

AP World History Notes

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Unit 0: Foundations

Governance (and Geographical Orientation)

State-Building Techniques

- Development of written law codes, bureaucracies, systems of tax collection
- Development of infrastructure for transport and communications
- Reliance on elite classes to share political and administrative responsibilities
- Mobilization of labor for large-scale building projects or military service
- Use of religion and other socioeconomic norms to justify the right to rule

Classical Periods

- Socioeconomic development
- High degree of political cohesion
- Enduring cultural legacy

European Civilizations	Middle Eastern Civilizations (Mesopotamia, Egypt)	African Civilizations
Greece and Rome (ca. 500 BCE-400 CE) Medieval era (ca. 1300-1400 CE)	Mainly under Persian rule Periods of Macedon (under Alexander the Great) and Roman Empire Caliphates rose in 600s CE	Nubia (south of Egypt) North Africa (including Egypt) under Islamic caliphates Swahili city-states dominate east coast Great Zimbabwe in sub-Saharan Africa Most complex states in West Africa (Ghana reached peak 800s-1200s CE)

East Asian Civilizations		South Asian/Southeast Asian Civilizations
China	Japan	
Qin and Han dynasties (ca. 200 BCE-200 CE) centralized and expanded state Tang (618-907 CE) and Song (960-1279 CE) dynasties were periods of art and technological advancement	Heian era (795-1185 CE) Feudalism and samurai warfare following	Mauryan (ca. 300-100 BCE) and Gupta (ca. 300-500 CE) in India Khmer Empire (ca. 800-1400 CE) in Cambodia Srivijaya Empire (ca. 500-1100 CE) in Indonesia

North American Civilizations	Central American Civilizations	South American Civilizations (Andes Mountains)
Ancestral Puebloans (ca. 400-1300 CE) in U.S. Southwest lived in pueblos Mississippian civilization (ca. 700 CE-arrival of Europeans) in Ohio and Mississippi River valleys	<u>Mesoamerica</u> Olmecs (ca. 1400-400 BCE) were mother civilization (introduced pyramids) Mayans (ca. 200-900 CE) Toltecs (ca. 800-1000 CE) <u>Mexico</u> Aztecs (ca. 1200-1500 CE)	Chavín (ca. 1000 BCE) Moche (ca. 200-700 CE) Incans (ca. 1300 CE)

Empires often fall because of overreach; state assumed too many responsibilities or expenses, conquered too much territory, caused too many social problems for authorities to handle.

- Unwise or corrupt political leadership
- Rebellion and social upheavals caused by overtaxation or elite injustice
- Civil wars
- Conquest of more territory than can be effectively governed
- Economic downturns
- Disruptions of regional trade patterns
- Neglect of infrastructure
- War with advanced states
- Constant frontier harassment by nomads
- External environment factors (natural disasters, climate change, disease)
- Self-inflicted environmental problems

Cultural Developments and Interactions

- Developed through independent innovation and cultural diffusion

Literary and Oral Traditions

- Literary traditions are typical built on foundational texts
 - Gilgamesh epic (Sumeria), Rig Veda (India), Homeric poems (Greece)
- Classical or liturgical (scriptural) languages had intellectual/religious dominance
 - Latin, Sanskrit, Mandarin Chinese, Arabic
- Lingua franca was a common language (for trade)
 - Swahili (East Africa), sign language (Native Americas)
- Oral traditions include griot storytellers (West Africa)
- Alternative methods like quipu, or “talking knots” (Andes)

Artistic Traditions

- Sculpture, painting, music, pottery, weaving
- Monumental architecture displayed power of government or church
 - Pyramids (Egypt, Mesoamerica), ziggurats, earth mounds, temples/churches, palaces, fortifications/walls
- Philosophy is a mode of rational thought
 - Socrates, Plato, Aristotle (Greece), religious debates over Vedism (India), “Hundred Schools of Thought” era (China)

