Revolution. Each republic was controlled from the new capital, Moscow.

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Thanks partly to the new policies and to the peace that followed the civil war, the USSR slowly recovered. By 1928, the country’s farms and factories were producing as much as they had before World War I. Lenin did not live to see this recovery. He had several strokes and spent the last 18 months of his life as a semi-invalid. His death in 1924 would open a power struggle for control of the party and the country. Eventually, Lenin’s successor, Joseph Stalin, would build a totalitarian state in the USSR, dramatically transforming the government and controlling every aspect of citizen’s life.

13.1 World War I

Student Learning Objectives

At the end of this section the student will be able to:

...

(ISN) Interactive Student Notebook Assignments

1. Copied content specific questions

(ISN) Discussion and Study Questions

1. Guiding Questions

Vocabulary

[Quizlet Flashcards for World War I](#)

14.3 The Mexican Revolution

13.3 The Mexican Revolution

Student Learning Objectives

At the end of this section the student will be able to

- trace the influence of the American and French revolutions on Latin America, including the role of Simón Bolívar.[WHS.9C]
- identify the influence of ideas such as separation of powers, checks and balances, liberty, equality, democracy, popular sovereignty, human rights, constitutionalism, and nationalism on political revolutions.[WHS.9D]
- describe how people have participated in supporting or changing their governments.[WHS.21A]
- describe the rights and responsibilities of citizens and noncitizens in civic participation throughout history.[WHS.21B]
- analyze information by sequencing, categorizing, identifying cause-and-effect relationships, comparing, contrasting, finding the main idea, summarizing, making generalizations and predictions, drawing inferences and conclusions, and developing connections between historical events over time.[WHS.29F]
- use social studies terminology correctly.[WHS.30A]
- use standard grammar, spelling, sentence structure, and punctuation.[WHS.30B]
- interpret and create written, oral, and visual presentations of social studies information.[WHS.30C]

The Mexican Revolution has been called “the defining event” in the history of modern Mexico. The tumultuous, epic struggle was born out of three-and-a-half decades of autocratic rule by military strong man Porfirio Diaz. His ouster in 1911 unleashed a violent competition for political and economic reform that would eventually pave the way for a new national constitution that would bring much needed reform and stability to Mexico. By the end of the conflict, The Institutional Revolutionary Party (PRI) had established itself as the primary political party in Mexico that would rule for 71 years.

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

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

Another important leader of the middle 1800’s was **Benito Juarez**. A Zapotec Indian, Juarez wanted to improve conditions for the poor in Mexico. He led a movement called *La Reforma* – the reform – that aimed at breaking the power of the large landowners and giving more schooling to the poor. He and his liberal supporters won control of the government in 1858. The conservatives who opposed them did not give up, however. They plotted with France to retake Mexico. In 1862, Napoleon III of France sent an army that captured the country in 18 months. He named a European noble as emperor. But, Juarez and his followers kept fighting. Five years later, they drove the French from Mexican soil and killed the emperor.

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

Elections became meaningless. Diaz offered land, power, or political favors to anyone who supported him. He terrorized many who didn't support him, ordering them to be beaten or put in jail.

By the early 1900's, Mexicans from many walks of life began to protest Diaz's harsh rule. Idealistic liberals hungered for liberty. Farm laborers hungered for land. Workers hungered for fairer wages and better working conditions. Even some of Diaz's hand-picked political allies spoke out for reform. A variety of political parties began to form. Among the most powerful was a party led by **Francisco Madero**.

Madero Begins the Revolution

Born into one of Mexico's ten richest families, Francisco Madero was educated in the United States and France. He believed in democracy and wanted to strengthen its hold in Mexico. Madero announced his candidacy for president of Mexico early in 1910. Soon afterward, Diaz had him arrested. From exile in the United States, Madero called for an armed revolution against Diaz.

The Mexican Revolution began slowly. Leaders arose in different parts of Mexico and gathered their own armies. In the north, cowboy Francisco "Pancho" Villa became immensely popular. He had a bold Robin-Hood policy of taking money from the rich and giving it to the poor. South of Mexico City, another strong, popular leader, Emiliano Zapata, raised a powerful revolutionary army. Like Villa, Zapata came from a poor family. He was determined to see that land was returned to peasants and small farmers. He wanted the laws reformed to protect their rights. "*Tierra y Libertad* – Land and Liberty – was his battle cry. Villa, Zapata, and other armed revolutionaries won important victories against Diaz's army. By the spring of 1911, Diaz agreed to step down and called for new elections.

Madero was elected president in November 1911. But he had a difficult time holding on to power. He resigned and was murdered shortly afterward. The military leader General Victoriano Huerta then took over the presidency. Huerta was unpopular with many people, including Villa and Zapata. These revolutionary leaders allied themselves with another politician who also wanted to overthrow Huerta. His name was Venustiano Carranza. Their three armies advanced seizing the Mexican countryside from Huerta's forces and approaching Mexico City. They overthrew Huerta only 15 months after he took power.

Carranza took over the government. He then turned his army on his former revolutionary allies. Both Villa and Zapata continued to fight. In 1919, however, Carranza lured Zapata into a trap and murdered him. With Zapata's death, the civil war also came to an end. More than a million Mexicans had lost their lives.

The New Mexican Constitution

Carranza began a revision of Mexico's constitution. It was adopted in 1917. A revolutionary document, that constitution is still in effect today. It promoted education and rights for workers and women. The constitution also called for breaking up large landholdings and limiting foreign ownership of business. Carranza didn't support the final version of the constitution, however, and in 1920, he was overthrown by his former general, Alvaro Obregon.

Although Obregon seized power violently, he did not remain a dictator. Instead, he supported the reforms the constitution called for. He also promoted public education. Mexican public schools taught a common language, Spanish, and stressed nationalism. In this way, his policies helped unite the various regions and peoples of the country. Nevertheless, Obregon was assassinated in 1928. The next year, a new political party that attempted to address the interests of all sectors of the society arose. Although the Institutional Revolutionary Party (PRI) did not tolerate opposition, it initiated an ongoing period of peace and political stability in Mexico.

(ISN) Interactive Student Notebook Assignments

1. Copied content specific questions

(ISN) Discussion and Study Questions

1. Guiding Questions

Vocabulary

Quizlet Flashcards for the Mexican Revolution

TABLE 14.4:

Diaz, Porfirio	Mexican general, President, politician and dictator who ruled Mexico with an iron fist for 35 years.
La Reforma	A period in mid-19th century Mexico that was characterized by liberal reforms designed to modernize Mexico and make it into a nation state.
Las Adelitas	Women and children who fought alongside the Villistas and Zapatistas throughout the Mexican Revolution.
Maderio, Francisco	A reformist politician and writer who served as President of Mexico from 1911 to 1913 and helped overthrow Porfirio Díaz, starting the Mexican Revolution.
Mexican Revolution	The Mexican Revolution broke out in 1910 when the decades-old rule of President Porfirio Díaz was challenged by Francisco Madero, a reformist writer and politician.
"Villistas"	Revolutionary supporters and members of the militia whose initial interest was in the reform of labor laws during the Mexican Revolution.
"Zapatistas"	Revolutionary supporters and members of the militia whose interest was in the reform of land laws of farmers and indigenous communities.

CHAPTER

15

Chapter Fourteen: The Great Depression and World War II

Chapter Outline

15.1 THE GREAT DEPRESSION

15.2 WORLD WAR II

15.3 THE HOLOCAUST

15.1 The Great Depression

14.1 The Great Depression

At the end of this section the student will be able to

- identify major causes and describe the major effects of the following important turning points in world history from 1914 to the present: the world wars and their impact on political, economic, and social systems; communist revolutions and their impact on the Cold War; independence movements; and globalization.[WHS.1F]
- explain the political impact of Woodrow Wilson's Fourteen Points and the political and economic impact of the Treaty of Versailles, including changes in boundaries and the mandate system.[WHS.10C]
- summarize the international, political, and economic causes of the global depression.[WHS.11A]
- explain the responses of governments in the United States, Germany, and the Soviet Union to the global depression.[WHS.11B]
- describe the emergence and characteristics of totalitarianism.[WHS.12A]
- explain the roles of various world leaders, including Benito Mussolini, Adolf Hitler, Hideki Tojo, Joseph Stalin, Franklin D. Roosevelt, and Winston Churchill, prior to and during World War II.[WHS.12B]
- create and interpret thematic maps, graphs, and charts to demonstrate the relationship between geography and the historical development of a region or nation.[WHS.15A]
- analyze and compare geographic distributions and patterns in world history shown on maps, graphs, charts, and models.[WHS.15B]
- locate places and regions of historical significance directly related to major eras and turning points in world history.[WHS.16A]
- identify the historical origins and characteristics of fascism.[WHS.18D]
- identify the characteristics of the following political systems: theocracy, absolute monarchy, democracy, republic, oligarchy, limited monarchy, and totalitarianism.[WHS.19B]
- use appropriate reading and mathematical skills to interpret social studies information such as maps and graphs.[WHS.29H]
- use social studies terminology correctly.[WHS.30A]
- use standard grammar, spelling, sentence structure, and punctuation.[WHS.30B]
- interpret and create written, oral, and visual presentations of social studies information.[WHS.30C]
- transfer information from one medium to another.[WHS.30D]

The Great Depression was a global economic crisis that started in 1929. The crisis devastated the economies of many nations and led to a period of financial hardship for millions of people.

In the history of the United States, no other depression had had such a devastating impact on U.S. society. During the 12 years of the depression, one-quarter of the work force was unemployed, 5,500 banks closed, and 32,000 businesses went bankrupt.

Although the crash of the New York Stock Exchange on October 29, 1929 was a symptom rather than a cause of the depression, it has been blamed as the catalyst. The depression in fact resulted from an overextension of credit and spending in the 1920s. Nonetheless, the stock market crash dramatically shook public confidence in the U.S. economy.

The crash also brought an end to the loans that the United States had extended to European countries, which were still recovering from World War I. Europe slipped further into decline and lost any economic gains made in the 10

years since the end of the war.

The economies of many Latin American and Asian countries, organized around the export of primary products to the industrial markets of the North Atlantic world, quickly collapsed in response to the loss of their markets. The global crisis was exacerbated by the tendency of most nations to erect tariff barriers in an attempt to protect domestic economies. As international trade ground to a halt, there was no way to alleviate the situation.

The Great Depression produced political crises in many of the nations that were hardest hit. In Latin America, for example, several governments fell between 1929 and 1931; democracies were replaced by authoritarian regimes, and dictatorships were overthrown by democratic forces. In Europe, the hardships of the depression inspired a variety of extremist political groups. The desperate economic situation of the German Weimar Republic was an important condition for the rise of fascism in the later 1930s.

In the United States, threats to the stability of the U.S. government and economy were dispelled by the "New Deal" programs devised by the administration of President Franklin D. Roosevelt.

Totalitarianism Develops out of Economic Crisis

Fascism is a political ideology that originated in South and Central Europe and that was the basis of a mass political movement from 1919 through 1945. The term "fascism" was first used in 1919 by Benito Mussolini in Italy to describe his new political party. Similar movements then developed across Europe, establishing lasting regimes in Italy (1922), Germany (1933), and Spain (1939). Although fascism was primarily a European phenomenon, fascist or fascist-inspired governments also emerged in such places as Japan, Argentina, and South Africa. The alliance between fascist powers, and their aggressive expansion in the late 1930s, fueled the conflicts that culminated in World War II.

The origins of fascist ideology are closely related to the devastation in Europe immediately following World War I. The magnitude of human losses and the demands imposed upon national economies placed exceptional pressures on nations such as Italy, Germany, and Japan, which were only partially modernized. Severe economic downturns resulted after war production ceased and eventually worsened after the worldwide depression of the early 1930s. Liberal-parliamentary governments failed to provide relief, leading many to believe that a new political alternative was required either from the extreme left or right. Perhaps the most compelling of the conditions that led to fascism was the sense of national humiliation experienced by those countries that were either defeated, or if victorious, that had failed to gain territories or prestige.

In Italy, after 1918, the economy was mired in a slump that produced a wave of strikes and factory occupations by trade unionists. Additionally, the popularity of socialist and communist movements was on the rise. Mussolini's National Fascist Party (Partito Nazionale Fascista—PNF) emerged as an enemy of the left, and with his private army of "Blackshirts," he led a campaign of violence against socialist leaders, offices, and newspapers. Mussolini also spoke out against the failure of the nation's leaders to secure any territorial gains at the Paris Peace Conference. Eventually these key issues helped to bring Mussolini to power, through constitutional means, in 1922. Mussolini and his PNF maintained power from 1922 until his fall, as a result of the Allied invasion of Italy, in 1943.

In Germany, after 1918, many people felt anger and a sense of betrayal over the military defeat, which they falsely blamed on the nation's new Majority Socialist leadership. The Treaty of Versailles drafted by the victors held Germany responsible for World War I, and the treaty stripped Germany of some territory, limited the size of its armed forces, and demanded reparations payments. During the early 1920s, Germany's economy suffered greatly, and though much of the suffering was self-inflicted, the result was ruinous hyperinflation in 1923 and consistently high unemployment rates. The National Socialist, or "Nazi," Party emerged during these years and gained an audience as a result of these harsh conditions. Its leader was Adolf Hitler, who appealed to frustrated Germans with promises to restore Germany's pride and bring decisive government. After taking power in 1933, also through constitutional means, Hitler created an artificially inflated economy based on military rearmament as he prepared for German territorial expansion and war. He and his party passed laws to eliminate all political opposition. The Nazi regime also persecuted the Jews through successive legislation that purged them from government, business, and cultural

participation.

In Portugal, Antonio de Oliveira Salazar came to power in 1928 after a military coup and ruled Portugal until 1968. His regime embraced some important fascist practices, but suppressed the more radical fascist parties. Following a bloody civil war in Spain during 1936–1939, Gen. Francisco Franco introduced fascism in that country and ruled Spain until his death in 1975. Other fascist governments in Europe were short-lived, such as in Austria (1934–1938 and eventually annexed by Nazi Germany) and Hungary. In countries such as France, Belgium, and the United Kingdom, fascist movements developed with varying degrees of popularity, but never were a real threat to the established power.

Fascist Ideology

Fascist ideology began with the presumption that the state was the supreme entity to which all other priorities are subordinated, such as individual liberties or democratic freedoms. The state was embodied by a single charismatic leader who had the vision and will to lead the nation to a "mythical rebirth." Fascist political ideology was antidemocratic and anti-parliamentary, insisting upon only one ruling party with no political opposition. Fascism was also characterized in this period by the militarization of politics. Internal order was maintained by private armies, who often used violence to eliminate resistance. Fascist leaders usually appeared in military uniforms and orchestrated political functions in regimented and ritual fashion. Violence was commonly celebrated, as fascist leaders believed that a nation could only rise out of the process of struggle.

Fascist movements were universally enemies of the Marxist ideologies of socialism or communism. Ironically, fascism had more in common with communism than it did with democracy, however. While they rigorously preserved the private ownership of the means of production, fascists asserted power and direction over private enterprise in matters that affected the state. Fascist movements also typically established a "corporative" organization to regulate the economy. Corporations were generally comprised of managers, technicians, labor representatives and government representatives. However, corporations most often became mere instruments of state economic policy.

In more radical fascist regimes, like those in Italy and Germany, religion was seen in pragmatic terms as a necessity for mass appeal. Both Hitler and Mussolini eventually made agreements with the Catholic Church, though they kept it well out of politics. In other less "revolutionary" fascist regimes, however, the Catholic Church was seen as an important pillar of the state. Catholicism had modest influence on both ideology and policy in the more conservative regimes of Franco in Spain, Salazar in Portugal, and Engelbert Dolfuss in Austria. This more integrative approach to religion by a fascist state is sometimes referred to as "clerical fascism."

The "nation" in fascist ideology was chiefly conceived as the collection of traditional ethnicities and cultures of the country. "Foreign" elements were considered harmful to national integrity, hence many fascist movements were characterized by anti-Semitism and racial hatred. Nazi Germany was the most fanatical on this point, denouncing Jews and other racial groups as inferior, and taking measures to eliminate them by deportation and violence. Fascist Italy used racial policies sparingly until their invasion of Abyssinia (modern Ethiopia) in 1935, after which many racist laws were passed against Africans and against the co-mingling of races. After Mussolini's alliance with Nazi Germany in 1939, however, Italy also began to adopt official anti-Semitic policies. Racism and especially anti-Semitism were common among all fascist movements.

Even before the defeat of the Axis powers (Germany, Italy, and Japan) in 1945, fascism was essentially discredited as a political ideology. It has, however, in recent decades, inspired a new generation of "neo-fascist" movements. These movements are most often those of the extreme right and attract members primarily concerned with simple race-hatred and anti-immigration policies.

Benito Mussolini

The bombastic Benito Mussolini sought to rule Italy like a modern-day Caesar and even went so far as to attempt to recreate a new Roman Empire in his own image. However, military adventures abroad and an alliance with Adolf

Hitler's Third Reich in Germany led to Italy's defeat and Mussolini's eventual downfall.

Benito Amilcare Andrea Mussolini was born in Dovia, Italy on July 29, 1883 and was the son of a blacksmith and a schoolteacher. He inherited from his father an abiding interest in the socialist movement and a taste for political extremism. Having briefly worked as a school teacher, Mussolini fled to Switzerland to escape compulsory military service but subsequently returned to fulfill it. Afterward, he worked as a manual laborer, a left-wing agitator, and an effective editor of the official Italian Socialist Party newspaper, *Avanti!*, in 1912. He broke ranks with the party and was expelled, however, over the issue of Italian intervention in World War I and his desire for Italy to take a more active role. That rejection angered Mussolini, who rejoined the military, was wounded in 1917, and returned to civilian life committed to a new, right-wing ideology—fascism.

Mussolini's concept of fascism was his own unique blend of nationalism, imperialism, corporatism, and a political alliance with large business interests. The resulting corporate state that he envisioned was to be organized by groups, rather than by individuals as in a democracy. Thus, the state would deal with such corporate groups of workers and industrialists together, or small farmers and large landowners together, rather than with individuals or class divisions. That new structure of the state was designed to carry Italy into the future, even as it recaptured the glory of ancient Rome. To that end, Mussolini adopted as the party logo an ax bound in wooden rods or *fascia*—the Roman symbol for authority. In 1919, his Italian Fascist Party was founded officially and began its quest for political conquest in Italy.

As Italy slipped deeper into the postwar economic depression, Mussolini's agitation and effective rabble-rousing attracted a large following. His call for strong central authority to restore order was especially well heeded at the polls, and by 1922, that seemingly upstart politician was on the verge of taking control of the government. In October of that year, King Victor Emmanuel III appointed him prime minister in the wake of the fascist coup known as the March on Rome, and Mussolini took command of a large, right-wing coalition. He celebrated his "conquest" with a carefully orchestrated parade in which he led paramilitary fascist cadres known as Blackshirts through the streets of Rome.

Once installed as "Il Duce" (The Leader), Mussolini cracked down on dissent and laid the foundations for an authoritarian state. He also reorganized the economy on a wartime footing, which created badly needed jobs, and began a series of military adventures abroad. In 1935, he launched an attack on the African country of Ethiopia, which he conquered successfully despite an outburst of world condemnation. The following year, he introduced land and air units into the Spanish Civil War in concert with Hitler, another aggressive nationalist whom Mussolini initially disliked and distrusted. Although the ideologies of fascism and Nazism were not exactly identical, the two men saw a need to align themselves against the Western democracies, and in 1936, they signed the Rome-Berlin Axis pact. To placate Hitler, Mussolini also instituted his own brand of anti-Semitism, which was something Italy had been spared thus far. Mussolini anticipated in the event of war that additional conquests and the Caesar-like image that he cultivated would enable him to abolish the Italian monarchy and establish a totalitarian state.

Over the next few years, the conquests of Libya, Ethiopia, and Albania made Italy the dominant Mediterranean power. However, Mussolini's tottering military establishment, beset by poor morale and obsolete equipment, had been stretched to the breaking point. When Hitler began World War II in September 1939, the Italian economy was still feeble and unable to sustain any moves toward world domination. Mussolini realized that weakness and delayed declaring war on France until 1940, after the German conquest of western Europe was nearly complete. For that act, British prime minister Winston Churchill branded him "a jackal," as Mussolini appeared to be trying to secure the spoils of war without doing any actual fighting. Italian armies subsequently fared poorly, which underscored the façade of fascist rhetoric. They had to be rescued by Germany from a near disaster in the Balkans in 1941 and also met with embarrassing defeats in North Africa at the hands of the British that same year. Italy sustained further losses through its significant commitment of units to Operation Barbarossa, the German-led invasion of the Soviet Union, in June 1941.

By the middle of 1943, many Italians had had enough of Mussolini. When the Allied invasion of Sicily began in July 1943, both King Victor Emmanuel and the Fascist Grand Council voted to strip Mussolini of his powers, and he was deposed. Mussolini remained under house arrest until that September, when a special German commando operation rescued him. He spent the last days of World War II as the puppet head of a tiny fascist state in northeastern Italy,

where his only notable accomplishment was the trial and execution of five council members, including his own son-in-law, who had voted to oust him. When the German defenses finally collapsed, Mussolini and his mistress tried to flee but were caught and executed by Italian partisans on April 28, 1945. Two decades of ideological pretension had finally been shattered, and as a final token of disrespect, Il Duce's body was hung upside down in a public square and interred in an unmarked grave.

Adolph Hitler

Adolf Hitler was the charismatic, forceful leader of Germany who led his nation to bloody ruin. In a failed bid for world conquest, his Third Reich overran more land in Europe, Asia, and North Africa than any European leader and led to the deaths of 35 million people. For many survivors of World War II, he remains the personification of evil.

Hitler was born at Brannau, Austria on April 20, 1889, the son of a German customs clerk and an Austrian peasant woman. An indifferent, sullen student, he dropped out of high school to work as an aspiring artist but failed to gain entrance into the Vienna Academy of Fine Arts. The onset of World War I finally gave him an outlet to vent his anger, and he left Austria to enlist in the 16th Bavarian Infantry Regiment. For four years, Hitler functioned in the dangerous role as a messenger, and he received four decorations for bravery, including the prestigious Iron Cross, First Class. At one point, he sustained serious injuries in a gas attack and spent several months recuperating. Hitler finally mustered out of the German Army in 1919 with a rank of corporal.