Religion

- Addresses questions of ethics and morality, possibility of an afterlife, humanity’s place in the universe and spreads through trade, missionary work, and forced conversion
- Shamanism: hunter-foragers
- Ancestor Veneration: China, Rome
- Polytheism: Sumerian-Babylonia and Egyptian gods (Middle East), Olympian deities (Greece, Rome), Vedic gods (India), “celestial bureaucracy” (China)

Zoroastrianism

- Founder was Zoroaster
- Hypothesized to be born around 1000 BCE in eastern Iran
- Avesta (scripture) was compiled over many centuries
- Became major faith in Persia when it was adopted by Darius the Great to justify his rule as king of kings
- Good deeds of worshippers assisted Ahura Mazda (world’s creator) against Ahriman (evil spirit of chaos)
- End time of judgement and afterlife for the worthy
- Influenced Middle East for centuries

- Few followers in the present-day (Parsi sect in parts of Iran, Pakistan, India)
- Influenced Judaic and Christian doctrines

Hebrew Monotheism and Judaism

- Hebrew monotheism evolved into Judaism
- First monotheistic faith (ca. 2000 BCE)
- Hebrews were chosen people of Jehovah
- Migrated to Egypt and were enslaved (ca. 1700 BCE)
- Escaped under Moses (ca. 1300-1200 BCE)
- Exodus celebrated during the Passover holiday
- Moses led them to the promised land of Canaan (Israel)
- Handed down Ten Commandments and the Torah (“Teaching”), which were the first five books of the Tanakh
- David and Solomon established capital at Jerusalem and built the First Temple (ca. 900 BCE)
- Hebrew kingdom split up after Solomon’s death
- Conquest by Assyrians, Neo-Babylonians, Persians (ca. 700-500 BCE)
- Jewish doctrine took more formal shape, but the Jewish people began to scatter
- Neo-Babylonians tore down First Temple and uprooted Hebrews (ca. 500 BCE)
- Persians allowed them to return and build a second temple
- Jewish diaspora began when many Jews chose to remain in their new homes
- Romans responded to Jewish rebellions by destroying the second temple and dissolving the Jewish state
- Roman-Jewish tension caused by Jews refusing to accept the Roman emperor as a living god
- Religious adherence helped Jews preserve their sense of identity in the face of conquest and exile.
- Rabbis codified the Tanakh and added the Talmud (“Instruction”)
- Law operated on retributive principle
- Strict dietary restrictions and discouraged outside marriage
- Patriarchal and practiced slavery (with some caveats)
- Jews came to believe that a messiah would someday appear as a savior to free them from foreign oppression.

Christianity

- Founded by Jesus of Nazareth (4 BCE-29 CE)
- Born into a Jewish family and sought to reform Jewish laws and traditions as a teacher
- Charity and compassion were more important than obeying rabbis and observing customs
- Claimed to be messiah foretold by Hebrew prophecy
- Jews expected the messiah to restore the Hebrew Kingdom politically, but Jesus spoke of a heavenly kingdom instead
- Teachings were popular among the common people and the poor
- Claims to be the messiah and questioning of traditions angered Jewish religious authorities
- Rumors that he named himself “king of the Jews” (misinterpretation of messiah) created anxiety among Romans
- Jews urged Romans to arrest him when he came to preach in Jerusalem during Passover season
- Put to death by crucifixion
- Followers believe in the Resurrection, a Second Coming, and the Day of Judgement
- Virtuous Christians admitted to Heaven and nonbelievers damned to Hell
- Roman law banned Christianity
- Apostle Paul began as a persecutor of Christians but converted later
- Along with Peter (Christ’s chief disciple) created centers of worship
- Paul’s main contribution was widening Christianity’s appeal beyond the original community of Jewish followers (Greeks, Romans)
- Decreed that Christians did not need to observe Jewish dietary restrictions or circumcise
- Christianity became popular among the powerless, including noncitizens, slaves, commoners, and women.
- Gave hope of a happy afterlife for those who led miserable lives
- Early church gave women influential roles but grew to be more patriarchal
- Used Old Testament story of Adam and Eve to assign women blame for humanity’s original sin
- Paul’s writings put women in secondary position