The German surrender that ended World War I in November 1918 led to the 1919 Treaty of Versailles, which imposed severe economic penalties as restitution. These penalties occasioned much hardship on the German people and increased their resentment toward the democratic German government for signing such an agreement. Like many disenchanted veterans, Hitler joined the German Worker's Party, which he later helped expand into the National Socialist German Workers' Party, better known as the Nazis. Hitler proved himself a master of oratory and political intrigue and became intent upon seizing the national political agenda. However, when his attempted coup against the Bavarian government (later known as the beer hall putsch) was crushed by police and military units on November 8-9, 1923, Hitler was sentenced to five years in Landsberg Prison. He only served nine months before a general amnesty was proclaimed, and he used the interval to outline his political philosophy in the book *Mein Kampf* (My Struggle). In it, he openly flaunted his anti-Semitism, as well as Germany's dire necessity for territorial expansion in the east. However, the book was never taken seriously by critics, and its warning signs went unheeded.

The experience of imprisonment garnered Hitler political respectability, and he resolved to overthrow the established Weimar Republic by working within the system. His great eloquence and nationalist fervor, as well as the country's general economic unrest, led to increasing Nazi representation at all levels of government through elections held during the 1920s. Hitler's goals received a tremendous boost during the global depression of 1929 as more and more Germans turned to him for leadership in this national economic crisis. By 1932, the Nazis had achieved political control of the government when they became the majority party. Hitler's promises of jobs, security, and a resurrected Germany continued to resonate with the electorate, and in 1933, he came to power by being appointed chancellor by President Paul von Hindenburg. When Hindenburg died the following year, Hitler combined the offices of chancellor and president to become the "uncontested leader" (*Der Fuhrer*) of the German nation.

Once in power, Hitler ruthlessly suppressed civil rights, murdered his political opponents within the Nazi Party during the infamous Night of the Long Knives on June 30, 1934, and began to reinvigorate the emaciated German economy. He accomplished an economic revival for the country by expanding the military industrial sector in clear violation of the Versailles Treaty. As a military leader, Hitler was well versed in military tactics and had a working grasp of military technology. He took a special interest in developing fast tanks and airplanes that would eventually form the basis for the extremely mobile "blitzkrieg" warfare of World War II.

As Germany grew stronger militarily, Hitler grew bolder on the international stage. He also routinely disregarded sound military advice from his senior generals, whose perceived timidity he regarded with open contempt. In 1936, he marched troops into the Rhineland, restoring it to Germany, and also formed an alliance with Benito Mussolini's fascist Italy. Two years later, Hitler annexed Austria to Germany. At the Munich Conference of September 1938, Hitler convinced Britain and France to allow him to annex the Sudetenland (an area of western Czechoslovakia

containing mostly ethnic Germans). Hitler, however, decided after the conference to annex all of Czechoslovakia, embarrassing Britain and France and making all of Europe increasingly wary of his expansionist ambitions. He then stunned the world by signing a nonaggression pact with Soviet Union leader Joseph Stalin, which ensured the stability of Germany's vulnerable eastern border. The lack of decisive leadership and resistance to his plans evidenced by the Western democracies did little to discourage Hitler, who by the end of the 1930s was finally ready to gain new territories by force.

In September 1939, German forces attacked Poland. That act that precipitated World War II, as Britain and France quickly declared war on Germany in defense of their Polish ally. The newly-developed blitzkrieg tactics worked brilliantly, and Poland was crushed in a matter of weeks. Despite the declaration of war, however, France and England took no offensive action on their own. Hitler used the impasse to shift his forces westward, and by June 1940, France had been conquered, and English troops chased off the continent from their beachhead landing at Dunkirk, in northern France. Owing to the ineptitude of Luftwaffe commander Hermann Goering, however, Germany lost the Battle of Britain (the German Air Force's attack to weaken Britain before a land invasion by the German Army), and an invasion of England had to be postponed.

Hitler turned his attention to other parts of Europe. Greece and Yugoslavia were subdued, along with most of North Africa, before Hitler committed his single biggest mistake of the war. In June 1941, German forces launched an all-out offensive against the Soviet Union, in open disregard of the nonaggression pact. Initial Russian casualties were colossal, and the Soviet Army was driven back deep into Russia's interior. When Hitler refused to allow his men to retreat from Russia for the winter, the Soviets counter-attacked at Moscow, inflicting the first real German defeat on land.

Hitler was so enraged that he sacked most of his leading generals, remained contemptuous of the rest, and appointed himself as commander in chief of the armed forces. For the next four years, Germany waged a losing war in the east against superior numbers of Russian forces, and in late 1941, Hitler compounded his mistakes by declaring war on the United States after the Japanese attack on Pearl Harbor in December 1941. As a sign of his growing degeneration, he began relying more on astrology than the opinions of his senior military leadership generals when making major decisions.

In addition to waging a war of aggression, Hitler embarked on one of the greatest crimes against humanity ever committed. Having espoused the notion of a racially pure (or Aryan) nation, he turned his hatred of Jews into a national policy of mass extermination through creation of numerous death camps. Jews, Gypsies, and dissenting Christians were deported from occupied countries, used as forced laborers, and then dispatched by gas chambers or crematoria when unable to work further. Thus an estimated 10 million people (6 million Jews and 4 million others who Hitler considered undesirable for one reason or another) perished in Hitler's "final solution," also known as the Holocaust.

By 1944, several attempts had been made on Hitler's life, including one by Col. Claus von Stauffenberg, who exploded a bomb Hitler's East Prussian headquarters. The German Third Reich's days were clearly numbered, but Hitler embarked on several desperate gambits to stave off defeat. He directed construction of numerous "super weapons," including jet fighters, pilotless bombs, and guided missiles, in a spectacular but futile attempt to turn the tide of the war back to Germany's favor. After surviving a July 1944 assassination attempt, he squandered Germany's final military reserves in the ill-fated Battle of the Bulge in December of that year but failed to defeat the western Allies. By April 1945, the vengeful Soviet Army had all but surrounded Berlin, and Hitler was a virtual captive in his command bunker. He had always declared that Germany would fight "until five past midnight," but on April 30, 1945, Hitler and his longtime mistress, Eva Braun, committed suicide rather than face capture. Thus the vaunted Third Reich, which the Nazis boasted would last 1,000 years, collapsed in utter ruin after only 12 years.

Joseph Stalin

An important member of the Bolshevik Party during the Russian Revolution of 1917, Joseph Stalin rose to become the successor to Vladimir Lenin as the leader of the Soviet Union. Stalin shaped the early Soviet Union without regard for the consequences of his actions among the Soviet population and achieved prodigious growth and a police

state of unrivaled proportions. He also led his country to victory in World War II as Russian soldiers and civilians absorbed the vast majority of casualties suffered by the Allied forces. Finally, he was one of the primary architects of the postwar world and its bipolar division between East and West.

Stalin (which means "steel" in Russian) was born Iosif Vissarionovich Dzhugashvili on December 21, 1879, in Gori, Georgia. Stalin's parents were simple peasants, and his father supported the family as a cobbler. He had several childhood ailments, including smallpox (which left scarring marks on his face), and a carriage accident that caused his left arm to be permanently shortened and stiffened. Despite his physical ailments, however, Stalin was reported to be in good shape and very strong for his size.

Like the majority of the population in the Georgian countryside, Stalin grew up in poverty and uncertainty. He did receive a good education, however, and he did especially well in history and geography. He began to learn Russian at age nine, adding it to his native Georgian. In 1894, he graduated near the top of his class from a local church school in his hometown and received a scholarship to attend Tiflis Theological Seminary, a leading school in Georgian society. At the seminary, Stalin was exposed to Marxism and became involved in revolutionary circles that caused his interest in school to wane. He was expelled from the seminary in 1899.

By 1900, Stalin was deeply involved in the Marxist revolutionary movement in Georgia. Following several conflicts with authorities, he was exiled to Siberia. Following his escape from Siberia, Stalin grew involved with the Bolshevik Party and became a member in 1905. In 1912, he was nominated by Lenin to the party's highest governing body, the Central Committee. In the next few years, Stalin's tasks within the party were primarily operational and theoretical. Stalin wrote about how to integrate the various ethnic groups of the Russian Empire into the future Bolshevik state. He would retain this role of a behind-the-scenes operator through the Russian Revolution of 1917 and the Russian Civil War that followed.

Stalin's chief role during most of the revolution was that of propagandist and supporter of Lenin, especially when the latter was out of the country. Although he remained in the background, Stalin's work was critical to the success of the revolution, and in Lenin's eyes, Stalin showed capable leadership. It was mainly because of Lenin's favor that Stalin gained additional power in the Communist Party. However, other prominent revolutionaries like Leon Trotsky and Nikolai Bukharin had doubts about Stalin's personality and abilities. They believed that he was not fit for a leadership role in the new All-Russian Communist Party (later renamed the Communist Party of the Soviet Union [CPSU]).

On April 3, 1922, Stalin was nevertheless granted the position that would vault him to the position of leader of the Soviet Union: he was made general secretary of the Central Committee of the CPSU. From that position, Stalin was able to wield enormous power. In the month after Stalin's appointment, Lenin had a stroke that would ultimately lead to his death less than two years later. Lenin's poor health during that time led to uncertainty among the party leadership. Lenin wrote what came to be known as his Testament, in which he alleged that Stalin was too "rude" and "coarse" to be an effective leader of the party. In contrast, Lenin praised Trotsky for his leadership and called him "perhaps the most capable man in the present Central Committee." Lenin's comments came too late and were somewhat ambiguous on the question of succession. Because of the power he already wielded, Stalin was able to block the Testament from being used against him.

Stalin moved carefully to solidify his authority. He ruled the country along with Lev Kamenev and Grigory Zinoviev, two of Lenin's closest compatriots, following Lenin's death on January 21, 1924. By 1928, Stalin had solidified his grip on power by first moving against Trotsky, whom he saw as his fiercest rival, and then moving against Kamenev, Zinoviev, and Bukharin.

From that point on, Stalin ruled without significant obstacles to his authority. His first priority was to create the communist state that Lenin and the Bolsheviks had once envisioned. In 1929, he ordered the first of many five-year plans to modernize and industrialize the Soviet Union. He also ordered the collectivization of agriculture and essentially created large agricultural communities that would feed the growing industrial state. The Soviet Union's economy and industry did grow, but collectivization was achieved only with the dramatic sacrifice of the Russian people. The CPSU, though it ran the government, did not have a large membership when compared to the population of the entire country. Many people resisted the efforts of the government to take their land from them for the purposes

of the state. Famines resulted in 1931 and in 1932. Some historians estimate that as many as 10 million people died as a result of collectivization and the resulting famines.

Soon after the revolution, Lenin had organized a system of secret police, and that apparatus was greatly expanded under Stalin. In addition, beginning in 1934, Stalin began to move against the old Bolsheviks that he viewed as potential enemies. In the resulting chaos of trials and upheaval, millions of people died in what became known as the Great Purge. In 1938, the terror subsided, but not before millions were sent to the Gulag (a system of Soviet prison camps in the northern reaches of Russia or in Siberia), and all of Stalin's potential or imagined enemies were eliminated. Many of those who were sent to the camps died, in addition to the millions who were killed by execution or famine. In their absence, Stalin was free to develop a cult of personality around himself as loyal party members wrote songs of praise to him and rewrote history texts for school children.

In 1939, a new danger threatened the Soviet Union: Nazi leader Adolf Hitler and his Third Reich. Hitler wanted the lands east of Germany as *lebensraum* (living space) for the German people. Stalin secured a temporary peace for the Soviet Union by signing the Nazi-Soviet Pact (also known as the nonaggression pact) with Hitler in that year. The pact divided Poland between Germany and the Soviet Union. Stalin hoped that this would appease Hitler's appetite for land, but it did not.

In the summer of 1941, immediately after the Germans conquered France, Hitler attacked the Soviet Union. The attack caught Stalin and the Soviet Union unprepared. Initially, the attack went very well for the Germans, who made it all the way to Moscow before winter. The harsh Russian winter trapped the Germans, however, and they suffered severe losses from disease and starvation during early 1942.

Seizing his chance to turn the tide of the war, Stalin rallied the Russian people by putting aside communist rhetoric and calling on Russian patriotism to save the country from the German invaders. Stalin also drew on the military and economic resources created by the industrialization of the Soviet Union and the assistance of the Allies. Soviet (and Allied) fortunes began to change in 1943 with victory in the Battle of Stalingrad, and by the spring of 1945, the Germans were beaten. The Soviet Union had advanced far into Central Europe during the final months of the war, and Stalin emerged victorious.

Through a series of conferences with Allied leaders both during and immediately after the war, Stalin secured for the Soviet Union all territory in Eastern Europe occupied by the Red Army at the time of the German surrender. Stalin saw those lands not only as territory that could be exploited for the benefit of the Soviet Union (much of this territory had been surrendered during World War I when the Bolsheviks withdrew from the war) but also as a buffer zone between the Soviet Union and future attacks from the West. By the late 1940s, the boundary between the Soviet sphere and the nations of Western Europe had been christened the "iron curtain" by Winston Churchill, and the Cold War was setting in.

During the early 1950s, Stalin's health began to wane. As his mind and body decayed, his suspicion and paranoia of others (which had always been strong) were further amplified. On his death on March 5, 1953, there is evidence that Stalin was planning another purge against his supposed enemies. He died as a result of a brain hemorrhage at the age of 73.

Hideki Tojo

An efficient bureaucrat and skilled political infighter, Hideki Tojo rose to become the personification of militant Japanese nationalism. He was determined to expand his empire even at the risk of war with the United States.

Tojo was born in Tokyo, Japan, on December 30, 1884, into an old samurai family. His father, an accomplished army general, enrolled his son in the Military Academy and the Army Staff College, from which he graduated with honors in 1914. Thereafter, Tojo compiled an exemplary military career. He performed stints as a military attaché in Switzerland and Germany and taught at the Army Staff College before accepting a position within the Army Ministry. By 1929, Tojo had also become commander of the prestigious First Infantry Regiment.

At this time, militant factions within the Japanese Army began agitating for a greater say in national policy, especially

in light of the 1931 invasion of Manchuria. Tojo cast his lot with the militarists by joining the so-called control faction, which pressed for army modernization and a more aggressive foreign policy stance. Thereafter, he became closely identified with the pro-war element, determined to establish a "New Order" of Japanese hegemony throughout Asia.

Tojo rose to major general in 1933, but the dominance of the more moderate Imperial Way Faction led to a succession of minor assignments for him. By 1935, he had been transferred from Tokyo to the Kwantung Army in Manchuria as head of military police. He distinguished himself by arresting major conspirators of the February 26, 1936 coup attempt and was rewarded with a staff post within the Kwantung Army. Tojo, an astute political player as well as a competent officer, slowly gathered military support for his aggressive outlook by establishing his "Manchurian Faction."

This extreme group called for greater Japanese dominance of Asia and outright war with China for control of scarce natural resources. When the Sino-Japanese War of 1937-1945 erupted in July 1937, Tojo personally led two infantry brigades in a lightning conquest of Inner Mongolia, his only experience at combat in the field. When presiding general Ishiwaru Kanji began pressing for containment of hostilities with China, Tojo, who supported total war, worked to arrange his ouster. By then, he was the most influential officer in the Kwantung Army.

In May 1938, Tojo capped his military career by returning to Tokyo as army vice minister under Prime Minister Fumimaro Konoe. He handled his duties with such adroitness that he earned the nickname "the Razor." True to form, he opposed the desires of army chief of staff Tada Shun, who sought peace negotiations with the Chinese, and continually pushed for expanded war on the Chinese mainland, and possibly with the Soviet Union. The onset of World War II in Europe only accelerated Tojo's rise to power. He became a vocal proponent of the Tripartite Pact with Germany and Italy and supported Japan's occupation of Indochina following the 1940 defeat of France.

At home, Tojo also sought to instill greater domestic harmony by absorbing all parties into the Imperial Rule Assistance Association, thereby muting all criticism of foreign policy. Though ostensibly pushing the nation toward conflict, Tojo's popularity was too great to ignore, and Premier Konoe had little recourse but to retain him in his third cabinet of July 1941.

Japan's aggressive actions in Asia led to strained relations with the United States. The influential Japanese Navy, never at ease with their army counterparts, began to cast the United States as a much more dangerous adversary than the Soviet Union (which was then being successfully invaded by German forces). Erring for once in assessing an enemy, Tojo temporarily relaxed his hostility toward Russia for what he viewed as the inevitable conflict with the Western democracies. When Konoe steadfastly opposed such a war as unwinnable, deft maneuvering by Tojo caused his cabinet to resign. Tojo himself was then appointed prime minister in October 1941 while also holding the post of army minister. He authorized continued negotiations with the United States for a possible end to its trade embargo with Japan while simultaneously preparing the nation for war. "If Japan's hundred millions merge and go forward," he declared, "wars can be won with ease." When it became apparent that U.S. president Franklin D. Roosevelt would not rescind his demand for a Japanese evacuation of China, Tojo authorized the navy to attack U.S. military installations in Pearl Harbor, the Philippines, and elsewhere in December 1941.

The initial phase of World War II in the Pacific was characterized by a lightning series of Japanese victories over British and U.S. forces. These successes boosted Tojo's prestige at home and lent greater acceptance to his views on the legitimacy of force. By June 1942, however, the U.S. victory at the Battle of Midway had stopped Japanese expansion in its tracks and commenced a long string of heavy defeats. By 1943, Tojo had assumed the additional post of military procurement minister, and the following year, he became chief of the General Staff. When the fall of Saipan in July 1944 placed Japan in the range of U.S. bombers, however, Prince Konoe arranged for Tojo's dismissal as prime minister.

The rest of the war proved anticlimactic as Tojo maintained a low profile until the Japanese surrender in September 1945. When Allied authorities came to his residence with an arrest warrant, Tojo tried and failed to kill himself. Upon recovering, he was put on trial by an international war tribunal for crimes against humanity and was sentenced to death. To the end, the former militarist was contrite and accepted all responsibility for the outbreak of hostilities in order to absolve Emperor Hirohito of any blame. The diminutive, bespectacled, and closely cropped "Razor" was

subsequently hung on December 23, 1948.

Franklin D. Roosevelt and the American Response to the Crisis

The only president ever to serve more than two terms, Franklin Delano Roosevelt was elected to office in 1932 and was reelected three more times before he died near the end of World War II. During the 12 years of his presidency, Roosevelt aroused both intense loyalty and opposition. His critics and supporters agree, however, that more than any other president, Roosevelt was the architect of the American welfare state and established government responsibility for individual social welfare. Roosevelt's impact on the United States through his social and economic legislation was huge and lasting.

No other president in the 20th century has enjoyed the adulation of the masses to the degree conferred on Roosevelt. He was the first president to use mass communication (the radio) to its full advantage. Through his speeches and famous "fireside chats," Roosevelt sounded like a kind uncle or grandfather to millions of Americans who had never heard a president speak before. Hundreds of thousands sent him letters detailing their plight, asking for his assistance, and thanking him for his help.

Born on January 30, 1882, Roosevelt spent his early years at his family estate in Hyde Park, New York and attended the exclusive Groton School before going on to Harvard University and Columbia University Law School. In 1905, he married Eleanor Roosevelt, his distant cousin and the niece of Theodore Roosevelt. He ran for the New York Senate in 1910. Although a Democrat in an overwhelmingly Republican district, Roosevelt won an impressive victory. He quickly made a name for himself by challenging the Tammany Hall political machine's control over the U.S. Democratic Party. In 1913, he was chosen by Josephus Daniels, President Woodrow Wilson's new secretary of the navy, to be assistant secretary of the navy, the same post Theodore Roosevelt had once held. In 1920, Roosevelt ran as the vice presidential candidate with James M. Cox. Although the Democratic Party lost the election, Roosevelt used the opportunity to establish a national reputation. His political future seemed assured when, in 1921, he was stricken with polio (infantile paralysis) and almost completely paralyzed.

For two years, he struggled to teach himself how to cope with the disease and the loss of the use of his legs. Many people thought paralysis would be an insurmountable obstacle to a political career, but instead of giving up, with the help of his wife, Roosevelt developed a bold, active personal style that more than compensated for his inability to stand without assistance. Prior to his illness, Roosevelt had appeared to many of his contemporaries as a spoiled rich man dabbling in politics. Little of his liberalism or political seriousness was apparent before his bout with polio. Once, when asked how he could be so patient with a political opponent, he said, "If you had spent two years in bed trying to wiggle your big toe, after that anything else would seem easy."

In 1928, with the encouragement of outgoing Governor Alfred E. Smith, Roosevelt managed to win the race for governor of New York. With the onset of the Great Depression, Roosevelt became known for his willingness to use the state government to relieve widespread misery and established a reputation as a compassionate, reform-oriented chief executive. He was reelected in 1930.

In many respects, Roosevelt seemed the ideal candidate to recapture the White House for the Democrats in 1932. Still, it wasn't until after John Nance Garner withdrew from the race at the Democratic convention and instructed his Texas and California delegates to vote for Roosevelt that Roosevelt was able to win the nomination on the fourth ballot. Then he captured the attention of the nation by flying to Chicago to become the first candidate to directly address a convention immediately after nomination. He said, "You have nominated me and I know it, and I am here to thank you for the honor. Let it . . . be symbolic that in so doing I broke traditions. Let it be from now on the task of our Party to break foolish traditions. . . . I pledge you, I pledge myself, to a new deal for the American people."

During the campaign, Roosevelt promised to balance the federal budget and to provide direct aid to the needy. Although vague on exactly how he would accomplish this, he exuded tremendous confidence that he could do what was necessary to end the depression: "The country needs, and, unless I mistake its temper, the country demands bold, persistent experimentation. It is common sense to take a method and try it. If it fails, admit it frankly and try another. But above all, try something."

Roosevelt carried all but six states and defeated Herbert Hoover by more than 7 million votes: 22,821,857 to 15,761,841. Roosevelt also stymied the efforts of the Socialist and Communist parties to capitalize on the economic turmoil gripping the nation. Socialist candidate Norman Thomas obtained less than a million votes, and the Communist Party's representative, William Foster, managed to win only 100,000 votes.

Roosevelt, confident of victory, had begun preparing for the presidency months before his campaign and election. Besides a core of loyal political assistants, he had enlisted the aid of a number of college professors, Rexford Tugwell, Adolph Berle Jr., and Raymond Moley—nicknamed the brain trust—to assist him so that once in office he could move swiftly to deal with the national crisis.