- Had to obey men and were barred from priesthood
- Constantine legalized Christianity with the Edict of Milan (313 CE)
- Became the only legally permitted religion in the empire later
- Formalized hierarchy of priests and bishops around 300-400 CE
- Compiled the Bible, which includes the Old Testament (Jewish Scripture) and the New Testament (four Gospels and other materials)
- Dogma: officially agree-upon beliefs
- Heresy: unacceptable views
- Jerome (347-420 CE) completed first Latin translation of the Bible
- Augustine's (354-430 CE) City of God provided basis for further Christian doctrine
- Christian church drifted apart in terms of leadership and doctrine after Rome's fall (ca. 400 CE)
- Roman Catholicism provided Europe with a force for cultural unity in the west.
- Evolved into Eastern Orthodoxy in the east
- Great Schism of 1054 was the split between Roman Catholicism and Eastern Orthodoxy

Islam

- Founded by Mohammed (570-632 CE), a merchant from Mecca
- While meditating in the mountains, experienced a vision from the archangel Gabriel, who delivered the word of Allah (610 CE)
- Claimed to be the final prophet of Abrahamic tradition
- Along with followers, forced out of Mecca by leaders of the local polytheistic faith (622 CE)
- Mohammed and his follower's flight to Medina became known as Hegira
- Returned to Mecca and converted the city (630 CE)
- Mohammed died and ascended to Heaven in Jerusalem (632 CE)
- Holiest cities are Mecca, Medina, and Jerusalem
- Qur'an is a holy book which contains Mohammed's teachings
- Sharia is the codification of traditional Islamic law
- Jews and Christians were known as People of the Book
- Five Pillars of Faith:
 - To confess one's faith (there is no god but Allah)
 - To pray five times daily facing the direction of Mecca
 - To fast during the month of Ramadan
 - To give alms to the poor
 - To attempt the hajj (pilgrimage to Mecca) at least once in one's lifetime
- Other traditions include abstinence from alcohol and pork, avoiding portrayal of humans and animals in art, polygamy (up to four wives)
- High degree of patriarchalism (seclusion in women's quarters, veil in public) but also some rights (inherit, have dowries, own property)
- No distinction between political allegiance and religious affiliation
- To be a Muslim meant to also belong to a political and social community, or umma, linked by religious belief
- Caliph ("successor") governed umma after Mohammed's death
- First caliph was Abu Bakr, Mohammed's father-in-law
- Sunni-Shiite split and civil war (ca. 600 CE)
- Sunni supported the war's victors, the Umayyad caliphs
- Currently majority (80% of all Muslims)
- Shiite were followers of Ali, Mohammed's son-in-law, who was killed in the war

From Vedism to Hinduism

- Vedism was brought to India by foreign invaders (ca. 1500 BCE)
- Rig Veda was its best-known scripture
- Created rigid caste system
- Taught that all creatures possessed a soul that yearned to be reunited with Brahman (World Soul)
- Achieved through cycle of life, death, and reincarnation

- Karma (law of deeds) meant actions in one life determined one's rebirth in the next
- Had elaborate rituals to dozens of gods
- Justified social hierarchy and valued obedience to the brahmin class and accepting one's lot in life
- Growing discontent with brahmins' authority led to religious struggle (after 700 BCE)
- Upanishads were series of essays and poems that proposed that people could liberate themselves from the cycle of life, death, and reincarnation without relying so heavily on the priestly class
- Vedism was absorbed into Hinduism over a series of time (completed around 300 BCE)
- Inherited concepts of karma, reincarnation, and the caste system
- In present-day, majority of Indians some South and Southeast Asians are Hindu
- Recognizes tens of thousands of gods and goddesses
- Brahma the Creator is the masculine personification of the World Spirit
- Vishnu the Preserver is a savior figure and a friend to humanity
- Shiva the Destroyer is the dancing god of creation and destruction and reflects the duality of life and death
- Shakti is the great mother goddess
- Caste system separated society into five classes: priests, warriors/rulers, farmers/artisans, servants/serfs, untouchables (who performed degrading tasks like the handling of human waste and the burial of the dead)
- Law of Manu (ca. 200 BCE-200 CE) justified caste system by arguing that acceptance of one's social status was moral duty and that good karma would increase the likelihood of being reborn in a better caste
- Highly patriarchal (considered legal minors, no right to divorce or own property)
- Women could not achieve spiritual union with Brahman in their lifetimes but had to wait to be reborn as a man
- Sati Ritual: widows were required to burn themselves to death on the funeral pyres of their deceased husbands