In his inaugural address, Roosevelt announced that he would call Congress into an immediate special session to obtain the legislation necessary to deal with the banking crisis and the collapse of the economy. He told the nation that if Congress hesitated, he would ask it "for broad executive power to wage a war against the emergency, as great as the power that would be given to me if we were in fact invaded by a foreign foe. This great Nation will endure as it has endured, will revive and prosper. So, first of all, let me assert my firm belief that the only thing we have to fear is fear itself. . . ."

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(ISN) Interactive Student Notebook Assignments

1. Copied content specific questions

(ISN) Discussion and Study Questions

1. Guiding Questions

(ISN) Tech Activities

Technology assignment that makes them do something with a computer

Vocabulary

[Quizlet Flashcard Vocabulary for The Great Depression](#)

TABLE 15.1:

totalitarianism	government control over every aspect of public and private life. Stalin's communist Soviet Union and Hitler's Nazi Germany are key examples.
Joseph Stalin	communist dictator of the Soviet Union.
Great Depression	the severe economic depression that followed the collapse of the U.S. stock market in 1929.
Franklin Roosevelt	President of the United States throughout most of the Great Depression and WWII.
fascism	a political movement that promotes an extreme form of nationalism, a denial of individual rights, dictatorial one-party rule, and forcible suppression of opposition.
Benito Mussolini	fascist dictator of Italy during WWII; the original fascist.
Adolf Hitler	leader of the Nazi party and fascist dictator of Germany during WWII.
Weimar Republic	the parliamentary representative democracy established in Germany after its defeat in WW I.
Nazi Party National Socialist German Worker's Party	a radical right wing political party that came to power in Germany during the 1930's and was led by Adolf Hitler.
appeasement	The making of concessions to an aggressor in order to avoid war, as the Western powers did with Hitler at the Munich Conference.
Non-Aggression Pact	An agreement in which nations promise not to attack one another.
Stock Market Crash	A sudden dramatic decline of stock prices, driven by a public panic, across a significant cross-section of a stock market, resulting in a significant loss of paper wealth. This occurred in the The U.S. in 1929.
Tojo, Hideki	Military general and prime minister of Japan during WWII. He convinced the Japanese emperor to approve of the attack on Pearl Harbor. He would be hanged in 1948 after being convicted of war crimes at the Nuremburg Trials.

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At the end of this section the student will be able to

- identify major causes and describe the major effects of the following important turning points in world history from 1914 to the present: the world wars and their impact on political, economic, and social systems; communist revolutions and their impact on the Cold War; independence movements; and globalization.[WHS.1F]
- explain the roles of various world leaders, including Benito Mussolini, Adolf Hitler, Hideki Tojo, Joseph Stalin, Franklin D. Roosevelt, and Winston Churchill, prior to and during World War II.[WHS.12B]
- explain the major causes and events of World War II, including the German invasions of Poland and the Soviet Union, the Holocaust, Japanese imperialism, the attack on Pearl Harbor, the Normandy landings, and the dropping of the atomic bombs.[WHS.12C]
- create and interpret thematic maps, graphs, and charts to demonstrate the relationship between geography and the historical development of a region or nation.[WHS.15A]
- analyze and compare geographic distributions and patterns in world history shown on maps, graphs, charts, and models.[WHS.15B]
- locate places and regions of historical significance directly related to major eras and turning points in world history.[WHS.16A]
- interpret maps, charts, and graphs to explain how geography has influenced people and events in the past.[WHS.16C]
- explain the significance of the League of Nations and the United Nations.[WHS.20D]
- explain the effects of major new military technologies on World War I, World War II, and the Cold War.[WHS.28C]
- identify the contributions of significant scientists and inventors such as Marie Curie, Thomas Edison, Albert Einstein, Louis Pasteur, and James Watt.[WHS.28E]
- analyze information by sequencing, categorizing, identifying cause-and-effect relationships, comparing, contrasting, finding the main idea, summarizing, making generalizations and predictions, drawing inferences and conclusions, and developing connections between historical events over time.[WHS.29F]
- use social studies terminology correctly.[WHS.30A]
- use standard grammar, spelling, sentence structure, and punctuation.[WHS.30B]
- interpret and create written, oral, and visual presentations of social studies information.[WHS.30C]
- transfer information from one medium to another.[WHS.30D]

1. Copied content specific questions

(ISN) Discussion and Study Questions

1. Guiding Questions

(ISN) Tech Activities

Technology assignment that makes them do something with a computer

Vocabulary

Quizlet Flashcard Vocabulary for World War II

TABLE 15.2:

blitzkrieg	"lightening war" - a form of warfare in which surprise attacks with fast-moving airplanes are followed by massive attacks with infantry forces.
Allied & Axis Powers	The opposing combatants of WWII. Key Allied Powers were France, Great Britain, the Soviet Union, China, and, later, the United States. The key Axis Powers were Germany, Italy and Japan.
Battle of Britain	a series of battles fought over Britain between German and British air forces. Hitler's first defeat.
Winston Churchill	Prime Minister of Great Britain during WWII.
Pearl Harbor	a surprise military strike conducted by the Imperial Japanese Navy against a U.S. naval base in Hawaii that drew the U.S. into war.
Battle of Midway	a critical battle in the Pacific Campaign of the war in which the U.S. Navy decisively defeated the Japanese Navy, inflicting irreparable damage on the Japanese fleet.
D-Day	the day on which the Allies launched the largest amphibious assault in all of world history onto the beaches of Nazi controlled Normandy, France.
Manhattan Project	code name for the secret United States project set up in 1942 to develop atomic bombs for use in World War II.
Albert Einstein	a Jewish physicist who is considered to be the father of modern physics and would play a key role in the development of the atomic bomb.
atomic bomb	the unleashing of this weapon over the Japanese cities of Hiroshima and Nagasaki, Japan, brought about the end of WWII.
Hiroshima and Nagasaki	two Japanese cities destroyed by U.S. atomic bombs in 1945.
United Nations	an international peacekeeping organization founded in 1945 that replaced the League of Nations.
Big Three	A reference to the three key Allied powers of World War II: the United States, the Soviet Union, and Great Britain, represented by Roosevelt, Stalin, and Churchill respectively.

TABLE 15.2: (continued)

island hopping	A military strategy employed by the Allies in the Pacific War against Japan and the Axis powers during World War II. It involved bypassing heavily fortified Japanese positions and instead concentrating limited Allied resources on strategically important islands that were not well defended but capable of supporting the drive to the main islands of Japan.
Munich Conference	A 1938 meeting of representative from Britain, France, Italy, and Germany at which Britain and France appeased Hitler by agreeing to allow Nazi Germany to annex part of Czechoslovakia in return for Hitler's pledge to respect Czechoslovakia's new borders.
War in the Pacific	The battles fought by the U.S. against Japanese forces in the Pacific theater of war during WWII.

Internet Resources

15.3 The Holocaust

14.3 The Holocaust

Student Learning Objectives

At the end of this section the student will be able to

- explain the roles of various world leaders, including Benito Mussolini, Adolf Hitler, Hideki Tojo, Joseph Stalin, Franklin D. Roosevelt, and Winston Churchill, prior to and during World War II.[WHS.12B]
- explain the major causes and events of World War II, including the German invasions of Poland and the Soviet Union, the Holocaust, Japanese imperialism, the attack on Pearl Harbor, the Normandy landings, and the dropping of the atomic bombs.[WHS.12C]
- locate places and regions of historical significance directly related to major eras and turning points in world history.[WHS.16A]
- summarize the development of the rule of law from ancient to modern times.[WHS.22A]
- identify examples of genocide, including the Holocaust and genocide in the Balkans, Rwanda, and Darfur.[WHS.22D]
- analyze information by sequencing, categorizing, identifying cause-and-effect relationships, comparing, contrasting, finding the main idea, summarizing, making generalizations and predictions, drawing inferences and conclusions, and developing connections between historical events over time.[WHS.29F]
- use social studies terminology correctly.[WHS.30A]
- use standard grammar, spelling, sentence structure, and punctuation.[WHS.30B]
- interpret and create written, oral, and visual presentations of social studies information.[WHS.30C]
- transfer information from one medium to another.[WHS.30D]

(ISN) Interactive Student Notebook Assignments

1. Copied content specific questions

(ISN) Discussion and Study Questions

1. Guiding Questions

(ISN) Tech Activities

Technology assignment that makes them do something with a computer

Vocabulary

[Quizlet Flashcard Vocabulary for the Holocaust](#)

TABLE 15.3:

anti-Semitism	Hatred and prejudice against Jews.
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TABLE 15.3: (continued)

Dachau and Auschwitz	Two concentration camps used by the Nazis to help carry out Hitler's Final Solution. One was located in Germany, the other in Poland.
Final Solution	Hitler's program of systematically killing off the Jewish people.
Gestapo	The secret police of Nazi Germany and Nazi occupied Europe during WWII.
Ghettos	Enclosed city neighborhoods in which European Jews were forced to live. Known for their unhealthy and tightly cramped quarters, these areas were often the first stepping-stone on the road to the extermination of European Jewry.
Holocaust	The mass slaughter of Jews and other civilians carried out by the Nazi government of Germany before and during World War II.
Kristallnacht	"Night of Broken Glass" - in 1938, a series of anti-Semitic attacks launched against Jews throughout Nazi Germany and parts of Austria by Nazi storm troopers in which Jewish homes, businesses, and synagogues were destroyed.
Nuremberg Laws	Anti-Semitic laws passed in Nazi Germany shortly after the takeover of power in 1933 by Hitler. The laws attempted to define who was Jewish, and then proceeded to deny Jews German citizenship, civil-service jobs, and the right to marry other Germans.
Nuremberg Trials	A series of court proceedings held in Nuremberg, Germany, after World War II, that tried Nazi leaders on acts of aggression, violations of the rules of war, and crimes against humanity.

Internet Resources

CHAPTER

16

**Chapter Fifteen:
Decolonization and Cold War**

Chapter Outline

16.1 COLD WAR

16.2 NATIONALISM, INDEPENDENCE MOVEMENTS AND POPULAR RESISTANCE

16.3 REFERENCES

16.1 Cold War

15.1 The Cold War

Student learning Objectives

At the end of this section the student will be able to:

- identify major causes and describe the major effects of the following important turning points in world history from 1914 to the present: the world wars and their impact on political, economic, and social systems; communist revolutions and their impact on the Cold War; independence movements; and globalization
- summarize how the outcome of World War II contributed to the development of the Cold War
- summarize the factors that contributed to communism in China, including Mao Zedong's role in its rise, and how it differed from Soviet communism.
- identify the following major events of the Cold War, including the Korean War, the Vietnam War, and the arms race.
- explain the roles of modern world leaders, including Ronald Reagan, Mikhail Gorbachev, Lech Walesa, and Pope John Paul II, in the collapse of communism in Eastern Europe and the Soviet Union.
- explain why communist command economies collapsed in competition with free market economies at the end of the 20th century.
- formulate generalizations on how economic freedom improved the human condition, based on students' knowledge of the benefits of free enterprise in Europe's Commercial Revolution, the Industrial Revolution, and 20th-century free market economies, compared to communist command communities
- identify examples of politically motivated mass murders in Cambodia, China, Latin America, the Soviet Union, and Armenia.

Development of the Cold War

Once the Allies had defeated the Axis Powers, the differences between the United States (and Britain) and their Soviet allies became apparent. Stalin was still afraid of the West while the leaders of the United States and other western countries continued to fear communism. This leads to the question, who was responsible for starting the Cold War between the United States and the USSR (Union of Soviet Socialist Republics)? Both countries took steps that were unwise and could be misinterpreted by the other side. Thus it should not be a surprise that two countries with two such different systems came into conflict.

Areas of Disagreement

Rivalry in Europe

Eastern Europe was the first area where disagreement arose. Both the United States and Great Britain felt the liberated nations of Eastern Europe should freely determine their own governments. Stalin, fearful that the Eastern European countries would be anti-communist if they were allowed to hold free elections, was against the idea of allowing these countries to determine their own governmental system. Having freed Eastern Europe from the control of Nazi Germany, the Soviet army remained in control of the areas they had conquered.

Civil war in Greece created another area of conflict between the superpowers. The Communist People's Liberation

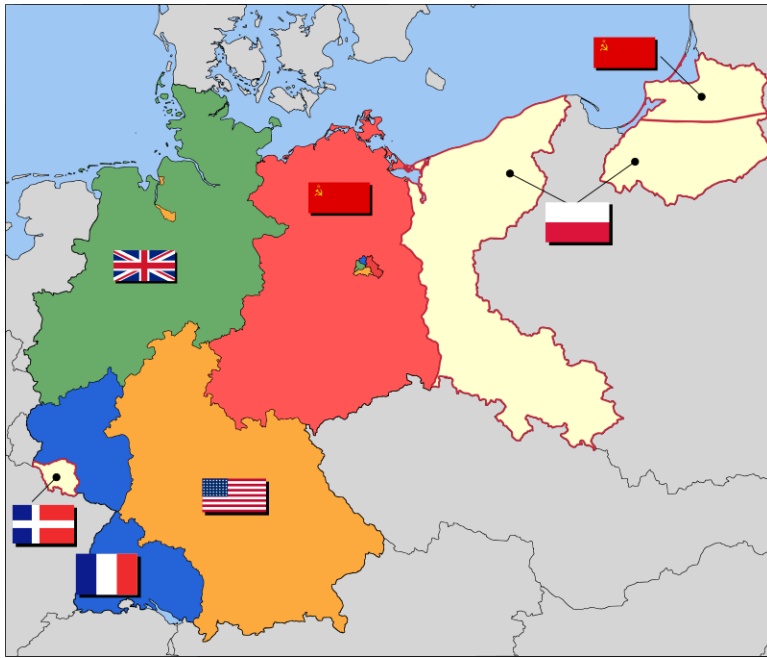


FIGURE 16.1

Post-war Allied occupation zones in Germany.

Army and anticommunist forces supported by Great Britain were fighting each other for control of the country in 1946. However, Britain had its own problems and was forced to withdraw support from Greece.

The Truman Doctrine

President Harry S. Truman of the U.S. was concerned by the withdrawal of Britain from Greece as well as the possibility of Soviet expansion into the eastern Mediterranean. Because of this, in 1947, he responded with the Truman Doctrine. This stated that the U.S. would provide money to countries if they were threatened by communism. If the Russians were not stopped in Greece, according to Truman administration beliefs, then the U.S. would be faced with the spread of communism throughout the world.

The Marshall Plan

The Truman Doctrine was followed in 1947 by the European Recovery Program. A proposal thought up by General George C. Marshall, the U.S. Secretary of State, it is more commonly referred to as the Marshall Plan. The program was designed to restore European prosperity and stability. It included \$13 billion in aid for the economic recovery of Europe. Underlying the plan was the belief that Communist aggression was successful in countries where there were economic problems.

The plan was not meant to shut out the Soviets or their economic and politically dependent allies. In fact they were invited to join, but refused to do so. The Soviets believed the Marshall Plan guaranteed “American loans in return for the relinquishing by the European states of their economic and later also their political independence.” In other words, the Soviets believed it was an attempt to buy support.

The Soviets responded by creating the Council for Mutual Assistance (COMECON) for the economic cooperation of the states in Eastern Europe. However, this was largely a failure because of the inability of the Soviet Union to provide large amounts of financial aid.

By the late 1940s the split in Europe between the U.S. and the Soviets had become a fact of life. In July 1947, George Keenan, the U.S. ambassador to the USSR, argued for a policy to contain communism within its existing

boundaries and prevent it from spreading further. Thus containment became a policy of the U.S.

The Division of Germany

Germany's fate became a source of contention between the Russians and the West. When the war was over the Allies divided Germany into four zones, each one occupied by one of the Allies—the United States, the USSR, France and Britain. Berlin, located deep inside the Soviet occupation zone, was also divided between the four allies.

While the foreign ministers of the four occupying powers continually met in an attempt to arrive at a final settlement with Germany. However, they had little success and by February of 1948 the three western powers began to make plans to unify their sections of Germany and create a west German government.

Of course, the Russians opposed this idea. In an attempt to prevent the creation of this state they implemented a blockade of West Berlin. Soviet forces did not allow trucks, trains or barges to enter the city's three Western zones. Food and supplies could no longer get through to the millions of people in these areas.

This meant the Western allies faced dilemma. No one wanted to start World War III, especially so close after the end of the second World War. However, something had to be done to keep the citizens of West Berlin alive. The solution was to fly in supplies using British and American Air forces—The Berlin Air lift.

Aircrews from the United States Air Force, the British Royal Air Force, the Royal Canadian Air Force, the Royal Australian Air Force, the Royal New Zealand Air Force, and the South African Air Force flew over 200,000 flights in one year, providing to the Berliners up to 8,893 tons of necessities each day, such as fuel and food. As neither side wanted a war, the Soviets did not disrupt the airlift.

By the spring of 1949, the airlift was clearly succeeding, and by April it was delivering more cargo than had previously been transported into the city by rail. On 12 May 1949, the USSR lifted the blockade of West Berlin. The Berlin Blockade served to highlight the competing ideological and economic visions for postwar Europe. Then, in September of 1949, the Federal Republic of Germany, also known as West Germany, was created. The capital city was Bonn. A month later the Soviets responded by creating the German Democratic Republic in East Germany with East Berlin as its capital.

The Spread of the Cold War

In 1949 Communists in China took over the government in their country, further reinforcing American fears about the spread of communism. Later in the year the Soviets also tested their first atomic bomb, leading the U.S. and USSR to engage in an arms race, in which both built up armies and weapons. Nuclear weapons also became increasingly powerful and destructive.

Both the Americans and the Soviets believed that an arsenal of nuclear weapons would prevent war. They felt that if one nation attacked the other with nuclear weapons, the second country would still be able to respond and devastate the attacker. Therefore, according to this policy, neither side could risk using their supply of weapons, even though both had stockpiled massive numbers of nuclear bombs.

New Military Alliances

The desire to achieve security during the Cold War led to the formation of new alliances. The first one was the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO). Formed in April 1949 when 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 treat an attack on one nation as an attack on all nations in the alliance. Within a few years both Turkey and West Germany joined the alliance.

By 1955 the USSR joined up with Albania, Bulgaria, Czechoslovakia, East Germany, Hungary, Poland and Romania in a military alliance known as the Warsaw Pact. Europe had again been divided into a hostile alliance system just

as it had been prior to the first World War.

The Berlin Wall

In 1955 a new leader of the Soviet Union emerged in the aftermath of the death of Joseph Stalin. Nikita Khrushchev, new to power in his country, attempted to take advantage of the American concern over missiles to finally solve the problem of West Berlin, a city which continued to be an island of "western" style prosperity in the middle of poverty stricken communist East-Germany.

Soviet leaders realized it was necessary to stop the flow of refugees from East Germany through West Berlin. Thus, in August of 1961, the East German government began to build a wall separating West Berlin from the East. Eventually it would become a barrier of massive size, guarded by barbed wire, machine-gun towers, floodlights, dog-patrols and even minefields. The wall became a symbol of the division between the United States and the Soviet Union.



FIGURE 16.2

Photograph of the Berlin Wall taken from the West side. The Wall was built in 1961 to prevent East Germans from fleeing and to stop an economically disastrous drain of workers. It was a symbol of the Cold War and its fall in 1989 marked the approaching end of the war.

The Cuban Missile Crisis

During the administration of John F. Kennedy, the Cold War confrontation between the United States and the Soviet Union reached frightening levels. In the late 1950s Fidel Castro, a left-wing revolutionary leader, came to power in Cuba by overthrowing the regime of Cuban dictator Fulgencio Batista and created a Soviet-supported communist dictatorship 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 ended up being a disaster. Many of the exiles were killed or captured when they attempted an amphibious landing at the Bay of Pigs.

After the invasion the Soviet Union sent arms and military advisers to the island nation. Then, in 1962, Khrushchev began to place nuclear missiles in Cuba. These missiles were meant to counteract U.S. nuclear weapons placed in Turkey within easy range of the Soviet Union. Khrushchev pointed out "Your rockets are in Turkey. You are worried by Cuba... because it is 90 miles from the American coast. But Turkey is next to us."

Understandably the U.S was not willing to allow nuclear weapons within such close striking distance of its mainland. In October 1962, Kennedy found out that Soviet ships carrying missiles were heading to Cuba. He decided to blockade Cuba and prevent the fleet from reaching Cuba. This approach meant each side had time to find a peaceful solution. Khrushchev was willing to turn the fleet around and remove the missiles from Cuba if Kennedy pledged not to invade the island nation. Kennedy quickly agreed to this.

The Cold War in Asia

Nationalists and Communists in China

The revolutionary strain of Marxism had its greatest impact in China. By 1920, central authority had almost ceased to exist in China. Two political systems began to emerge as competitors for the hearts and minds of the average Chinese citizen: Sun Yat-sen's Nationalist Party and the Chinese Communist Party.

By 1921, a group of young radicals, including faculty and staff members from Beijing University, founded the Chinese Communist Party in the commercial and industrial city of Shanghai. Agents from Comintern soon began advising the new party to join with the more experienced Nationalist Party.

Sun Yat-sen, leader of the Nationalists, welcomed cooperation. He needed the expertise that the Soviets could provide because his anti-imperialist words had alienated many Western powers. One English-language newspaper in Shanghai said, "All his life, all his influence, are devaluated to ideas that keep China in turmoil, and it is utterly undesirable that he should be allowed to prosecute those aims here." An alliance between the two was formed in 1923 to drive out the imperialists and oppose the war lords.

The two parties were able to overlook their mutual suspicions for the first three years. They were able to mobilize and train a revolutionary army to march to the north and seize control over China. This Northern Expedition started in the summer of 1926. By the following spring, revolutionary forces had taken control of all of China south of the Chang Jiang (Yangtze), including the major river ports of Wuhan and Shanghai.

Tensions between the parties eventually rose to the surface, especially after the death of Sun Yat-sen in 1925. He was succeeded as head of the Nationalist Party by the general Chiang Kai-shek, who only pretended to support the alliance with the communists. In April of 1927, however, he went on the offensive in Shanghai against the communists and their supporters. Thousands were killed in what is called the Shanghai Massacre. The alliance between the two parties ceased to exist at this point.

In 1928 a new Chinese republic was founded by Chiang Kai-shek at Nanjing. Over the next three years he would work to reunify the country. Although he saw Japan as a serious threat to Chinese independence, he believed that they were less dangerous than his other enemy, the communist party.

Mao Zedong

After the massacre some party members fled the mountains region Jiangxi in the south. This group was led by the young Communist Mao Zedong. Unlike other leading members of the party, Mao was convinced that a Chinese revolution would be driven by the poverty-stricken peasants in the country rather than by the urban working class.

Chiang now attempted to root out the communists from their urban base in Shanghai and their real base in Jiangxi Province. He was successful in the first part of his task in 1931. Most of the leaders of the party in Shanghai were forced to flee to the base in South China.

The Nationalists then turned against Mao's stronghold in Jiangxi. While the Nationalists outnumbered Mao's forces, Mao made more effective use of guerrilla tactics, using unexpected maneuvers like sabotage and subterfuge to fight against the more numerous enemy. Four slogans succinctly describe his methods: "When the enemy advances, we retreat! When the enemy halts and camps, we trouble them! When the enemy tries to avoid battle, we attack! When the enemy retreats, we pursue!"

The Long March

In 1934 Nationalist troops, using superior military strength, were able to surround the Communist base in Jiangxi. However, Mao's army, the People's Liberation Army (PLA), broke through the Nationalist lines and began its famous Long March.

There was not one Long March, but a series of marches, as various Communist armies in the south escaped to the north and west. The best known is the march from Jiangxi province which began in October 1934. The First Front Army of the Chinese Soviet Republic, led by an inexperienced military commission, was on the brink of annihilation by Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek's troops in their stronghold in Jiangxi province. The Communists,

**FIGURE 16.3**

Location of the first Congress of the Chinese Communist Party in July 1921, in Xintiandi, former French Concession, Shanghai.

under the eventual command of Mao Zedong and Zhou Enlai, escaped in a circling retreat to the west and north, which reportedly traversed over 9,000 kilometers (6,000 miles) over 370 days.^[1] The route passed through some of the most difficult terrain of western China by traveling west, then north, to Shaanxi.

Finally, Mao's troops reach safety in the hills of Northern China. Of the approximately 90,000 troops who had begun the journey only 9,000 remained. Over the course of the previous year Mao had been able to take control of the party as its sole leader. To people who lived at the time it probably seemed that the Communist Party threat to the regime in Nanjing was over. As far as the communists were concerned they were hopeful for what the future could bring.

China Under Chang Kai-Shek

While trying to destroy the communist threat Chiang was also trying to build a new nation. Chiang publicly declared his commitment to the plans of Sun Yat-sen which called for the creation of a Republic. However, first there would of course be a transition period. In the words of Sun Yat-sen:

"China... needs a republican government just as a boy needs school. As a schoolboy must have good teachers and helpful friends, so the Chinese people, being for the first time under republican rule, must have a farsighted revolutionary government for their training... without this disorder will be unavoidable."

In keeping with this program, Chiang announced a period of political tutelage or training to prepare the Chinese

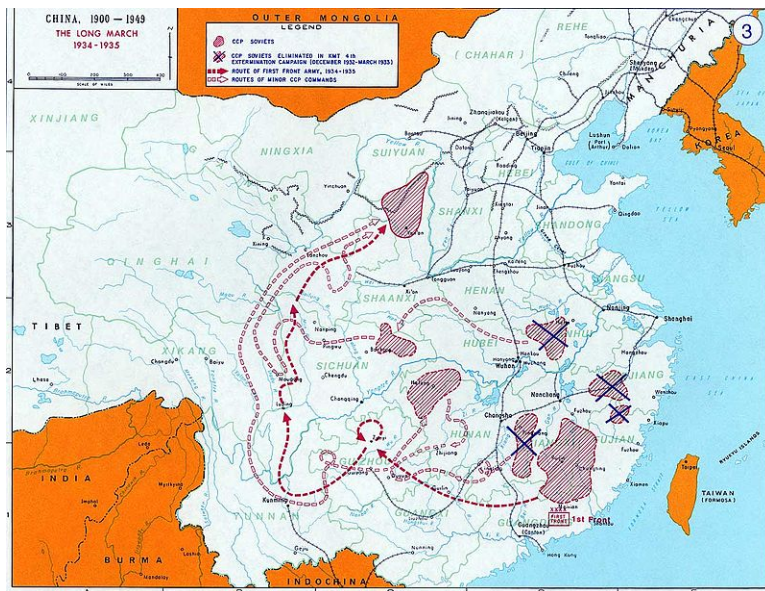


FIGURE 16.4

Overview map of the route of the Long March. Red-hatched areas show Communist enclaves. Areas marked by a blue "X" were overrun by Kuomintang forces during the Fourth Encirclement Campaign, forcing the Fourth Red Army (north) and the Second Red Army (south) to retreat to more western enclaves (open dotted lines). The solid dotted line is the route of the First Red Army from Jiangxi. The withdrawal of all three Red Armies ends in the northeast enclave of Shaanxi.

people for a final stage of constitutional government. At the same time the Nationalists would use the power of dictator to implement a land-reform program as well as modernize the economy.

It would, however, take more than plans on paper to create a new nation. The Chinese economy as well as the political and social fabric, had been long neglected and damaged by years of civil war and internal strife. Most of the people who lived in the countryside were tired of warfare and civil strife. The peasants, making up 80% of the population, were mostly illiterate and still very poor.

One positive was that a westernized middle class had begun to form in the urban areas of the nation. This is where the new Nanjing overmen found much of its support. However, the newly westernized elite pursued the middle-class values of individual advancement and material accumulation and had few, if any, links to the peasants in the countryside.

The decade of 1928 to 1937 saw some aspects of foreign imperialism, concessions and privileges in China, moderated through diplomacy. The government acted to modernize the legal and penal systems, attempted to stabilize prices, amortize debts, reform the banking and currency systems, build railroads and highways, improve public health facilities, legislate against traffic in narcotics, and augment industrial and agricultural production. Not all of these projects were successfully completed. Efforts were made towards improving education standards; and, in an effort to unify Chinese society, the New Life Movement was launched to encourage Confucian moral values and personal discipline. *Guoyu* ("National language"), was promoted as a standard tongue, and the establishment of communications facilities (including radio) were used to encourage a sense of Chinese nationalism in a way that was not possible when the nation lacked an effective central government

Any successes that the Nationalists did make, however, were met with constant political and military upheavals. While much of the urban areas were now under the control of the KMT, much of the countryside remained under the influence of weakened yet undefeated warlords and Communists. Chiang often resolved issues of warlord obstinacy through military action, but such action was costly in terms of men and material. The 1930 Central Plains War alone nearly bankrupted the Nationalist government and caused almost 250,000 casualties on both sides. In 1931, Hu Hanmin, Chiang's old supporter, publicly voiced a popular concern that Chiang's position as both premier and president flew in the face of the democratic ideals of the Nationalist government. Chiang had Hu put under house arrest, but he was released after national condemnation after which he left Nanjing and supported a rival government in Guangzhou. The split resulted in a military conflict between Hu's Guangzhou government and Chiang's Nationalist government. Chiang only won the campaign against Hu after a shift in allegiance by the warlord



FIGURE 16.5Chiang Kai-shek

Zhang Xueliang, who had previously supported Hu Hanmin.

Chinese Civil War

By 1945, there were two Chinese governments, the Nationalist government led by Chiang Kai-shek and the Communists led by Mao.

By the end of the Second Sino-Japanese War, the balance of power in China's civil war had shifted in favor of the Communists. Their main force grew to 1.2 million troops, with a militia of 2 million. Their "Liberated Zone" contained 19 base areas, including one-quarter of the country's territory and one-third of its population; this included many important towns and cities. Moreover, the Soviet Union turned over all of its captured Japanese weapons and a substantial amount of their own supplies to the Communists, who received Northeastern China from the Soviets as well.

In March 1946, despite repeated requests from Chiang, the Soviet Red Army under the command of Marshal Malinovsky continued to delay pulling out of Manchuria while Malinovsky secretly told the CPC forces to move in behind them, because Stalin wanted Mao to have firm control of at least the northern part of Manchuria before the complete withdrawal of the Soviets, which led to full-scale war for the control of the Northeast. These favorable conditions also facilitated many changes inside the Communist leadership: the more hard-line faction finally gained the upper hand and defeated the opportunists. Prior to giving control to Communist leaders, on March 27 Soviet

diplomats requested a joint venture of industrial development with the Nationalist Party in Manchuria.

Using the pretext of "receiving the Japanese surrender", business interests within the KMT government occupied most of the banks, factories and commercial properties, which had previously been seized by the Imperial Japanese Army. They also conscripted troops at a brutal pace from the civilian population and hoarded supplies, preparing for a resumption of war with the Communists. These hasty and harsh preparations caused great hardship for the residents of cities such as Shanghai, where the unemployment rate rose dramatically to 37.5%.

The US strongly supported the Kuomintang forces. Over 50,000 US Marines were sent to guard strategic sites, and 100,000 US troops were sent to Shandong. The US equipped and trained over 500,000 KMT troops, and transported KMT forces to occupy newly liberated zones as well as to contain Communist-controlled areas. American aid included substantial amounts of both new and surplus military supplies; additionally, loans worth hundreds of millions of dollars were made to the KMT. Within less than two years after the Sino-Japanese War, the KMT had received \$4.43 billion from the US—most of which was military aid.

Knowing their disadvantages in manpower and equipment, the CPC executed a "passive defense" strategy. It avoided the strong points of the KMT army and was prepared to abandon territory in order to preserve its forces. In most cases the surrounding countryside and small towns had come under Communist influence long before the cities. The CPC also attempted to wear out the KMT forces as much as possible. This tactic seemed to be successful; after a year, the power balance became more favorable to the CPC. They wiped out 1.12 million KMT troops, while their strength grew to about two million men.

In March 1947 the KMT achieved a symbolic victory by seizing the CPC capital of Yan'an. Soon afterwards the Communists counterattacked; on 30 June 1947 CPC troops crossed the Huanghe River and moved to the Dabie Mountains area, restored and developed the Central Plain. Concurrently, Communist forces in Northeastern China, North China and East China began to counterattack as well.

By late 1948 the CPC eventually captured the northern cities of Shenyang and Changchun and seized control of the Northeast after suffering numerous setbacks while trying to take the cities, with the decisive Liaoshen Campaign. The New 1st Army, regarded as the best KMT army, was forced to surrender after the CPC conducted a brutal six-month siege of Changchun that resulted in more than 150,000 civilian deaths from starvation.

The capture of large KMT units provided the CPC with the tanks, heavy artillery and other combined-arms assets needed to prosecute offensive operations south of the Great Wall. By April 1948 the city of Luoyang fell, cutting the KMT army off from Xi'an. Following a fierce battle, the CPC captured Jinan and Shandong province on September 24, 1948. The Huaihai Campaign of late 1948 and early 1949 secured east-central China for the CPC. The outcome of these encounters were decisive for the military outcome of the civil war.

The Pingjin Campaign resulted in the Communist conquest of northern China. It lasted 64 days, from November 21, 1948, to January 31, 1949. The PLA suffered heavy casualties while securing Zhangjiakou, Tianjin along with its port and garrison at Dagu and Beiping. The CPC brought 890,000 troops from the northeast to oppose some 600,000 KMT troops. There were 40,000 CPC casualties at Zhangjiakou alone. They in turn killed, wounded or captured some 520,000 KMT during the campaign.

On October 1, 1949, Mao Zedong proclaimed the People's Republic of China with its capital at Beiping, which was renamed Beijing. Chiang Kai-shek and approximately two million Nationalist Chinese retreated from mainland China to the island of Taiwan in December after the loss of Sichuan. There remained only isolated pockets of resistance, notably in Sichuan (ending soon after the fall of Chengdu on December 10, 1949) and in the far south.

The People's Republic of China (1949-present)

Major combat in the Chinese Civil War ended in 1949 with the Communist Party in control of most of mainland China, and the Kuomintang retreating offshore, reducing the ROC's territory to only Taiwan, Hainan, and their surrounding islands. On 1 October 1949, Communist Party Chairman Mao Zedong proclaimed the establishment of the People's Republic of China. In 1950, the People's Liberation Army succeeded in capturing Hainan from the ROC and occupying Tibet. However, remaining Nationalist forces continued to wage an insurgency in western China throughout the 1950s.

**FIGURE 16.6**

Mao Zedong proclaiming the establishment of the People's Republic in 1949.

Mao's regime consolidated its popularity among the peasants through the land reform with between 1 and 2 million landlords executed. Under its leadership, China developed an independent industrial base and its own nuclear weapons. The Chinese population almost doubled from around 550 million to over 900 million. However, Mao's Great Leap Forward, a large-scale economic and social reform project, resulted in an estimated 45 million deaths between 1958 and 1961, mostly from starvation. In 1966, Mao and his allies launched the Cultural Revolution, sparking a period of political recrimination and social upheaval which lasted until Mao's death in 1976. In October 1971, the PRC replaced the Republic of China in the United Nations, and took its seat as a permanent member of the Security Council.

After Mao's death in 1976 and the arrest of the faction known as the Gang of Four, who were blamed for the excesses of the Cultural Revolution, Deng Xiaoping took power and led the country to significant economic reforms. The Communist Party subsequently loosened governmental control over citizens' personal lives and the communes were disbanded in favour of private land leases. This turn of events marked China's transition from a planned economy to a mixed economy with an increasingly open market environment. China adopted its current constitution on 4 December 1982. In 1989, the violent suppression of student protests in Tiananmen Square brought condemnation and sanctions against the Chinese government from various countries.

**MEDIA**

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(ISN) Interactive Student Notebook

(ISN) Discussion and Study

(ISN) Tech Activities

Vocabulary

TABLE 16.1:

TABLE 16.1: (continued)

Cuban Missile Crisis	(October 1962) - a tense, thirteen-day Cold War confrontation between the Soviet Union and Cuba on one side and the U.S. on the other after Soviet missile installations were discovered in Cuba.
Cultural Revolution	A 1966-1976 uprising in China led by Mao Zedong's Red Guards with the goal of establishing a society of peasants and workers in which all were equal.
Deng Xiaoping	Leader of the Communist party of China between 1980 to 1997, a survivor of the Long March and the last of the "old revolutionaries" who had ruled China since 1949. He is notable for his opening up of the Chinese economy as well as his brutal suppression of the Tiananmen Square protests.
glasnost	A Soviet policy of openness to the free flow of ideas and information, introduced in 1985 by Mikhail Gorbachev.
Gorbachev, Mikhail	Leader of the Soviet from 1985 to 1991 whose democratic reform policies of glasnost and perestroika led to the election of non-Communist governments in Eastern Europe and the dissolution of the Soviet Union.
Iron curtain	During the Cold War, the boundary separating the Communist nations of Eastern Europe from the mostly democratic nations of Western Europe. The term was coined by Winston Churchill.
Khmer Rouge	A group of communist rebels who seized power in Cambodia in 1975 under the leadership of Pol Pot. A quarter of the nation's population (2 million) would be slaughtered as Pol Pot attempted to transform Cambodia into a communist, rural society.
Korean War	(1950-1953) - a war fought between North Korean and Chinese communist armies against South Korean and United Nations forces, led by the U.S.
NATO	A defensive military alliance formed in 1949 by ten Western European nations, the United States, and Canada intended to collectively defend themselves against further Soviet expansion.
nuclear arms race	The race between the United States and the Soviet Union during the cold war to develop more powerful nuclear bombs.
perestroika	A restructuring of the Soviet economy to permit more local decision-making begun by Mikhail Gorbachev in 1985.
Pope John Paul II	A Polish Pope who in 1978 became the first non-Italian Pope in 400 years. His leadership and inspiration contributed to the end of communism in Eastern Europe.

TABLE 16.1: (continued)

Sharansky, Natan	An Israeli human rights activist and author; a Russian Jewish dissident who spent nine years in a Soviet concentration camp for speaking out for greater human rights in the Soviet Union.
Tiananmen Square	Located in Beijing, China, a series of popular demonstrations occurred here in 1989 that were brutally suppressed by the Chinese military under the leadership of Deng Xiaoping.
Truman Doctrine	A U.S. policy of giving economic and military aid to free nations threatened by internal or external opponents announce by the U.S. president in 1947.
Vietnam War	A Cold War conflict taking place in Vietnam, Laos, and Cambodia from 1955 to 1975.
Walesa, Lech	A Polish leader who organized a trade union in Poland named Solidarity. He led a workers' strike in 1988 that would lead to free elections in Poland and the end of Communist rule.
Zedong, Mao	A Chinese communist leader from 1949 until his death in 1976. With the support of the peasantry, he established communist control of China in 1949 after the Long March and driving the Nationalists off the Chinese mainland during the Chinese Civil War. He is noted for his brutal measures in achieving communist control of China, including the Great Leap Forward and the Cultural Revolution.

16.2 Nationalism, Independence Movements and Popular Resistance

15.2 Nationalism, Independence Movements and Popular Resistance

Student Learning Objectives

- identify major causes and describe the major effects of the following important turning points in world history from 1914 to the present: the world wars and their impact on political, economic, and social systems; communist revolutions and their impact on the Cold War; independence movements; and globalization.
- summarize the rise of independence movements in Africa, the Middle East, and South Asia and reasons for ongoing conflicts
- describe how people have participated in supporting or changing their governments
- identify examples of individuals who led resistance to political oppression such as Nelson Mandela, Mohandas Gandhi, Oscar Romero, Natan Sharansky, Las Madres de la Plaza de Mayo, and Chinese student protestors in Tiananmen Square describe the major influences of women such as Elizabeth I, Queen Victoria, Mother Teresa, Indira Gandhi, Margaret Thatcher, and Golda Meir during major eras of world history.

Decolonization in Africa

The **decolonization of Africa** followed World War II, when colonized peoples agitated for independence and colonial powers withdrew their administrators from Africa.

The Transition to Independence

European rule had enveloped nearly all of Africa by 1900. However, after World War II, Europeans realized that colonial rule in Africa would have to end. When both Britain and France let go of their colonial empires in the late part of the 50's and 60's, most black African nations achieved their independence.

In 1957, the Gold Coast, renamed Ghana and under the guidance of **Kwame Nkrumah**, was the first former British colony to gain independence. Nigeria, the Belgian Congo(now named the Democratic Republic of the Congo), Kenya, and other nations soon followed. Seventeen new African nations would emerge in 1960 alone. Between 1961 and 1965 another 11 nations followed suit. After a series of brutal wars the Portuguese would finally surrender the colonies of Mozambique and Angola in the 1970s.

In the northern portion of Africa the French allowed full independence in Morocco and Tunisia in 1956. Because Algeria was home to two million French settlers, France chose to keep control there. In the meantime, Algerian nationalists had organized the National Liberation Front (FLN) and in 1954 initiated a guerrilla war to liberate their homeland. The French leader, Charles e Gaulle, granted Algeria its independence in 1962.

The Gold Coast

The **Gold Coast** was a British colony on the Gulf of Guinea in west Africa that became the independent nation of Ghana in 1957.

The first Europeans to arrive at the coast were the Portuguese in 1471. They encountered a variety of African kingdoms, some of which controlled substantial deposits of gold in the soil. In 1482, the Portuguese built the Castle of Elmina, the first European settlement on the Gold Coast. From here they traded slaves, gold, knives, beads, mirrors, rum and guns. News of the successful trading spread quickly, and eventually British, Dutch, Danish, Prussian and Swedish traders arrived as well. The European traders built several forts along the coastline. The *Gold Coast* had long been a name for the region used by Europeans because of the large gold resources found in the area. The slave trade was the principal exchange for many years.

The British Gold Coast was formed in 1867 after the British government abolished the African Company of Merchants in 1821 and seized privately held lands along the coast. They also took over the remaining interests of other European countries, purchasing and incorporating the Danish Gold Coast in 1850 and the Dutch Gold Coast, including Fort Elmina, in 1872. Britain steadily expanded its colony through the invasion of local kingdoms as well, particularly the Ashanti and Fante confederacies. The Ashanti people had controlled much of the territory of Ghana before the Europeans arrived and were often in conflict with them. They are the largest ethnic community in Ghana. Four wars, the Anglo-Ashanti Wars, were fought between the Ashanti (Asante) and the British, who were sometimes allied with the Fante.



FIGURE 16.7

The Portuguese-built Elmina Castle was purchased by Britain in 1873. Also known as St. George Castle, it is now a World Heritage Site

During the First Anglo-Ashanti War (1822–1824), the two groups fought because of a disagreement over an Ashanti chief and slavery. Tensions increased in 1874 during the Second Ashanti War (1873–1874) when the British sacked the Ashanti capital of Kumasi. The Third Ashanti War (1893–1894) occurred because the new Ashanti ruler Asantehene wanted to exercise his new title. From 1895–1896 the British and Ashanti fought in the Fourth and final Ashanti War, where the Ashanti fought for and lost their independence. In 1900 the Ashanti Uprising took place, resulting in the British capture of the city of Kumasi. At the end of this last Ashanti War, the Ashanti people became a British protectorate on 1 January 1902.

By 1901, all of the Gold Coast was a British colony, with its kingdoms and tribes considered a single unit. The British exported a variety of natural resources such as gold, metal ores, diamonds, ivory, pepper, timber, grain and cocoa. The British colonists built railways and the complex transport infrastructure which formed the basis for the transport infrastructure in modern-day Ghana. They also built Western-style hospitals and schools to provide modern amenities to the people of the empire.

By 1945, the native population was demanding more autonomy in the wake of the end of the Second World War and the beginnings of the decolonisation process across the world. By 1956, British Togoland, the Ashanti protectorate, and the Fante protectorate were merged with the Gold Coast to create one colony, which became known as the Gold Coast. In 1957 the colony gained independence under the name of Ghana.

South Africa

In South Africa, where the political system was dominated by European settlers, the process was more complicated. Political activity on the part of local blacks had begun with the formation of African National Congress (ANC) in 1912. The goal of the group was to achieve both economic and political reform in South Africa. However, their efforts, met with little, if any, success.



FIGURE 16.8

"For use by white persons" apartheid era sign.

By the 1950's South African whites (descended from the Dutch and known as Afrikaners) had strengthened the laws separating whites and blacks. The result was a system of racial segregation known as apartheid (apartness).

Blacks demonstrated against the apartheid laws, but the white government brutally suppressed the movement. In 1960 the government fired on people who were leading a peaceful march in Sharpeville, killing 69, 2/3 of whom were shot in the back. Afterwards ANC leader Nelson Mandela was arrested and members of the ANC called for armed resistance against the white government.