Buddhism

- Also emerged from the transition away from traditional Vedism
- Based on the teachings of Siddhartha Gautama (ca. 500 BCE), a nobleman from northern India
- Abandoned aristocratic life to find the answer to the question of human suffering
- Found spiritual enlightenment and became the Buddha ("the enlightened one")
- Followers recorded teachings in sutras
- Mauryan emperor Ashoka spread it throughout India (ca. 200 BCE)
- Reached China before 100 CE
- Influenced all of Asia
- Originally less a religion and more a philosophy meant to correct the worst features of Vedism
- Also postulates that souls evolve toward spiritual perfection by means of birth, death, and reincarnation according to the law of karma
- Gautama rejected the caste system
- Argued that anyone can achieve nirvana (liberation from the wheel of life) without the aid of priests or rituals
- Only need to follow the Four Noble Truths and the Eightfold Path
- Four Noble Truths:
 - Human existence is inseparable from suffering
 - The cause of suffering is desire
 - Suffering is extinguished by extinguishing desire
 - Desire may be extinguished by following the Eightfold Path
- Eightfold Path
 - Know the truth
 - Resist evil
 - Do nothing to hurt others
 - Respect all forms of life
 - Work for the well-being of others
 - Free your mind of evil
 - Control your thoughts
 - Practice meditation
- Theravada Buddhism emphasizes simplicity and meditation
- Oldest Buddhist denomination

- Closer to Buddha's actual teachings
- Prominent in South and Southeast Asia
- Mahayana Buddhism involves more rituals and symbolism due to syncretism
- Caught on further north (Japan, Korea, parts of China)
- Tibetan Buddhism is related to Mahayana doctrines
- Popular among the Mongol and the Turkic people of Central Asia
- Most famous practitioner is the Dalai Lama

Confucianism

- Founded by Confucius (551 - 479 BCE), a government official
- Lived during China's unstable Spring and Autumn Period
- Went through war and political chaos
- Pondered the proper relationship between society and the individual during retirement
- Followers compiled teachings in the Analects
- Took for granted the existence of a celestial bureaucracy
- Emphasized order and hierarchy (including filial piety)
- Well-being of group comes before that of the individual
- Social harmony could be created by a combination of benevolent rulership from above and good behaviour from below
- Fit in with the concepts of the mandate of heaven and ancestor veneration
- Highly patriarchal and established women as subservient
- Men ruled, fought wars, received education, kept concubines and wives, could divorce any women who failed to produce an heir
- Women were homemakers and mothers; allowed limited education. prohibited from owning property, no dowry system
- Hierarchical relationships rested on the concept of mutual respect
- Assumed that people are inherently good
- Opposed Legalism, which viewed people as innately immoral and advocated harsh punishments as the only way to control them
- Often supported by state as an official code of conduct
- Neo-Confucianism appeared around 600 CE

Daoism

- Founded by Laozi (ca. 600 BCE)
- Central text Tao-te Ching is attributed to him but was most likely written in 300s-200s BCE
- Seek to be in harmony with the dao (the "way of "path")
- Deliberately antirational
- Uses parables to understand the world in nonlogical ways
- Influenced traditional medicine, martial arts, alchemy (metallurgy), astrology (astronomy)
- Fortune-telling was crucial
- I-Ching ("Book of Changes") teaches how to read the future
- Added philosophy to poetry, especially in Tang dynasty
- Involved with feng shui, an architectural art that focused on harmonious placement
- Buildings and items inside oriented to ensure good fortune
- Yin-yang symbol illustrates that nothing is absolute

Technology and Innovation

Weaponry:

- Metallurgy
 - Transition from stone to bronze tools in the Middle East and China (ca. 4000-3000 BCE)
 - Iron tools around 1200 BCE
- Bows and arrows, chariots