In the meantime, On 31 May 1961, the country became a republic following a referendum in which white voters narrowly voted in favour thereof (the British-dominated Natal province rallied against the issue). Queen Elizabeth II was stripped of the title Queen of South Africa, and the last Governor-General, namely Charles Robberts Swart, became State President. As a concession to the Westminster system, the presidency remained parliamentary appointed and virtually powerless until P. W. Botha's Constitution Act of 1983, which (intact in these regards) eliminated the office of Prime Minister and instated a near-unique "strong presidency" responsible to parliament. Pressured by other Commonwealth of Nations countries, South Africa left the organisation in 1961 and was readmitted only in 1994.

Despite opposition both within and outside the country, the government legislated for a continuation of apartheid. The security forces harshly oppressed resistance movements, and violence became widespread, with anti-apartheid activists using strikes, marches, protests, and sabotage by bombing and other means. The African National Congress (ANC) was a major resistance movement. Apartheid became increasingly controversial, and some Western nations and institutions began to boycott business with South Africa because of its racial policies and suppression of civil rights. International sanctions, divestment of holdings by investors accompanied growing unrest and oppression within South Africa.

Nelson Mandela

Nelson Rolihlahla Mandela was a South African anti-apartheid revolutionary, politician and philanthropist who served as President of South Africa from 1994 to 1999. He was the country's first black chief executive, and the first

elected in a fully representative democratic election. His government focused on dismantling the legacy of apartheid through tackling institutionalised racism and fostering racial reconciliation. Politically an African nationalist and democratic socialist, he served as President of the African National Congress (ANC) party from 1991 to 1997. Internationally, Mandela was Secretary General of the Non-Aligned Movement from 1998 to 1999.

A Xhosa born to the Thembu royal family, Mandela attended Fort Hare University and the University of Witwatersrand, where he studied law. Living in Johannesburg, he became involved in anti-colonial politics, joining the ANC and becoming a founding member of its Youth League. After the Afrikaner minority government of the National Party established apartheid in 1948, he rose to prominence in the ANC's 1952 Defiance Campaign, was appointed superintendent of the organisation's Transvaal chapter and presided over the 1955 Congress of the People. Working as a lawyer, he was repeatedly arrested for seditious activities and, with the ANC leadership, was unsuccessfully prosecuted in the Treason Trial from 1956 to 1961. Influenced by Marxism, he secretly joined the South African Communist Party (SACP). Although initially committed to non-violent protest, in association with the SACP he co-founded the militant Umkhonto we Sizwe (MK) in 1961, leading a sabotage campaign against the apartheid government. In 1962, he was arrested, convicted of conspiracy to overthrow the state, and sentenced to life imprisonment in the Rivonia Trial.



FIGURE 16.9

Nelson Mandela c. 1937

Mandela served 27 years in prison, initially on Robben Island, and later in Pollsmoor Prison and Victor Verster Prison. An international campaign lobbied for his release, which was granted in 1990 amid escalating civil strife. Mandela joined negotiations with National Party President F. W. de Klerk to abolish apartheid and establish multiracial elections in 1994, in which he led the ANC to victory and became South Africa's first black president. He published his autobiography in 1995. He led South Africa's Government of National Unity and promulgated a new

constitution. He also created the Truth and Reconciliation Commission to investigate past human rights abuses. While continuing with the former government's economic liberalism, his administration also introduced measures to encourage land reform, combat poverty, and expand healthcare services. Internationally, he acted as mediator between Libya and the United Kingdom in the Pan Am Flight 103 bombing trial, and oversaw military intervention in Lesotho. He declined to run for a second term, and was succeeded by his deputy, Thabo Mbeki. Mandela became an elder statesman, focusing on charitable work in combating poverty and HIV/AIDS through the Nelson Mandela Foundation.

Mandela was a controversial figure for much of his life. Denounced as a communist terrorist by critics, he nevertheless gained international acclaim for his activism, having received more than 250 honours, including the 1993 Nobel Peace Prize, the US Presidential Medal of Freedom, and the Soviet Order of Lenin. He is held in deep respect within South Africa, where he is often referred to by his Xhosa clan name, **Madiba**, or as **Tata** ("Father"); he is often described as the "Father of the Nation".

The Indian Independence Movement

The numbers of British in India were small, yet they were able to rule two-thirds of the subcontinent directly and exercise considerable leverage over the princely states that accounted for the remaining one-third of the area.

The one of the most effective events of the 19th century was the rise of Indian nationalism. It was because of this rising nationalism that Indians first sought "self-rule" and later "complete independence". However, historians are divided over the causes of its rise. The probable reasons include "clash of interests of the Indian people with British interests", "racial discriminations", "the revelation of India's past", "inter-linking of the new social groups in different regions" and Indians coming in close contact with "European education".



FIGURE 16.10

Flag of the British Raj in India.

The first step toward Indian self-rule was the appointment of councillors to advise the British viceroy in 1861 and the first Indian was appointed in 1909. Provincial Councils with Indian members were also set up. The councillors' participation was subsequently widened into legislative councils. The British built a large British Indian Army, with the senior officers all British, and many of the troops from small minority groups such as Gurkhas from Nepal and Sikhs. The civil service was increasingly filled with natives at the lower levels, with the British holding the more senior positions.

Bal Gangadhar Tilak, an Indian nationalist leader, declared Swaraj as the destiny of the nation. His popular sentence "Swaraj is my birthright, and I shall have it" became the source of inspiration for Indians. Tilak was backed by rising public leaders like Bipin Chandra Pal and Lala Lajpat Rai, who held the same point of view. Under them, India's three big provinces – Maharashtra, Bengal and Punjab shaped the demand of the people and India's nationalism. In 1907, the Congress was split into two factions: The radicals, led by Tilak, advocated civil agitation and direct revolution to overthrow the British Empire and the abandonment of all things British. The moderates, led by leaders

like Dadabhai Naoroji and Gopal Krishna Gokhale, on the other hand wanted reform within the framework of British rule.

**FIGURE 16.11**

Former residence of the Commander in Chief of the British Indian Army and later the residence of the first Prime Minister of India, Nehru.

The British themselves adopted a "carrot and stick" approach in recognition of India's support during the First World War and in response to renewed nationalist demands. The means of achieving the proposed measure were later enshrined in the Government of India Act 1919, which introduced the principle of a dual mode of administration, or diarchy, in which both elected Indian legislators and appointed British officials shared power.

From 1920 leaders such as **Mahatma Gandhi** began highly popular mass movements to campaign against the British Raj using largely peaceful methods. The Gandhi-led independence movement opposed the British rule using non-violent methods like non-cooperation, civil disobedience and economic resistance. However, revolutionary activities against the British rule took place also throughout the Indian sub-continent and some others adopted a militant approach like the Indian National Army that sought to overthrow British rule by armed struggle and. Government of India Act 1935 was a major success in this regard. All these movements succeeded in bringing independence to the new dominions of India and Pakistan in 15 August 1947.

Mahatma Gandhi

Mohandas Karamchand Gandhi (October 1869 – 30 January 1948) was the preeminent leader of the Indian independence movement in British-ruled India. Employing nonviolent civil disobedience, Gandhi led India to independence and inspired movements for civil rights and freedom across the world. The honorific **Mahatma** (Sanskrit: "high-souled", "venerable")—applied to him first in 1914 in South Africa,—is now used worldwide. He is also called **Bapu** (Gujarati: endearment for "father", "papa") in India.

Born and raised in a Hindu merchant caste family in coastal Gujarat, western India, and trained in law at the Inner Temple, London, Gandhi first employed nonviolent civil disobedience as an expatriate lawyer in South Africa, in the resident Indian community's struggle for civil rights. After his return to India in 1915, he set about organising peasants, farmers, and urban labourers to protest against excessive land-tax and discrimination. Assuming leadership of the Indian National Congress in 1921, Gandhi led nationwide campaigns for easing poverty, expanding women's rights, building religious and ethnic amity, ending untouchability, but above all for achieving *Swraj* or self-rule.

Gandhi famously led Indians in challenging the British-imposed salt tax with the 400 km (250 mi) Dandi Salt March in 1930, and later in calling for the British to *Quit India* in 1942. He was imprisoned for many years, upon many occasions, in both South Africa and India. Gandhi attempted to practise nonviolence and truth in all situations, and advocated that others do the same. He lived modestly in a self-sufficient residential community and wore the

traditional Indian *dhoti* and shawl, woven with yarn hand-spun on a *charkha*. He ate simple vegetarian food, and also undertook long fasts as a means of both self-purification and social protest.

Gandhi's vision of an independent India based on religious pluralism, however, was challenged in the early 1940s by a new Muslim nationalism which was demanding a separate Muslim homeland carved out of India. Eventually, in August 1947, Britain granted independence, but the British Indian Empire was partitioned into two dominions, a Hindu-majority India and Muslim Pakistan. As many displaced Hindus, Muslims, and Sikhs made their way to their new lands, religious violence broke out, especially in the Punjab and Bengal. Eschewing the official celebration of independence in Delhi, Gandhi visited the affected areas, attempting to provide solace. In the months following, he undertook several fasts unto death to promote religious harmony. The last of these, undertaken on 12 January 1948 at age 78, also had the indirect goal of pressuring India to pay out some cash assets owed to Pakistan. Some Indians thought Gandhi was too accommodating. Nathuram Godse, a Hindu nationalist, assassinated Gandhi on 30 January 1948 by firing three bullets into his chest at point-blank range.



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(ISN) Interactive Student Notebook Assignments

(ISN) Discussion and Study Questions

(ISN) Tech Activities

Vocabulary

TABLE 16.2:

apartheid	A South African policy of complete legal separation of the races, including a banning of all social contacts between blacks and whites.
Civil disobedience	A deliberate and public refusal to obey a law considered unjust.
decolonization	The process of a country once controlled as a colony by an outside force gaining its independence. This process was most notable in Asia and Africa in the decades following WWII.
Gandhi, Indira	The first woman elected Prime Minister of India in 1966. She was assassinated by two of her Sikh bodyguards in 1984.
Gandhi, Mohandas	A South African lawyer who led the Indian independence movement against British colonial rule. His tactics of non-violent, civil disobedience would bring independence to India in 1935. He was assassinated in 1948 by a Hindu nationalist.
Mandela, Nelson	Leader of the anti-apartheid African National Congress and later, elected South Africa's first black President in 1994. He had earlier been imprisoned from 1962 until 1989 for speaking out against apartheid.

TABLE 16.2: (continued)

Nkrumah, Kwame	Leader of the independence movement in the Gold Coast, Africa, against British colonial rule.
Non-violent passive resistance	The practice of achieving goals through symbolic protests, civil disobedience, economic or political non-cooperation, and other methods, without using violence.

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CHAPTER

17

Chapter Sixteen: Challenges in Our World Today

Chapter Outline

- 17.1 MODERN GLOBAL CULTURE
 - 17.2 ARAB-ISRAELI CONFLICT AND ISLAMIC FUNDAMENTALISM
 - 17.3 MASS GENOCIDE, ETHNIC CLEANSING AND HUMAN RIGHTS VIOLATIONS
 - 17.4 REFERENCES
-

17.1 Modern Global Culture

16.1 Modern Global Culture

Student Learning Objectives

At the end of this section the student will be able to :

- summarize the economic and social impact of the 20th century globalization
- explain the role of telecommunication technology, computer technology, transportation technology, and medical advancements in developing the modern global economy and society.
- describe the major influences of women such as... Mother Teresa, Margaret Thatcher and Golda Meir during major eras of world history.

Globalization

Globalization (or globalisation) is the process of international integration arising from the interchange of world views, products, ideas and other aspects of culture. Advances in transportation and telecommunications infrastructure, including the rise of the telegraph and the Internet, are major factors in globalization, generating further interdependence of economic and cultural activities.

Though scholars place the origins of globalization in modern times, others trace its history long before the European Age of Discovery and voyages to the New World. Some even trace the origins to the third millennium BCE. Large-scale globalization began in the 19th century. In the late 19th century and early 20th century, the connectedness of the world's economies and cultures grew very quickly.

The concept of globalization 'emerged from the intersection of four interrelated sets of "communities of practice": academics, journalists, publishers/editors, and librarians. In 2000, the International Monetary Fund (IMF) identified four basic aspects of globalization: trade and transactions, capital and investment movements, migration and movement of people, and the dissemination of knowledge. Further, environmental challenges such as global warming, cross-boundary water and air pollution, and over-fishing of the ocean are linked with globalization. Globalizing processes affect and are affected by business and work organization, economics, socio-cultural resources, and the natural environment.

International Business

International trade is the exchange of capital, goods, and services across international borders or territories. In most countries, such trade represents a significant share of gross domestic product (GDP). Industrialization, advanced transportation, multinational corporations, offshoring and outsourcing all have a major impact on world trade. The growth of international trade is a fundamental component of globalization.

An absolute trade advantage exists when countries can produce a commodity with less costs per unit produced than could its trading partner. By the same reasoning, it should import commodities in which it has an absolute disadvantage. While there are possible gains from trade with absolute advantage, comparative advantage – that is, the ability to offer goods and services at a lower marginal and opportunity cost – extends the range of possible mutually beneficial exchanges. In a globalized business environment, companies argue that the comparative advantages offered by international trade have become essential to remaining competitive.

Outsourcing

**FIGURE 17.1**

Singapore has embraced globalization in the last few decades.

One result of globalization and international business is something known as outsourcing. In business, outsourcing involves the contracting out of a business process to another party (compare business process outsourcing). The concept "outsourcing" came from American Glossary 'outside resourcing' and it dates back to at least 1981. Outsourcing sometimes involves transferring employees and assets from one firm to another, but not always. Outsourcing is also the practice of handing over control of public services to for-profit corporations.

Outsourcing can also be viewed as any assistance from an intermediary that is more capable of or familiar with certain practices than us. It is just a way of seeking for help.

Outsourcing includes both foreign and domestic contracting, and sometimes includes offshoring (relocating a business function to another country). Financial savings from lower international labor rates can provide a major motivation for outsourcing or offshoring.

The opposite of outsourcing, insourcing, entails bringing processes handled by third-party firms in-house, and is sometimes accomplished via vertical integration. However, a business can provide a contract service to another business without necessarily insourcing that business process.

Outsourcing is a very important tool for reducing cost and improving quality. If an organization does one or all its work by itself, its work may affect its production quality. So, an organization must recognize some important areas where it can reduce its costs and maintain high quality in its products and/or services.

Human Rights

Another issue which has risen to the forefront of social consciousness in the few centuries is the idea of human rights. Human rights are moral principles or norms that describe certain standards of human behavior, and are regularly protected as legal rights in municipal and international law. They are commonly understood as inalienable fundamental rights "to which a person is inherently entitled simply because she or he is a human being," and which are "inherent in all human beings" regardless of their nation, location, language, religion, ethnic origin or any other status. They are applicable everywhere and at every time in the sense of being universal, and they are egalitarian in the sense of being the same for everyone. They require empathy and the rule of law and impose an obligation on persons to respect the human rights of others. They should not be taken away except as a result of due process based on specific circumstances; for example, human rights may include freedom from unlawful imprisonment, torture, and execution.

The doctrine of human rights has been highly influential within international law, global and regional institutions.



FIGURE 17.2

The English Bill of Rights.

Actions by states and non-governmental organizations form a basis of public policy worldwide. The idea of human rights suggests that "if the public discourse of peacetime global society can be said to have a common moral language, it is that of human rights." The strong claims made by the doctrine of human rights continue to provoke considerable skepticism and debates about the content, nature and justifications of human rights to this day. The

precise meaning of the term right is controversial and is the subject of continued philosophical debate; while there is consensus that human rights encompasses a wide variety of rights such as the right to a fair trial, protection against enslavement, prohibition of genocide, free speech, or a right to education, there is disagreement about which of these particular rights should be included within the general framework of human rights; some thinkers suggest that human rights should be a minimum requirement to avoid the worst-case abuses, while others see it as a higher standard.

Many of the basic ideas that animated the human rights movement developed in the aftermath of the Second World War and the atrocities of The Holocaust,[6] culminating in the adoption of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights in Paris by the United Nations General Assembly in 1948. Ancient peoples did not have the same modern-day conception of universal human rights. The true forerunner of human rights discourse was the concept of natural rights which appeared as part of the medieval natural law tradition that became prominent during the Enlightenment with such philosophers as John Locke, Francis Hutcheson, and Jean-Jacques Burlamaqui, and which featured prominently in the political discourse of the American Revolution and the French Revolution. From this foundation, the modern human rights arguments emerged over the latter half of the twentieth century, possibly as a reaction to slavery, torture, genocide, and war crimes, as a realization of inherent human vulnerability and as being a precondition for the possibility of a just society.

“Whereas recognition of the inherent dignity and of the equal and inalienable rights of all members of the human family is the foundation of freedom, justice and peace in the world...”

—1st sentence of the Preamble to the Universal Declaration of Human Rights

"All human beings are born free and equal in dignity and rights."

—Article 1 of the United Nations Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR)

Human Rights in the 20th Century

The World Wars, and the huge losses of life and gross abuses of human rights that took place during them, were a driving force behind the development of modern human rights instruments. The League of Nations was established in 1919 at the negotiations over the Treaty of Versailles following the end of World War I. The League’s goals included disarmament, preventing war through collective security, settling disputes between countries through negotiation and diplomacy, and improving global welfare. Enshrined in its charter was a mandate to promote many of the rights later included in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights.

At the 1945 Yalta Conference, the Allied Powers agreed to create a new body to supplant the League’s role; this was to be the United Nations. The United Nations has played an important role in international human-rights law since its creation. Following the World Wars, the United Nations and its members developed much of the discourse and the bodies of law that now make up international humanitarian law and international human rights law. Analyst Belinda Cooper argued that human rights organizations flourished in the 1990s, possibly as a result of the dissolution of the western and eastern Cold War blocs. Stefan-Ludwig Hoffmann argues that human rights became more widely emphasized in the latter half of the twentieth century because it "provided a language for political claim making and counter-claims, liberal-democratic, but also socialist and postcolonialist."

International Protection and Promotion of Human Rights

The Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR) was adopted by the United Nations General Assembly in 1948, partly in response to the atrocities of World War II. It is generally viewed as the preeminent statement of international rights and has been identified as being a culmination of centuries of thinking along both secular and religious lines. Although the UDHR is a non-binding resolution, it is now considered by some to have acquired the force of international customary law which may be invoked in appropriate circumstances by national and other tribunals.[citation needed] The UDHR urges member nations to promote a number of human, civil, economic and social rights, asserting these rights as part of the "foundation of freedom, justice and peace in the world." The declaration was the first international legal effort to limit the behaviour of states and press upon them duties to their citizens.

...recognition of the inherent dignity and of the equal and inalienable rights of all members of the human family is the foundation of freedom, justice and peace in the world.



FIGURE 17.3

 UN Peacekeepers in the city of Goma.

—Preamble to the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, 1948

The UDHR was framed by members of the Human Rights Commission, with former First Lady Eleanor Roosevelt as Chair, who began to discuss an International Bill of Rights in 1947. The members of the Commission did not immediately agree on the form of such a bill of rights, and whether, or how, it should be enforced. The Commission proceeded to frame the UDHR and accompanying treaties, but the UDHR quickly became the priority. Canadian law professor John Humphrey and French lawyer René Cassin were responsible for much of the cross-national research and the structure of the document respectively, where the articles of the declaration were interpretative of the general principle of the preamble. The document was structured by Cassin to include the basic principles of dignity, liberty, equality and brotherhood in the first two articles, followed successively by rights pertaining to individuals; rights of individuals in relation to each other and to groups; spiritual, public and political rights; and economic, social and cultural rights. According to Cassin, the final three articles place rights in the context of limits, duties and the social and political order in which they are to be realized.

Women's Rights

Women's rights are the rights and entitlements claimed for women and girls of many societies worldwide. In some places, these rights are institutionalized or supported by law, local custom, and behavior, whereas in others they may be ignored or suppressed. They differ from broader notions of human rights through claims of an inherent historical and traditional bias against the exercise of rights by women and girls, in favour of men and boys.

Issues commonly associated with notions of women's rights include, though are not limited to, the right: to bodily integrity and autonomy; to vote; to hold public office; to work; to birth control; to have an abortion; to be free from rape; to fair wages or equal pay; to own property; to education; to serve in the military or be conscripted; to enter into legal contracts; and to have marital or parental rights.

Right to Vote

During the 19th century some women began to ask for, demand, and then agitate and demonstrate for the right to vote - the right to participate in their government and its law making. Other women opposed suffrage, like Helen Kendrick Johnson, whose prescient 1897 work, *Woman and the Republic*, contains perhaps the best arguments against women's suffrage of the time. The ideals of women's suffrage developed alongside that of universal suffrage and today women's suffrage is considered a right (under the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women). During the 19th century the right to vote was gradually extended in many countries, and women started to campaign for their right to vote. In 1893 New Zealand became the first country to give women the right to vote on a national level. Australia gave women the right to vote in 1902.

A number of Nordic countries gave women the right to vote in the early 20th century – Finland (1906), Norway (1913), Denmark and Iceland (1915). With the end of the First World War many other countries followed – the



FIGURE 17.4

1919 election poster, German social democrats. "Frauen! Gleiche Rechte, Gleiche Pflichten" ("Women! The same rights, the same duties")

Netherlands (1917), Austria, Azerbaijan, Canada, Czechoslovakia, Georgia, Poland and Sweden (1918), Germany and Luxembourg (1919), and the United States (1920). Spain gave women the right to vote in 1931, France in 1944, Belgium, Italy, Romania and Yugoslavia in 1946. Switzerland gave women the right to vote in 1971, and Liechtenstein in 1984.

In Latin America some countries gave women the right to vote in the first half of the 20th century – Ecuador (1929), Brazil (1932), El Salvador (1939), Dominican Republic (1942), Guatemala (1956) and Argentina (1946). In India, under colonial rule, universal suffrage was granted in 1935. Other Asian countries gave women the right to vote in the mid 20th century – Japan (1945), China (1947) and Indonesia (1955). In Africa, women generally got the right to vote along with men through universal suffrage – Liberia (1947), Uganda (1958) and Nigeria (1960). In many countries in the Middle East universal suffrage was acquired after the Second World War, although in others, such as Kuwait, suffrage is very limited. On 16 May 2005, the Parliament of Kuwait extended suffrage to women by a 35–23 vote.

Modern Rights Movement

In the subsequent decades women's rights again became an important issue in the English speaking world. By the 1960s the movement was called "feminism" or "women's liberation." Reformers wanted the same pay as men, equal rights in law, and the freedom to plan their families or not have children at all. Their efforts were met with mixed results.

The International Council of Women (ICW) was the first women's organization to work across national boundaries for the common cause of advocating human rights for women. In March and April 1888, women leaders came together in Washington D.C. with 80 speakers and 49 delegates representing 53 women's organizations from 9 countries: Canada, the United States, Ireland, India, England, Finland, Denmark, France and Norway. Women from professional organizations, trade unions, arts groups and benevolent societies participate. National Councils are affiliated to the ICW and thus make themselves heard at international level. The ICW worked with the League of Nations during the 1920s and the United Nations post-World War II. Today the ICW holds Consultative Status with the United Nations Economic and Social Council, the highest accreditation an NGO can achieve at the United Nations. Currently, it is composed of 70 countries and has a headquarters in Lasusanne, Switzerland. International meetings are held every three years.



FIGURE 17.5

Women standing in line to vote in Bangladesh.

In the UK, a public groundswell of opinion in favour of legal equality had gained pace, partly through the extensive employment of women in what were traditional male roles during both world wars. By the 1960s the legislative process was being readied, tracing through MP Willie Hamilton's select committee report, his equal pay for equal work bill, the creation of a Sex Discrimination Board, Lady Sear's draft sex anti-discrimination bill, a government Green Paper of 1973, until 1975 when the first British Sex Discrimination Act, an Equal Pay Act, and an Equal Opportunities Commission came into force. With encouragement from the UK government, the other countries of the EEC soon followed suit with an agreement to ensure that discrimination laws would be phased out across the European Community.

In the USA, the National Organization for Women (NOW) was created in 1966 with the purpose of bringing about equality for all women. NOW was one important group that fought for the Equal Rights Amendment (ERA). This amendment stated that "equality of rights under the law shall not be denied or abridged by the United States or any state on account of sex." But there was disagreement on how the proposed amendment would be understood. Supporters believed it would guarantee women equal treatment. But critics feared it might deny women the right be financially supported by their husbands. The amendment died in 1982 because not enough states had ratified it. ERAs have been included in subsequent Congresses, but have still failed to be ratified.

Important Women Political/Religious Figures

Golda Meir (May 3, 1898 – December 8, 1978) was an Israeli teacher, kibbutznik, politician and the fourth Prime

Minister of Israel.

Meir was elected Prime Minister of Israel on March 17, 1969, after serving as Minister of Labour and Foreign Minister. Israel's first woman and the world's fourth woman to hold such an office, she was thought of as the "Iron Lady" of Israeli politics years before the epithet was coined for British Prime Minister Margaret Thatcher. Former Prime Minister David Ben-Gurion used to call Meir "the best man in the government"; she was often portrayed as the "strong-willed, straight-talking, grey-bunned grandmother of the Jewish people".

Meir resigned as prime minister in 1974, the year following the Yom Kippur War. She died in 1978 of lymphoma.



FIGURE 17.6

Meir (center) with Pat and Richard Nixon in 1973.

Mother Theresa

Blessed Teresa of Calcutta, MC, commonly known as Mother Teresa (26 August 1910 – 5 September 1997), was a Roman Catholic religious sister and missionary who lived most of her life in India. She was born in what is today Macedonia, with her family being of Albanian descent originating in Kosovo.

Mother Teresa founded the Missionaries of Charity, a Roman Catholic religious congregation, which in 2012 consisted of over 4,500 sisters and is active in 133 countries. They run hospices and homes for people with HIV/AIDS, leprosy and tuberculosis; soup kitchens; dispensaries and mobile clinics; children's and family counselling programmes; orphanages; and schools. Members must adhere to the vows of chastity, poverty and obedience as well as a fourth vow, to give "wholehearted free service to the poorest of the poor".

Mother Teresa was the recipient of numerous honours including the 1979 Nobel Peace Prize. In 2003, she was

**FIGURE 17.7**

More details President Ronald Reagan presents Mother Teresa with the Presidential Medal of Freedom at a White House ceremony, 1985

beatified as "Blessed Teresa of Calcutta". A second miracle credited to her intercession is required before she can be recognised as a saint by the Catholic Church.

A controversial figure both during her life and after her death, Mother Teresa was widely admired by many for her charitable works, but also widely criticised, particularly for her efforts opposing contraception and for substandard conditions in the hospices for which she was responsible.

Margaret Thatcher

Margaret Hilda Thatcher, Baroness Thatcher, LG, OM, PC, FRS (née Roberts, 13 October 1925 – 8 April 2013) was the Prime Minister of the United Kingdom from 1979 to 1990 and the Leader of the Conservative Party from 1975 to 1990. She was the longest-serving British Prime Minister of the 20th century and is the only woman to have held the office. A Soviet journalist called her the "Iron Lady", a nickname that became associated with her uncompromising politics and leadership style. As Prime Minister, she implemented policies that have come to be known as Thatcherism.

**FIGURE 17.8**

U.S. President Ronald Reagan and Margaret Thatcher meet at the White House in 1988.

Originally a research chemist before becoming a barrister, Thatcher was elected Member of Parliament (MP) for Finchley in 1959. Edward Heath appointed her Secretary of State for Education and Science in his 1970 government. In 1975, Thatcher defeated Heath in the Conservative Party leadership election to become Leader of the Opposition and became the first woman to lead a major political party in the United Kingdom. She became Prime Minister after winning the 1979 general election.

On moving into 10 Downing Street, Thatcher introduced a series of political and economic initiatives intended to reverse high unemployment and Britain's struggles in the wake of the Winter of Discontent and an ongoing recession. Her political philosophy and economic policies emphasised deregulation (particularly of the financial sector), flexible labour markets, the privatisation of state-owned companies, and reducing the power and influence of trade unions. Thatcher's popularity during her first years in office waned amid recession and high unemployment until the 1982 Falklands War brought a resurgence of support, resulting in her re-election in 1983.

Thatcher was re-elected for a third term in 1987. During this period her support for a Community Charge (referred to as the "poll tax") was widely unpopular and others, in her cabinet, did not share her views on the European Community. She resigned as Prime Minister and party leader in November 1990, after Michael Heseltine launched a challenge to her leadership. After retiring from the Commons in 1992, she was given a life peerage as Baroness Thatcher, of Kesteven in the county of Lincolnshire, which entitled her to sit in the House of Lords. After a series of small strokes in 2002, she was advised to withdraw from public speaking, and in 2013 she died of another stroke in London at the age of 87.

(ISN) Discussion and Study Questions

1. Guiding Questions

(ISN) Tech Activities

Technology assignment that makes them do something with a computer

Vocabulary

17.2 Arab-Israeli Conflict and Islamic Fundamentalism

16.2 Arab-Israeli Conflict and Islamic Fundamentalism

Student Learning Objectives

At the end of this section the student will be able to

- explain how the Arab rejection of the State of Israel has led to ongoing conflict.
- summarize the development and impact of radical Islamic fundamentalism on events in the second half of the 20th century, including Palestinian terrorism and the growth of al-Qaeda.
- explain the U.S. response to terrorism from September 11, 2001 to the present.
- identify examples of religious influence on various events referenced in the major eras of world history.

The Arab–Israeli conflict refers to the political tension and military conflicts between certain Arab countries and Israel. The roots of the modern Arab–Israeli conflict are bound in the rise of Zionism and Arab nationalism towards the end of the 19th century. Territory regarded by the Jewish people as their historical homeland is also regarded by the Pan-Arab movement as historically and currently belonging to the Palestinians, and in the Pan-Islamic context, as Muslim lands. The sectarian conflict between Palestinian Jews and Arabs emerged in the early 20th century, peaking into a full-scale civil war in 1947 and transforming into the First Arab-Israeli War in May 1948 following the Declaration of the Establishment of the State of Israel.

The nature of the conflict has shifted over the years from the large-scale regional Arab–Israeli conflict to a more local Israeli–Palestinian conflict, as large-scale hostilities mostly ended with the cease-fire agreements that followed the 1973 Yom Kippur War. Attempts have been made to resolve the conflict, but without success. Peace agreements were signed between Israel and Egypt in 1979, and Israel and Jordan in 1994. The interim Oslo Accords led to the creation of the Palestinian National Authority in 1994, though a final peace agreement has yet to be reached. An Israeli–Palestinian peace process is ongoing. A cease-fire currently stands between Israel and Syria, as well as more recently with Lebanon (since 2006). The conflict between Israel and Hamas-ruled Gaza, which resulted in the 2009 cease-fire (although fighting has continued since then) is usually also included as part of the Israeli–Palestinian conflict and hence the Arab–Israeli conflict. Despite the peace agreements with Egypt and Jordan and the generally existing cease-fire, the Arab world and Israel generally remain at odds with each other over many issues.

Background to Conflict

The Arab-Israeli conflict has several aspects which have led to the conflict, including religious aspects, nationalism and finally the sectarian violence which broke out between both sides during the era of the British mandate following World War I. Some groups opposed to the peace process invoke religious arguments for their uncompromising positions. The contemporary history of the Arab–Israeli conflict is very much affected by the religious beliefs of the various sides and their views of the idea of the chosen people in their policies with regard to the "Promised Land" and the "Chosen City" of Jerusalem.

The Land of Canaan or Eretz Yisrael (Land of Israel) was, according to the Hebrew Bible, promised by God to the Children of Israel. This is also mentioned in the Qur'an. In his 1896 manifesto, *The Jewish State*, Theodor Herzl repeatedly refers to the Biblical Promised Land concept. Likud is currently the most prominent Israeli political party to include the Biblical claim to the Land of Israel in its platform.

**FIGURE 17.9**

Theodor Herzl, visionary of the Jewish State.

Muslims also claim rights to that land in accordance with the Quran. Contrary to the Jewish claim that this land was promised only to the descendants of Abraham's younger son Isaac, they argue that the Land of Canaan was promised to what they consider the elder son, Ishmael, from whom Arabs claim descent. Additionally, Muslims also revere many sites holy for Biblical Israelites, such as the Cave of the Patriarchs and the Temple Mount. In the past 1,400 years, Muslims have constructed Islamic landmarks on these ancient Israelite sites, such as the Dome of the Rock and the Al-Aqsa Mosque on the Temple Mount, the holiest site in Judaism. This has brought the two groups into conflict over the rightful possession of Jerusalem. Muslim teaching is that Muhammad passed through Jerusalem on his first journey to heaven. Hamas, which governs the Gaza Strip, claims that all of the land of Palestine (the current Israeli and Palestinian territories) is an Islamic waqf that must be governed by Muslims.

Christian Zionists often support the State of Israel because of the ancestral right of the Jews to the Holy Land, as suggested, for instance, by Paul in Romans 11. Christian Zionism teaches that the return of Jews in Israel is a prerequisite for the Second Coming of Christ.

Nationalist Movements

The roots of the modern Arab–Israeli conflict lie in the rise of Zionism and the reactionary Arab nationalism that arose in response to Zionism towards the end of the 19th century. Territory regarded by the Jewish people as their historical homeland is also regarded by the Pan-Arab movement as historically and presently belonging to the Palestinian Arabs. Before World War I, the Middle East, including Palestine (later Mandatory Palestine), had

been under the control of the Ottoman Empire for nearly 400 years. During the closing years of their empire, the Ottomans began to espouse their Turkish ethnic identity, asserting the primacy of Turks within the empire, leading to discrimination against the Arabs. The promise of liberation from the Ottomans led many Jews and Arabs to support the allied powers during World War I, leading to the emergence of widespread Arab nationalism. Both Arab nationalism and Zionism had their formulative beginning in Europe. The Zionist Congress was established in Basel in 1897, while the "Arab Club" was established in Paris in 1906.

In the late 19th century European and Middle Eastern Jewish communities began to increasingly immigrate to Palestine and purchase land from the local Ottoman landlords. The population of the late 19th century in Palestine reached 600,000 – mostly Muslim Arabs, but also significant minorities of Jews, Christians, Druze and some Samaritans and Bahai's. At that time, Jerusalem did not extend beyond the walled area and had a population of only a few tens of thousands. Collective farms, known as *kibbutzim*, were established, as was the first entirely Jewish city in modern times, Tel Aviv.

**FIGURE 17.10**

Arab insurgents during the 1936-9 Arab Revolt in Mandatory Palestine

During 1915–16, as World War I was underway, the British High Commissioner in Egypt, Sir Henry McMahon, secretly corresponded with Husayn ibn 'Ali, the patriarch of the Hashemite family and Ottoman governor of Mecca and Medina. McMahon convinced Husayn to lead an Arab revolt against the Ottoman Empire, which was aligned with Germany against Britain and France in the war. McMahon promised that if the Arabs supported Britain in the war, the British government would support the establishment of an independent Arab state under Hashemite rule in the Arab provinces of the Ottoman Empire, including Palestine. The Arab revolt, led by T. E. Lawrence ("Lawrence of Arabia") and Husayn's son Faysal, was successful in defeating the Ottomans, and Britain took control over much of this area.

The Palestinian Authority

The Palestinian Authority was formed in 1994, pursuant to the Oslo Accords between the Palestine Liberation Organization (PLO) and the government of Israel, as a five-year interim body. Further negotiations were then meant to take place between the two parties regarding its final status. According to the Oslo Accords, the Palestinian Authority was designated to have exclusive control over both security-related and civilian issues in Palestinian urban areas (referred to as "Area A") and only civilian control over Palestinian rural areas ("Area B"). The remainder of the territories, including Israeli settlements, the Jordan Valley region and bypass roads between Palestinian communities, were to remain under Israeli control ("Area C"). East Jerusalem was excluded from the Accords. Negotiations with several Israeli governments had resulted in the Authority gaining further control of some areas, but control was then lost in some areas when the Israel Defense Forces (IDF) retook several strategic positions during the Second ("Al-Aqsa") Intifada. In 2005, after the Second Intifada, Israel withdrew unilaterally from its settlements in the Gaza

Strip, thereby expanding Palestinian Authority control to the entire strip.



FIGURE 17.11

Areas in "red" are ruled by the Palestinian Authority.

Establishment of the Palestinian Authority

The Oslo Accords were signed on 13 September 1993 between the Palestine Liberation Organization (PLO) and Israel. The Gaza–Jericho Agreement was signed on 4 May 1994 and detailed the creation of the Palestinian Authority. This was an interim organization created to administer a limited form of Palestinian self-governance in the Areas A and B in the West Bank and Gaza Strip for a period of five years, during which final-status negotiations would take place. The Palestine Central Council, itself acting on behalf of the Palestine National Council of the PLO, implemented this agreement in a meeting convened in Tunis from 10–11 October 1993, making the Palestinian Authority accountable to the PLO Executive Committee.

The administrative responsibilities accorded to the PA were limited to civil matters and internal security and did not include external security or foreign affairs. Palestinians in the diaspora and inside Israel were not eligible to vote in elections for the offices of the Palestinian Authority. The PA was legally separate from the Palestine Liberation Organization (PLO), which continues to enjoy international recognition as the sole legitimate representative of the Palestinian people, representing them at the United Nations under the name "Palestine".

General elections were held for its first legislative body, the Palestinian Legislative Council, on 20 January 1996. The expiration of the body's term was 4 May 1999, but elections were not held because of the "prevailing coercive situation".

**FIGURE 17.12**

Yitzhak Rabin, Bill Clinton and Yasser Arafat at the Oslo Accords signing ceremony on 13 September 1993.

War on Terror

The War on Terror (WoT), also known as the Global War on Terrorism (GWOT), refers to the international military campaign that started after the September 11 attacks on the United States. The United States led a coalition of other countries in a long but unsuccessful campaign to destroy al-Qaeda and other militant Islamist organizations.

U.S. President George W. Bush first used the term "War on Terror" on 20 September 2001. The Bush administration and the western media have since used the term to argue a global military, political, legal, and conceptual struggle against both organizations designated terrorist and regimes accused of supporting them. It was originally used with a particular focus on Muslim countries associated with Islamic terrorism organizations including al-Qaeda and like-minded organizations.

In 2013, President Barack Obama announced that the United States was no longer pursuing a War on Terror, as the military focus should be on specific enemies rather than a tactic. He stated, "We must define our effort not as a boundless 'Global War on Terror', but rather as a series of persistent, targeted efforts to dismantle specific networks of violent extremists that threaten America."

Precursor to the September 11 Attacks

The origins of al-Qaeda can be traced to the Soviet war in Afghanistan (December 1979 – February 1989). The United States, United Kingdom, Saudi Arabia, Pakistan, and the People's Republic of China supported the Islamist Afghan mujahadeen guerillas against the military forces of the Soviet Union and the Democratic Republic of Afghanistan. A small number of "Afghan Arab" volunteers joined the fight against the Soviets, including Osama bin Laden, but there is no evidence they received any external assistance. In May 1996 the group World Islamic Front for Jihad Against Jews and Crusaders (WIFJAJC), sponsored by bin Laden (and later re-formed as al-Qaeda), started forming a large base of operations in Afghanistan, where the Islamist extremist regime of the Taliban had seized power earlier in the year. In February 1998, Osama bin Laden signed a fatwā, as head of al-Qaeda, declaring war on the West and Israel, later in May of that same year al-Qaeda released a video declaring war on the U.S. and the West.

On August 7, 1998, al-Qaeda struck the U.S. embassies in Kenya and Tanzania, killing 224 people, including 12 Americans. In retaliation, U.S. President Bill Clinton launched Operation Infinite Reach, a bombing campaign in Sudan and Afghanistan against targets the U.S. asserted were associated with WIFJAJC, although others have questioned whether a pharmaceutical plant in Sudan was used as a chemical warfare plant. The plant produced much of the region's antimalarial drugs and around 50% of Sudan's pharmaceutical needs. The strikes failed to kill

**FIGURE 17.13**

The north face of Two World Trade Center (south tower) immediately after being struck by United Airlines Flight 175

any leaders of WIFJAJC or the Taliban.

Next came the 2000 millennium attack plots, which included an attempted bombing of Los Angeles International Airport. On October 12, 2000, the USS Cole bombing occurred near the port of Yemen, and 17 U.S. Navy sailors were killed.

September 11 Attacks

On the morning of 11 September 2001, 19 Islamic men affiliated with al-Qaeda hijacked four airliners all bound for California. Once the hijackers assume control of the airliners, they told the passengers that they had the bomb on board and would spare the lives of passengers and crew once their demands were met – no passenger and crew actually suspected that they would use the airliners as suicide weapons since it had never happened before in history.[83][84] The hijackers – members of al-Qaeda’s Hamburg cell – intentionally crashed two airliners into the Twin Towers of the World Trade Center in New York City, New York, killing 147 civilians and the ten hijackers on board the airliners. Both buildings collapsed within two hours from fire damage related to the crashes, destroying nearby buildings and damaging others, and killing 2,192 civilians, 71 law enforcement officers, and 343 firefighters who were in the towers and on the ground. The hijackers crashed a third airliner into the Pentagon in Arlington County, Virginia, just outside Washington D.C., killing 70 civilians and 55 military personnel who were in the building, as well as 59 civilians and the five hijackers on board. 39 civilians, a law enforcement officer, and four hijackers died when the fourth plane crashed into a field near Shanksville, Pennsylvania, after some of its passengers and flight crew attempted to retake control of the plane, which the hijackers had redirected toward Washington D.C., to target the White House, or the U.S. Capitol. No flights had survivors.

A total of 2,977 victims and 19 hijackers perished in the attacks, making it the worst terrorist attack to ever take place on U.S. soil (and the worst act of international terrorism to take place on U.S. soil) and also the deadliest foreign

**FIGURE 17.14**

Aftermath of the 1998 U.S. embassy bombing in Kenya in 1998.

attack on U.S. soil since the Japanese carried out a surprise air raid on Pearl Harbor on December 7, 1941.

"Operation Enduring Freedom"

The U.S. government used the term "Operation Enduring Freedom - Afghanistan" to officially describe the War in Afghanistan, from the period between October 2001 and December 2014. Continued operations in Afghanistan by the United States' military forces, both non-combat and combat, now occur under the name Operation Freedom's Sentinel.

The operation was originally called "Operation Infinite Justice", but as similar phrases have been used by adherents of several religions as an exclusive description of God, it is believed to have been changed to avoid offense to Muslims, who are the majority religion in Afghanistan. In September 2001, U.S. President George W. Bush's remark that "this crusade, this war on terrorism, is going to take a while", which prompted widespread criticism from the Islamic world, may also have contributed to the renaming of the operation.

The term "OEF-A" typically refers to the phase of the War in Afghanistan from 2001 to 2014. Other operations, such as the Georgia Train and Equip Program, are only loosely or nominally connected, such as through government

**FIGURE 17.15**

The USS Cole (DDG 67) is towed away from the port city of Aden, Yemen, into open sea by the Military Sealift Command ocean-going tug USNS Catawba (T-ATF 168) on Oct. 29, 2000. Cole will be placed aboard the Norwegian heavy transport ship M/V Blue Marlin and transported back to the United States for repair. The Arleigh Burke-class destroyer was the target of a suspected terrorist attack in the port of Aden on Oct. 12, 2000, during a scheduled refueling. The attack killed 17 crew members and injured 39 others.

**FIGURE 17.16**

5-country multinational fleet, during "Operation Enduring Freedom" in the Oman Sea. In four descending columns, from left to right: MM Maestrale (F 570), De Grasse (D 612); USS John C. Stennis (CVN 74), Charles De Gaulle (R 91), Surcouf (F 711); USS Port Royal (CG-73), HMS Ocean (L 12), USS John F. Kennedy (CVN 67), HNLMS Van Amstel (F 831); and MM Durand de la Penne (D 560).

funding vehicles. All the operations, however, have a focus on counterterrorism activities.

Operation Enduring Freedom – Afghanistan, which was a joint U.S., U.K., and Afghan operation, was separate from the International Security Assistance Force (ISAF), which was an operation of North Atlantic Treaty Organization nations including the U.S. and the U.K. The two operations ran in parallel, and although it had been suggested that they merge.

The Start of Combat Operations

On Sunday 7 October 2001, American and British forces began an aerial bombing campaign targeting Taliban forces and al-Qaeda.

The Northern Alliance, aided by Joint Special Operations teams consisting of Green Berets from the 5th Special Forces Group, aircrew members from the 160th Special Operations Aviation Regiment (SOAR), and Air Force Combat Controllers, fought against the Taliban. Aided by U.S. bombing and massive defections, they captured Mazari Sharif on 9 November. They then rapidly gained control of most of northern Afghanistan, and took control of Kabul on 13 November after the Taliban unexpectedly fled the city. The Taliban were restricted to a smaller and smaller region, with Kunduz, the last Taliban-held city in the north, captured on 26 November. Most of the Taliban

fled to Pakistan.

The war continued in the south of the country, where the Taliban retreated to Kandahar. After Kandahar fell in December, remnants of the Taliban and al-Qaeda continued to mount resistance. Meanwhile, in November 2001 the U.S. military and its allied forces established their first ground base in Afghanistan to the south west of Kandahar, known as FOB Rhino.

The Battle of Tora Bora, involving U.S., British and Northern Alliance forces took place in December 2001 to further destroy the Taliban and suspected al-Qaeda in Afghanistan. In early March 2002 the United States military, along with allied Afghan military forces, conducted a large operation to destroy al-Qaeda in an operation code-named Operation Anaconda.

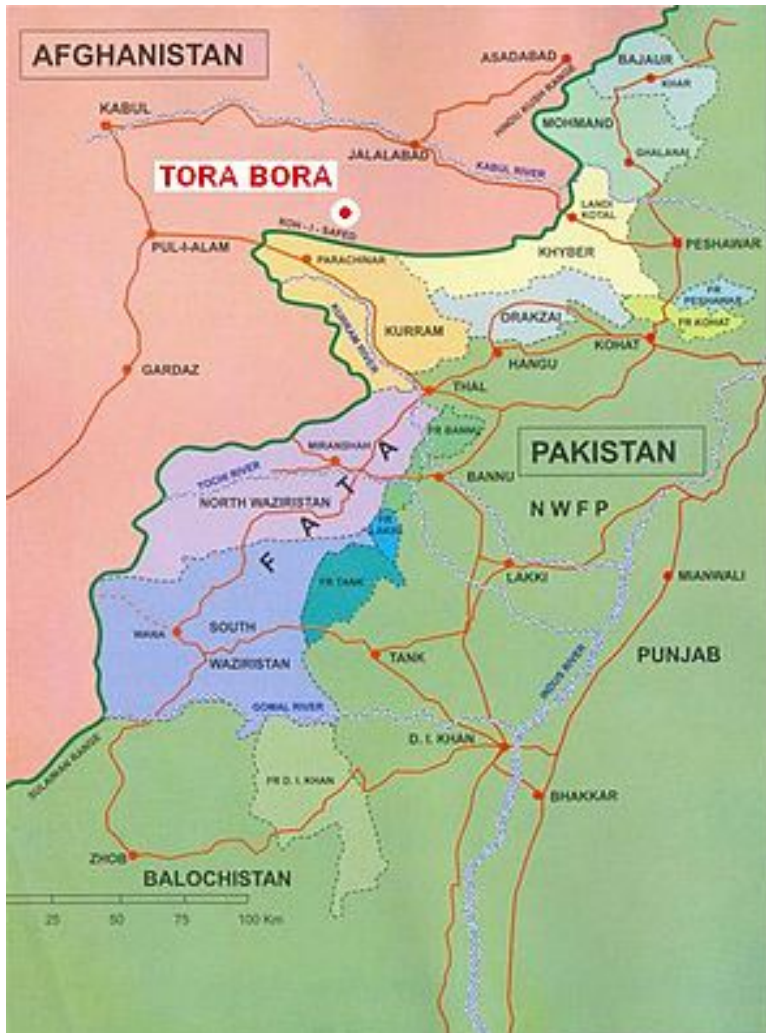


FIGURE 17.17

Tora Bora

The operation was carried out by elements of the United States Navy Carrier based air forces flying off of the USS John C. Stennis (CVN-74) and USS Theodore Roosevelt (CVN-71), the 10th Mountain Division, 101st Airborne Division, the U.S. special forces groups TF 11, TF Bowie, TF Dagger, TF K-Bar, British Royal Marines, the Norwegian Forsvarets Spesialkommando (FSK), Hærens Jegerkommando and Marinejegerkommando, Canada's 3rd Battalion Princess Patricia's Canadian Light Infantry, Canada's Joint Task Force 2, the German KSK, and elements of the Australian Special Air Service Regiment and of the New Zealand Special Air Service and the Afghan National Army

After managing to evade U.S. forces throughout the summer of 2002, the remnants of the Taliban gradually began

to regain their confidence. A U.S. and Canadian led operation (supported by British and Dutch forces), Operation Mountain Thrust was launched in May 2006 to counter renewed Taliban insurgency.

**FIGURE 17.18**

Navy SEALs STG2 Matthew Axelson (right) with Lt. Michael Murphy in Afghanistan

Since January 2006, the NATO International Security Assistance Force undertook combat duties from Operation Enduring Freedom in southern Afghanistan, the NATO force chiefly made up of British, Canadian and Dutch forces (and some smaller contributions from Denmark, Romania and Estonia and air support from Norway as well as air and artillery support from the U.S.) (see the article Coalition combat operations in Afghanistan in 2006). The United States military also conducts military operations separate from NATO as part of Operation Enduring Freedom in other parts of Afghanistan, in areas such as Kandahar, Bagram, and Kabul (including Camp Eggers and Camp Phoenix.)

Results

The U.S.-led coalition initially removed the Taliban from power and seriously crippled al-Qaeda and associated militants in Afghanistan. However, success in quelling the Taliban insurgency since the 2001 invasion has been mixed. Many believe[who?] the Taliban cannot be defeated as long as it has sanctuary in neighboring Pakistan and that Operation Enduring Freedom has transformed into a continuing full-fledged war with no end in sight.

On 9 October 2004, Afghanistan elected Hamid Karzai president in its first direct elections. The following year, Afghans conducted the Afghan parliamentary election, 2005 on 18 September. Since the invasion, hundreds of schools and mosques have been constructed, millions of dollars in aid have been distributed, and the occurrence of violence has been reduced.

While military forces interdict insurgents and assure security, Provincial reconstruction teams are tasked with infrastructure building, such as constructing roads and bridges, assisting during floods, and providing food and water to refugees. Many warlords have participated in an allegiance program, recognizing the legitimacy of the government of Afghanistan, and surrendering their soldiers and weapons; however, subsequent actions have led to questions about their true loyalties.

The Afghan National Army, Afghan National Police, and Afghan Border Police are being trained to assume the task of securing their nation.

On 31 December 2014, Operation Enduring Freedom - Afghanistan concluded, and was succeeded by Operation Freedom's Sentinel on 1 January 2015.

Iranian Revolution and Islamic Fundamentalism

The Iranian Revolution refers to events involving the overthrow of the Pahlavi dynasty under Mohammad Reza Shah Pahlavi, who was supported by the United States and its eventual replacement with an Islamic republic under the Grand Ayatollah Ruhollah Khomeini, the leader of the revolution, supported by various leftist and Islamic organizations and Iranian student movements.

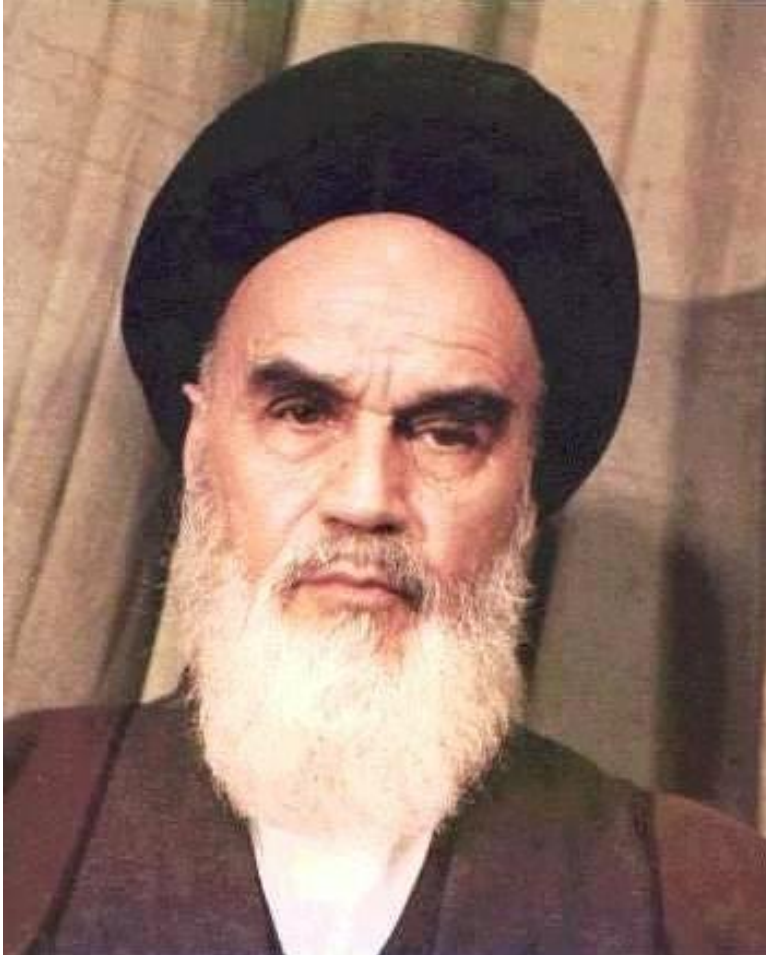


FIGURE 17.19

Ruhollah Khomeini

Demonstrations against the Shah commenced in October 1977, developing into a campaign of civil resistance that was of a religious nature (but with secular elements) and which intensified in January 1978. Between August and December 1978 strikes and demonstrations paralyzed the country. The Shah left Iran for exile on January 16, 1979, as the last Persian monarch, leaving his duties to a regency council and an opposition-based prime minister. Ayatollah Khomeini was invited back to Iran by the government, and returned to Tehran to a greeting by several million Iranians. The royal reign collapsed shortly after on February 11 when guerrillas and rebel troops overwhelmed troops loyal to the Shah in armed street fighting, bringing Khomeini to official power. Iran voted by national referendum to become an Islamic Republic on April 1, 1979, and to approve a new theocratic-republican constitution whereby Khomeini became Supreme Leader of the country, in December 1979.

The revolution was unusual for the surprise it created throughout the world: it lacked many of the customary causes of revolution (defeat at war, a financial crisis, peasant rebellion, or disgruntled military), occurred in a nation that was enjoying relatively good material wealth and prosperity, produced profound change at great speed, was massively popular, resulted in the exile of many Iranians, and replaced a pro-Western semi-absolute monarchy with an anti-Western authoritarian theocracy based on the concept of Guardianship of the Islamic Jurists (or *velayat-e faqih*).

It was a relatively non-violent revolution, and helped to redefine the meaning and practice of modern revolutions (although there was violence in its aftermath).

Its outcome – an Islamic Republic "under the guidance of a religious scholar from Qom" – was, as one scholar put it, "clearly an occurrence that had to be explained."

(ISN) Discussion and Study Questions

1. Guiding Questions

(ISN) Tech Activities

Technology assignment that makes them do something with a computer

Vocabulary

TABLE 17.1:

Palestinian Authority	the Palestinian administrative organization established in 1993 under the Oslo Accords between Israel and the Palestine Liberation Organization (PLO). It serves as an administrative entity similar to a county or municipal government in charge of public safety, education, utilities and public health, though it is not permitted to conduct foreign policy. Its jurisdiction is limited to less than 20% of the Palestinian territories under Israeli occupation. The majority of the West Bank remains under direct Israeli control.
Gaza Strip	a small coastal region bordering Israel and the Mediterranean Sea. Since 1994, it has been administered by the Palestinian Authority, though both Egypt and Israel have administered it in the past. It continues to be an area of contention between Israelis and the Palestinians.
Israel	in ancient history, the kingdom of the Hebrews (Jews) in Palestine. It is now the Jewish nation established in 1948 shortly after the Holocaust. Most Palestinians and Arabs continue to reject Jewish control of this territory, for although it was originally a Jewish state 3,000 years in the past, the area had been under Arab Muslim control since the 7th century, and Palestinian (both Muslim and Christian) control since the 2nd century.
Oslo Accords.	signed in 1993, the first direct, face-to-face agreement between the government of Israel and the Palestine Liberation Organization (PLO). It was intended to be a framework for future negotiations and relations between the Israeli government and Palestinians. The Accords provided for the creation of a Palestinian National Authority that would have responsibility for the administration of the territory under its control. The Accords also called for the withdrawal of the Israel Defense Forces from parts of the Gaza Strip and West Bank.

TABLE 17.1: (continued)

Six Day War	a six-day war fought in 1967 between Israel and several Arab states, during which Israel took control of Jerusalem, the Sinai Peninsula, the Golan Heights, and the West Bank.
West Bank	a geographic area that shares borders that align with the Jordan River, Israel, and Jordan. Formerly a territory of Palestine, it has been partially under Israeli occupation ever since the Israel Six Day War of 1967, and partially under the government of the Palestinian National Authority. It continues to be an area of contention between Israeli and Palestinian forces.
Yom Kippur War	a conflict fought in 1973 between Israel and a coalition of Arab states led by Egypt and Syria. It was launched during Yom Kippur, the holiest day in Judaism, which happened to occur that year during the Muslim holy month of Ramadan. The United States and the Soviet Union would initiate massive supply efforts to their respective allies during the war that led to a near-confrontation between the two nuclear, Cold War superpowers. After mutual battlefield victories, the war drew both sides into the Camp David Accords.
Palestinians	mostly Arab descendants of the peoples who have lived in Palestine over the centuries. They primarily reside in the Gaza strip, the West Bank and, to a lesser extent, in other areas of Israel. In addition, several waves of exile due to war, internal strife, and persecution have created a “Palestinian diaspora,” whereby approximately half of all Palestinians live outside of their original homeland. Their right of return to Palestine and modern day Israel remains a key point of contention in world affairs.
terrorism	The use of threats or force to frighten people or governments to change their behavior or policies.
September 11, 2001	the date on which al-Qaeda terrorists living in the United States hijacked several U.S. commercial airlines and crashed them into the Pentagon and the World Trade Center in New York City. President George W. Bush would respond by declaring a “War on Terrorism
Al-Qaeda	a radical Islamic fundamentalist terrorist organization formed in 1988 by Osama Bin Laden. Al-Qaeda established camps in Afghanistan to train its members in guerilla warfare tactics and acts of terrorism. Members of the group carried out the attacks on the World Trade Center and the Pentagon on September 11, 2001.

TABLE 17.1: (continued)

Ayatollah Khomeini	an ayatollah (religious leader) of Iran who returned from exile to establish a Fundamentalist Islamic state in Iran opposed to Western influences. He came to power in 1979 after the U.S. supported Shah, a more secular leader, had been overthrown. Khomeini approved of the taking of American hostages seized in 1979 from the U.S. Embassy in Tehran and who were held for 444 days.
Bin Laden, Osama	leader of the Islamic terrorist organization, Al-Qaeda. A wealthy Saudi who fought against the Russians in Afghanistan, he was angered by the presence of U.S. troops in Saudi Arabia, established Al-Qaeda terrorist training camps in Afghanistan, and initiated the September 11, 2001 attacks on the World Trade Center and Pentagon. In 2011, nearly ten years later, U.S. Navy Seals and CIA operatives operating in Pakistan located and killed Bin Laden in a covert operation ordered by the U.S. government
Taliban	a group of radical Islamic Fundamentalists that gained control of Afghanistan after the Russian withdrawal from that country in 1989. They maintained strict, Islamic control and permitted terrorist groups like al-Qaeda to operate training camps within the country. After the 9-11 attacks, the US. and its allies invaded Afghanistan and overthrew the Taliban regime. However, the Taliban continue to operate there and engage in acts of violence against U.S. forces and those attempting to defend the newly established democratic government there.

A

17.3 Mass Genocide, Ethnic Cleansing and Human Rights Violations

16.3 Mass Genocide, Ethnic Cleansing and Human Rights Violations

Student Learning Objectives

At the end of this section the student will be able to

1. Identify examples of politically motivated mass murders in...Latin America.
2. Identify examples of genocide, including the genocide in the Balkans, Rwanda and Darfur.
3. Identify examples that led resistance to political oppression such as Oscar Romero and Las Madres de la Plaza de Mayo.

Genocide in Cambodia

Background to the Genocide

Cambodia became a constitutional monarchy under King Norodom Sihanouk in the early 1950s. When French Indochina was given independence, Cambodia lost hope of regaining control over the Mekong Delta as it was awarded to Vietnam. Formerly part of the Khmer Empire, the area had been controlled by the Vietnamese since 1698, with King Chey Chettha II granting Vietnamese permission to settle in the area decades before.[43] This remains a diplomatic sticking point with over one million ethnic Khmers (the Khmer Krom) still living in this region. The Khmer Rouge attempted invasions to recover the territory which, in part, led to Vietnam's invasion of Cambodia and deposition of the Khmer Rouge.

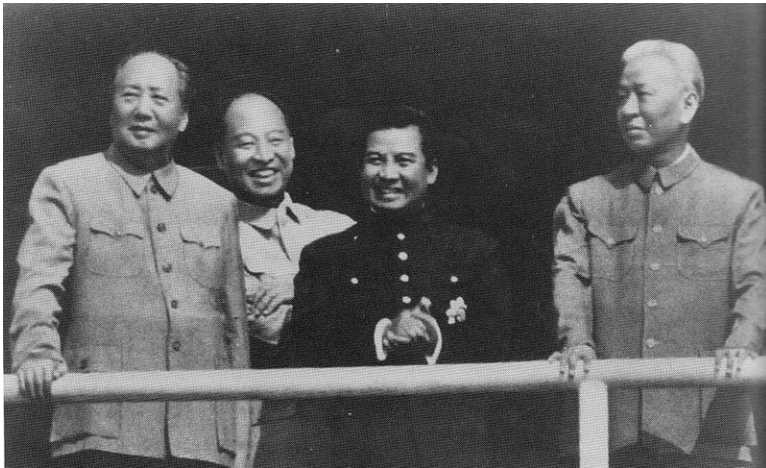


FIGURE 17.20

Location of Cambodia (green) in ASEAN (dark grey) – [Legend]

In 1955, Sihanouk abdicated in favor of his father in order to participate in politics and was elected prime minister.

Upon his father's death in 1960, Sihanouk again became head of state, taking the title of prince. As the Vietnam War progressed, Sihanouk adopted an official policy of neutrality in the Cold War. Sihanouk allowed the Vietnamese communists to use Cambodia as a sanctuary and a supply route for their arms and other aid to their armed forces fighting in South Vietnam. This policy was perceived as humiliating by many Cambodians. In December 1967 Washington Post journalist Stanley Karnow was told by Sihanouk that if the US wanted to bomb the Vietnamese communist sanctuaries, he would not object, unless Cambodians were killed. The same message was conveyed to US President Johnson's emissary Chester Bowles in January 1968. However, in public Sihanouk refuted the US' right to use air strikes in Cambodia and on 26 March Prince Sihanouk said "these criminal attacks must immediately and definitively stop..." and on 28 March a press conference was held and Sihanouk appealed to the international media "I appeal to you to publicize abroad this very clear stand of Cambodia—that is, I will in any case oppose all bombings on Cambodian territory under whatever pretext." Nevertheless, the public pleas of Sihanouk were ignored and the bombing continued.

**FIGURE 17.21**

Norodom Sihanouk and Mao Zedong in 1956

This public display of a break with the United States would cause members of the government and army became resentful of Sihanouk's ruling style as well as his foreign policy.

Khmer Republic (1970–75)

While visiting Beijing in 1970 Sihanouk was ousted by a military coup led by Prime Minister General Lon Nol and Prince Sisowath Sirik Matak. U.S. support for the coup remains unproven. However, once the coup was completed, the new regime, which immediately demanded that the Vietnamese communists leave Cambodia, gained the political support of the United States. The North Vietnamese and Viet Cong forces, desperate to retain their sanctuaries and supply lines from North Vietnam, immediately launched armed attacks on the new government. The king urged his followers to help in overthrowing this government, hastening the onset of civil war. Soon Khmer Rouge rebels began using him to gain support. However, from 1970 until early 1972, the Cambodian conflict was largely one between the government and army of Cambodia, and the armed forces of North Vietnam. As they gained control of Cambodian territory, the Vietnamese communists imposed a new political infrastructure, which was eventually dominated by the Cambodian communists we now refer to as the Khmer Rouge.[49] Between 1969 and 1973, Republic of Vietnam and U.S. forces bombed Cambodia in an effort to disrupt the Viet Cong and Khmer Rouge.

Who were the Khmer Rouge? Khmers rouges or, as they are more commonly known in English, 'Khmer Rouge' was the name given to the followers of the Communist Party of Kampuchea in Cambodia. It was formed in 1968 as an offshoot of the Vietnam People's Army from North Vietnam. It was the ruling party in Cambodia from 1975 to 1979, led by Pol Pot, Nuon Chea, Ieng Sary, Son Sen, and Khieu Samphan. Democratic Kampuchea was the name of the state as controlled by the government of the Khmer Rouge from 1975 to 1979. It allied with North Vietnam, the Viet Cong, and Pathet Lao during the Vietnam War against the anti-Communist forces.

The organization is remembered especially for orchestrating the Cambodian genocide, which resulted from the enforcement of its social engineering policies. Its attempts at agricultural reform led to widespread famine, while its insistence on absolute self-sufficiency, even in the supply of medicine, led to the death of thousands from treatable diseases such as malaria. Arbitrary executions and torture carried out by its cadres against perceived subversive elements, or during purges of its own ranks between 1975 and 1978, are considered to have constituted genocide.

The governments-in-exile (including the Khmer Rouge) still had a seat in the UN in 1979, but it was later taken away, in 1993, as the monarchy was restored and the country underwent a name change to the Kingdom of Cambodia. A year later thousands of Khmer Rouge guerrillas surrendered themselves in a government amnesty. In 1996, a new political party, the Democratic National Union Movement, was formed by Ieng Sary, who was granted amnesty for all of his roles as the deputy leader of the Khmer Rouge. The organization (Khmer Rouge) was largely dissolved by the mid-1990s, and finally surrendered completely in 1999. In 2014 two Khmer Rouge leaders Nuon Chea and Kheiu Samphan were jailed by a UN backed court for life, which found them guilty of crimes against humanity and responsible for the deaths of up to 2,000,000 Cambodians (Khmer), nearly a quarter of the country's then population, during the "Killing Fields" era between 1975-1979.

Documents uncovered from the Soviet archives after 1991 reveal that the North Vietnamese attempt to overrun Cambodia in 1970 was launched at the explicit request of the Khmer Rouge and negotiated by Pol Pot's then second in command, Nuon Chea. NVA units overran many Cambodian army positions while the Communist Party of Kampuchea (CPK) expanded their small-scale attacks on lines of communication. In response to the North Vietnamese invasion, U.S. President Richard Nixon announced that US and South Vietnamese ground forces had entered Cambodia in a campaign aimed at destroying NVA base areas in Cambodia (see *Cambodian Incursion*). Although a considerable quantity of equipment was seized or destroyed by US and South Vietnamese forces, containment of North Vietnamese forces proved elusive.

The Khmer Republic's leadership was plagued by disunity among its three principal figures: Lon Nol, Sihanouk's cousin Sirik Matak, and National Assembly leader In Tam. Lon Nol remained in power in part because neither of the others was prepared to take his place. In 1972, a constitution was adopted, a parliament elected, and Lon Nol became president. But disunity, the problems of transforming a 30,000-man army into a national combat force of more than 200,000 men, and spreading corruption weakened the civilian administration and army.

The Communist insurgency inside Cambodia continued to grow, aided by supplies and military support from North Vietnam. Pol Pot and Ieng Sary asserted their dominance over the Vietnamese-trained communists, many of whom were purged. At the same time, the CPK forces became stronger and more independent of their Vietnamese patrons. By 1973, the CPK were fighting battles against government forces with little or no North Vietnamese troop support, and they controlled nearly 60% of Cambodia's territory and 25% of its population. The government made three unsuccessful attempts to enter into negotiations with the insurgents, but by 1974, the CPK were operating openly as divisions, and some of the NVA combat forces had moved into South Vietnam. Lon Nol's control was reduced to small enclaves around the cities and main transportation routes. More than 2 million refugees from the war lived in Phnom Penh and other cities.

On New Year's Day 1975, Communist troops launched an offensive which, in 117 days of the hardest fighting of the war, collapsed the Khmer Republic. Simultaneous attacks around the perimeter of Phnom Penh pinned down Republican forces, while other CPK units overran fire bases controlling the vital lower Mekong resupply route. A US-funded airlift of ammunition and rice ended when Congress refused additional aid for Cambodia. The Lon Nol government in Phnom Penh surrendered on 17 April 1975, just five days after the US mission evacuated Cambodia.

Genocide

The Khmer Rouge regime arrested and eventually executed almost everyone suspected of connections with the former government or with foreign governments, as well as professionals and intellectuals. Ethnic Vietnamese, ethnic Thai, ethnic Chinese, ethnic Cham, Cambodian Christians, and the Buddhist monkhood were the demographic targets of persecution. As a result, Pol Pot has been described as "a genocidal tyrant." Martin Shaw described the

Cambodian genocide as "the purest genocide of the Cold War era."

Ben Kiernan estimates that about 1.7 million people were killed. Researcher Craig Etcheson of the Documentation Center of Cambodia suggests that the death toll was between 2 and 2.5 million, with a "most likely" figure of 2.2 million. After 5 years of researching some 20,000 grave sites, he concludes that, "these mass graves contain the remains of 1,386,734 victims of execution." A UN investigation reported 2–3 million dead, while UNICEF estimated 3 million had been killed. Demographic analysis by Patrick Heuveline suggests that between 1.17 and 3.42 million Cambodians were killed, while Marek Sliwinski suggests that 1.8 million is a conservative figure. Even the Khmer Rouge acknowledged that 2 million had been killed—though they attributed those deaths to a subsequent Vietnamese invasion. By late 1979, UN and Red Cross officials were warning that another 2.25 million Cambodians faced death by starvation due to "the near destruction of Cambodian society under the regime of ousted Prime Minister Pol Pot," who were saved by international aid after the Vietnamese invasion.

Cambodia's ethnic minorities constituted 15 percent of the population in pre-Khmer Rouge era. Of the 400,000 Vietnamese who lived in Cambodia before 1975, some 150–300,000 were expelled by the previous Lon Nol regime. When Pol Pot's Khmer Rouge came to power, there remained about 100–250,000 Vietnamese in the country. Almost all of them were repatriated by December 1975.

The Chinese community (about 425,000 people in 1975) was reduced to 200,000 during the next four years. In the Khmer Rouge's Standing Committee, four members were of Chinese ancestry, two Vietnamese, and two Khmers. Some observers argue that this mixed composition makes it difficult to argue that there was an intent to kill off minorities. R.J. Rummel, an analyst of political killings, argues that there was a clear genocidal intent.



FIGURE 17.22

Skulls of Khmer Rouge victims

One estimate is that out of 40,000 to 60,000 monks, only between 800 and 1,000 survived to carry on their religion. We do know that of 2,680 monks in eight monasteries, a mere seventy were alive as of 1979. As for the Buddhist temples that populated the landscape of Cambodia, the Khmer Rouge destroyed 95 percent of them, and turned the remaining few into warehouses or allocated them for some other degrading use. Amazingly, in the very short span of a year or so, the small gang of Khmer Rouge wiped out the center of Cambodian culture, its spiritual incarnation, and its institutions. As part of a planned genocide campaign, the Khmer Rouge sought out and killed other minorities, such as the Moslem Cham. In the district of Kompong Xiem, for example, they demolished five Cham hamlets and reportedly massacred 20,000 that lived there; in the district of Koong Neas only four Cham apparently survived out of some 20,000.

The judicial process of the Khmer Rouge regime, for minor or political crimes, began with a warning from the

Angkar, the government of Cambodia under the regime. People receiving more than two warnings were sent for "re-education," which meant near-certain death. People were often encouraged to confess to Angkar their "pre-revolutionary lifestyles and crimes" (which usually included some kind of free-market activity; having had contact with a foreign source, such as a U.S. missionary, international relief or government agency; or contact with any foreigner or with the outside world at all), being told that Angkar would forgive them and "wipe the slate clean." This meant being taken away to a place such as Tuol Sleng or Choeung Ek for torture and/or execution.

The executed were buried in mass graves. In order to save ammunition, the executions were often carried out using poison, spades or sharpened bamboo sticks. In some cases the children and infants of adult victims were killed by having their heads bashed against the trunks of Chankiri trees, and then were thrown into the pits along side their parents. The rationale was "to stop them growing up and taking revenge for their parents' deaths."

Some victims were required to dig their own graves; their weakness often meant that they were unable to dig very deep. The soldiers who carried out the executions were mostly young men or women from peasant families.

Prosecution for Crimes Against Humanity

In 1997 the Cambodian government asked for the UN's assistance in setting up a genocide Tribunal. It took nine years to agree to the shape and structure of the court – a hybrid of Cambodian and international laws – before the judges were sworn in in 2006. The investigating judges were presented with the names of five possible suspects by the prosecution on July 18, 2007. On September 19, 2007 Nuon Chea, second in command of the Khmer Rouge and its most senior surviving member, was charged with war crimes and crimes against humanity. He faced Cambodian and foreign judges at the special genocide tribunal and was convicted on 7 August, 2014 and received a life sentence. On July 26, 2010 Kang Kek Iew (aka Comrade Duch), director of the S-21 prison camp, was convicted of crimes against humanity and sentenced to 35 years' imprisonment. His sentence was reduced to 19 years, as he had already spent 11 years in prison. On February 2, 2012, his sentence was extended to life imprisonment by the Extraordinary Chambers in the Courts of Cambodia.

Genocide in Rwanda

Background to the Genocide

Rwanda had been a colony of Belgium since the end of World War I (prior to that it had been part of the German colony known as German East Africa), and by the late 1950s decolonization, a movement throughout Africa advocating self rule for Africans, had arrived in Rwanda. Anti-colonial sentiment rose throughout central Africa, and a socialist platform of African unity and equality for all Africans was promoted. Nyerere even wrote about the elitism of educational systems.

Encouraged by the Pan-Africanists, Hutu advocates in the Catholic Church, and by Christian Belgians (who were increasingly influential in the Congo), Hutu resentment of the Tutsi increased. The United Nations mandates, the Tutsi elite class, and the Belgian colonialists added to the growing unrest. Grégoire Kayibanda, founder of PARMEHUTU, led the Hutu "emancipation" movement. In 1957, he wrote the "Hutu Manifesto". His party quickly became militarized. In reaction, in 1959 the Tutsi formed the UNAR party, lobbying for immediate independence for Ruanda-Urundi, to be based on the existing Tutsi monarchy. This group also became militarized. Skirmishes began between UNAR and PARMEHUTU groups. In July 1959, when the Tutsi Mwami (King) Mutara III Charles died following a routine vaccination, some Tutsi thought he had been assassinated. His younger half-brother became the next Tutsi monarch, Mwami (King) Kigeli V.

In November 1959, Tutsis tried to assassinate Kayibanda. Rumors of the death of Hutu politician Dominique Mbyonyumutwa at the hands of Tutsis, who had beaten him, set off a violent retaliation, called the wind of destruction. Hutus killed an estimated 20,000 to 100,000 Tutsi; thousands more, including the Mwami, fled to neighboring Uganda before Belgian commandos arrived to quell the violence. Tutsi leaders accused the Belgians of abetting

**FIGURE 17.23**

A commemorative stupa filled with the skulls of the victims at the Killing Field of Choeung Ek.

the Hutus. A UN special commission reported racism reminiscent of "Nazism" against the Tutsi minorities, and discriminatory actions by the government and Belgian authorities.

The revolution of 1959 marked a major change in political life in Rwanda. Some 150,000 Tutsis were exiled to neighbouring countries. Tutsis who remained in Rwanda were excluded from political power in a state becoming more centralized under Hutu power. Tutsi refugees also fled to the South Kivu province of the Congo, where they were known as Banyamalenge.

In 1960, the Belgian government agreed to hold democratic municipal elections in Ruanda-Urundi. The Hutu majority elected Hutu representatives. Such changes ended the Tutsi monarchy, which had existed for centuries. A Belgian effort to create an independent Ruanda-Urundi with Tutsi-Hutu power sharing failed, largely due to escalating violence. At the urging of the UN, the Belgian government divided Ruanda-Urundi into two separate countries, Rwanda and Burundi.



Bundesarchiv, Bild 105-DDA0184
Foto: Döbberin, Walther | 1906/1918

FIGURE 17.24

More details Classroom in a German East African school, c. March 1914.

Independence

On 25 September 1961, a referendum was held to establish whether Rwanda should become a republic or remain a kingdom. Citizens voted overwhelmingly for a republic. After parliamentary elections held on the same day, the first Rwandese Republic was declared, with Kayibanda as prime minister. Mbonyumutwa was named the first president of the transitional government.

Between 1961 and 1962, Tutsi guerrilla groups staged attacks into Rwanda from neighboring countries. Rwandan Hutu-based troops responded, and thousands more were killed in the clashes. On 1 July 1962, Belgium, with UN oversight, granted full independence to the two countries. Rwanda was created as a republic governed by the majority MDR-Parmehutu, which had gained full control of national politics. In 1963, a Tutsi guerrilla invasion into Rwanda from Burundi unleashed another anti-Tutsi backlash by the Hutu government; their forces killed an estimated 14,000 people. The economic union between Rwanda and Burundi was dissolved and tensions between the two countries worsened. Rwanda became a Hutu-dominated one-party state. In excess of 70,000 people had been killed.[citation needed]

Kayibanda became Rwanda's first elected president, leading a government chosen from the membership of the directly elected unicameral National Assembly. Peaceful negotiation of international problems, social and economic elevation of the masses, and integrated development of Rwanda were the ideals of the Kayibanda regime. He established formal relations with 43 countries, including the United States, in the first ten years. Despite the progress made, inefficiency and corruption developed in government ministries in the mid-1960s.

The Kayibanda administration established quotas to try to increase the number of Hutu in schools and the civil service. This effort ended up penalizing the Tutsi. They were allowed only nine percent of secondary school and university seats, which was their proportion of the population. The quotas also extended to the civil service. With unemployment high, competition for such opportunities increased ethnic tensions. The Kayibanda government also continued the Belgian colonial government's policy of requiring ethnic identity cards, and it discouraged "mixed" marriages.

Following more violence in 1964, the government suppressed political opposition. It banned the political parties UNAR and RADER and executed Tutsi members. Hutu militants used the term *inyenzi* (cockroaches) as a pejorative to describe Tutsi rebels for what was perceived as infiltrating the country. Hundreds of thousands of refugees moved to neighbouring countries.

The Catholic Church was closely involved with Parmehutu, and they shared local resources and networks. Through the church, the government maintained links with supporters in Belgium and Germany. The country's two newspapers supported the government and were Catholic publications.

Military Rule

On July 5, 1973, Defence Minister Maj. Gen. Juvénal Habyarimana overthrew Kayibanda. He suspended the constitution, dissolved the National Assembly and imposed a strict ban on all political activity.

Initially, Habyarimana abolished the quota system, winning him favour among Tutsi. However, this didn't last. In 1974, a public outcry developed over Tutsi over-representation in professional fields such as medicine and education. Thousands of Tutsi were forced to resign from such positions, and many were forced into exile. In associated violence, several hundred Tutsi were killed. Gradually, Habyarimana reimposed many of his predecessor's policies favouring Hutu over Tutsi.

In 1975, President Habyarimana formed the National Revolutionary Movement for Development (MRND) whose goals were to promote peace, unity, and national development. The movement was organized from the "hillside" to the national level and included elected and appointed officials.

Under MRND aegis, a new constitution making the party a one-party state under the MRND was approved in a referendum in December 1978. These were shortly followed by presidential elections a few weeks later. Habyarimana, as president of the MRND, was the only candidate on the ballot. He was re-elected in 1983 and again in 1988, each time as sole candidate. However, in a minor concession to democracy, voters were given a choice of two MRND candidates in elections to the National Assembly. Responding to public pressure for political reform, President Habyarimana announced in July 1990 his intention to transform Rwanda's one-party state into a multi-party democracy.

Civil War

Many exiled refugee Rwandan Tutsis in Uganda had joined the rebel forces of Yoweri Museveni in the Ugandan Bush War and had then become part of the Ugandan military upon the rebel victory in 1986. Among these were Fred Rwigyema and Paul Kagame, who rose to prominence in the Rwandan Patriotic Front (RPF), a Rwandan rebel group largely consisting of Tutsi veterans of the Ugandan war. On October 1, 1990, the RPF invaded Rwanda from their base in neighboring Uganda. The rebel force, composed primarily of ethnic Tutsis, blamed the government for failing to democratize and resolve the problems of some 500,000 Tutsi refugees living in diaspora around the world.

The Tutsi diaspora miscalculated the reaction of its invasion of Rwanda. Though the Tutsi objective seemed to be to pressure the Rwandan government into making concessions, the invasion was seen as an attempt to bring the Tutsi ethnic group back into power. The effect was to increase ethnic tensions to a level higher than they had ever been. Nevertheless, after 3 years of fighting and multiple prior "cease-fires," the government and the RPF signed a "final" cease-fire agreement in August 1993, known as the Arusha Accords, in order to form a power sharing government, a plan which immediately ran into problems.

The situation worsened when the first elected Burundian president, Melchior Ndadaye, a Hutu, was assassinated by the Burundian Tutsi-dominated army in October 1993. In Burundi, a fierce civil war then erupted between Tutsi and Hutu following the army's massacre. This conflict spilled over the border into Rwanda and destabilized the fragile Rwandan accords. Tutsi-Hutu tensions rapidly intensified. Although the UN sent a peacekeeping force named the United Nations Assistance Mission for Rwanda (UNAMIR), it was underfunded, under-staffed, and largely ineffective in the face of a two country civil-war. The UN denied Lieutenant-General Roméo Dallaire's request for additional troops and changes to the rules of engagement to prevent the coming genocide.

**FIGURE 17.25**

The Virunga Mountains, the RPF base from 1990–1991

The Rwandan Genocide

On April 6, 1994, the airplane carrying Juvénal Habyarimana, the President of Rwanda, and Cyprien Ntaryamira, the Hutu President of Burundi, was shot down as it prepared to land at Kigali. Both presidents were killed when the plane crashed.

Military and militia groups began rounding up and killing Tutsis en masse, as well as political moderates irrespective of their ethnic backgrounds. The killing swiftly spread from Kigali to all corners of the country; between April 6 and the beginning of July, a genocide of unprecedented swiftness left between 500,000 and 1,000,000 Tutsis (800,000 is a commonly noted number) and moderate Hutus dead at the hands of organized bands of militia (Interahamwe). Local officials, in order to kill their neighboring Tutsis who were called Inkotanyi - Cockroaches by the local radio stations inciting fear and hatred, called on even ordinary citizens. The president's MRND Party was implicated in organizing many aspects of the genocide. The Hutu genocidaires were abetted by the Radio Télévision Libre des Mille Collines broadcasting hate speech advocating violence against Tutsis. It broadcast at the same time as Radio Muhabura broadcast from Uganda, sponsored by the RPF and their Ugandan allies.

The RPF renewed its civil war against the Rwanda Hutu government when it received word that the genocidal massacres had begun. Its leader Paul Kagame directed RPF forces in neighboring countries such as Uganda and Tanzania to invade the country, but here, Paul Kagame did not direct RPF Forces from neighboring countries because RPF was already in Rwanda for three years and half battling the Hutu forces and Interahamwe militias who were committing the massacres. The resulting civil war raged concurrently with the genocide for two months. The Tutsi-led RPF continued to advance on the capital, and soon occupied the northern, eastern, and southern parts of the country by June. Thousands of additional civilians were killed in the conflict. UN member states refused to answer UNAMIR's requests for increased troops and money. France, in Operation Turquoise, occupied the remaining part of the country not under RPF control. While the French operation did prevent mass killings it has been alleged that the deployment of French troops was intended to allow the Hutu militias to escape, and that the slaughter of Tutsis continued in the French controlled area.

Aftermath and Peace

Between July and August 1994, Kagame's Tutsi-led RPF troops first entered Kigali and soon thereafter captured the rest of the country. The Tutsi rebels defeated the Hutu regime and ended the genocide, but approximately two

million Hutu refugees - some who participated in the genocide and fearing Tutsi retribution - fled to neighboring Burundi, Tanzania, Uganda, and Zaire. This exodus became known as the Great Lakes refugee crisis.

After the Tutsi RPF took control of the government, in 1994, Kagame formed a government of national unity headed by a Hutu president, Pasteur Bizimungu. Kagame became Minister of Defence and Vice-President, and was the de facto leader of the country.

Following an uprising by the ethnic Tutsi, sometimes referred to as a whole as Banyamulenge (although this term only represents people from one area in eastern Zaire—other ethnic Tutsi Kinyarwanda-speaking people include the Banyamasisi and the Banyarutshuru, as an example) people in eastern Zaire in October 1997, a huge movement of refugees began which brought more than 600,000 back to Rwanda in the last two weeks of November. This massive repatriation was followed at the end of December 1996 by the return of another 500,000 from Tanzania, again in a huge, spontaneous wave. Less than 100,000 Rwandans are estimated to remain outside of Rwanda, and they are thought to be the remnants of the defeated army of the former genocidal government, its allies in the civilian militias known as Interahamwe, and soldiers recruited in the refugee camps before 1996. There are also many innocent Hutu who remain in the forests of eastern Congo, particularly Rutshuru, Masisi and Bukavu, who have been misinformed by rebel forces that they will be killed upon return to Rwanda. Rebels also use force to prevent these people from returning, as they serve as a human shield.

In northwest Rwanda, Hutu militia members killed three Spanish aid workers, three soldiers and seriously wounded one other on January 18, 1997. Since then, most of the refugees have returned and the country is secure for tourists.

Rwandan coffee began to gain importance after international taste tests pronounced it among the best in the world, and the U.S. responded with a contribution of 8 million dollars. Rwanda now earns some revenue from coffee and tea export, although it has been difficult to compete with larger coffee-producing countries. The main source of revenue, however, is tourism, mainly mountain gorilla visitation. Their other parks, Nyungwe Forest (one of the last high-altitude tropical forests in the world) and Akagera National Park (a safari game park) have also become popular on the tourism circuit. The lakeside resorts of Gisenyi and Kibuye are also gaining ground.

When Bizimungu became critical of the Kagame government in 2000, he was removed as president and Kagame took over the presidency himself. Bizimungu immediately founded an opposition party (the PDR), but the Kagame government banned it. Bizimungu was arrested in 2002 for treason, sentenced to 15 years in prison, but released by a presidential pardon in 2007.

The postwar government has placed high priority on development, opening water taps in the most remote areas, providing free and compulsory education, and promulgating progressive environmental policies. Their Vision 2020 development policy has the aim of achieving a service-based society by 2020, with a significant middle class. There is remarkably little corruption in the country.

Hutu Rwandan genocidal leaders are on trial at the International Criminal Tribunal for Rwanda, in the Rwandan National Court system, and, most recently, through the informal Gacaca program. Recent reports highlight a number of reprisal killings of survivors for giving evidence at Gacaca. These Gacaca trials are overseen by the government established National Unity and Reconciliation Commission. Gacaca is a traditional adjudication mechanism at the umudugudu (village) level, whereby members of the community elect elders to serve as judges, and the entire community is present for the case. This system was modified to try lower-level génocidaires, those who had killed or stolen but did not organize massacres. Prisoners, dressed in pink, stand trial before members of their community. Judges accord sentences, which vary widely, from returning to prison, to paying back the cost of goods stolen, to working in the fields of families of victims. Gacaca is expected to conclude in December 2008. For many, Gacaca has been a vehicle for closure, and prisoners' testimonies have helped many families locate victims. Gacaca takes place once a week in the morning in every village across Rwanda, and is compulsory.

Ethnicity has been formally outlawed in Rwanda, in the effort to promote a culture of healing and unity. One can stand trial for discussion of the different ethnic groups.

Rwanda has become a President's Emergency Plan for AIDS Relief (PEPFAR) focus country, and the United States has been providing AIDS programming, education, training, and treatment. Rwandans who have been infected can

now receive free antiretroviral drugs in health centers across the country, as well as food packages.

(ISN) Discussion and Study Questions

1. Guiding Questions

(ISN) Tech Activities

Technology assignment that makes them do something with a computer

Vocabulary

TABLE 17.2:

Ethnic cleansing	A policy of murder and other acts of brutality in the 1990s by which Serbs hoped to eliminate Bosnia's Muslim population after the breakup of Yugoslavia
Genocide	The systematic killing of an entire population
Las Madres de la Plaza de Mayo	In Argentina, mothers who demanded to know the whereabouts of children and loved ones who mysteriously disappeared during the military dictatorship that had ruled Argentina from 1976 to 1983, during which thousands were killed or had disappeared.
Rwanda and Burundi	Two small, central African countries that experienced episodes of genocide, whereby an estimated 850,000 Tutsis, the minority population, were killed by Hutus, who were the majority population. This equates to half of the Tutsi population being killed.

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