- Gunpowder from China (ca. 800-900 CE)

Farming

- Hoes, plows
- Yokes for oxen and cattle
- Horse collar from China (ca. 800-900 CE), stirrup and saddle

Transportation

- Wheeled vehicles
- Viking longboats, Polynesian outrigger canoes, Arabian and Indian dhow, Chinese junk
- Lateen sail, stern rudder
- Magnetic compass from China
- Astrolabe improved by Middle Eastern scholars

The people of the Americas had less incentive to develop farming and transportation technologies than did those of Afro-Eurasia

- No horse or cattle available
- Llama, the region's one large domesticated animal, had limits as a beast of burden
- Concept of the wheel was known to the Mayans, but never became widespread in practical use
- Gunpowder remained unknown

Scientific Knowledge

- Greek philosophers, influenced by Egyptian learning, were the first to move toward forms of scientific learning (ca. 600-200 BCE).
- Often did not understand the scientific principles behind medicine, engineering, astronomy, but learned empirically (systematic observation)
- Spread of knowledge through written texts
- Woodblock printing from China (ca. 200 CE)
- Gave rise to the more revolutionary moveable-type printing

Mathematical Knowledge

- Measurement of time
- Song water clock from China (ca. 1100 CE)
- Calculation of calendars
- Define decimal system
- Concepts of pi and zero
- Maya developed zero independently
- Arabic numbers invented by Gupta India

Economic Systems

Modes of Economic Production

- Determine how the society produces and consumes goods and services
- Help shape forms of social organization
- Predominantly food goods based before 1200 CE
- Includes hunting and foraging, pastoralism (raising livestock), agriculture, artisanry, craft production

Trade

- Exchange of goods and services
- Led to the formation of marketplaces
- Strengthened contacts and connections between communities
- Spread ideas, religious beliefs, and technologies
- Motivated the development of water and overland transport

Water and Overland Transport

- Water transport tended to be faster and more cost-effective than land transport (until the invention of railroads and modern highways)
- Caused trade to flourish among bodies of water (rivers, lakeshores, coastlines)
- Water transport was aided by innovations in shipbuilding technology and navigational science
- Overland transport included caravans, which benefited from increasingly efficient exploitation of pack animal and wheeled vehicles

Value of Goods and Services

- Used a standardization of weights and measures to calculate and convert the value of goods
- Currency made the double coincidence of wants needed in barter unnecessary
 - Beads, shells, salt
 - Coins invented in the Middle East by Lydians (ca. 600-500 BCE)
 - Paper money developed in China (ca. 600-1100 CE)
- Banking and credit
 - Loans with interest
 - Promissory notes
 - Bills of exchange (can be redeemed for cash)
- Required trust but allowed for a safer and simpler transfer of wealth

Transregional Trade Routes

Afro-Eurasia

- Mediterranean trade network
- Trans-Saharan caravan routes
- Indian Ocean basin (sea lanes)
- Silk Road (joined Middle East and East Asia)

Americas

- Mesoamericans traded far north and south
- Commerce between Andes and Amazon basin

Social Interactions and Organization

Hunting and Foraging:

- Live off resources taken directly from the land
- Class distinctions are minor
- Nomadic

Pastoralism:

- Involves the herding and the raising of livestock
- Introduced during the Neolithic Revolution (ca. 10,000)
- Class distinctions more noticeable than hunter-foragers
- Tend to be nomadic

Agriculture:

- Involves the systematic cultivation of plants
- Introduced during the Neolithic Revolution (ca. 10,000)
- Sharpest class distinctions
- Sedentary
- Led to formation of villages
- Normalized concepts of private property and land ownership
- Food surplus led to specialization of labor

During the transition from the Paleolithic Era to the Neolithic, communities in the Middle East and northern China began to practice agriculture systemically.

Agriculture (ca. 8000 BCE):

- Mesoamerica: maize, beans
 - Andes: beans, potatoes
 - West Africa: yams
 - Middle East: wheat, barley, beans
 - North China: millet, soybeans
 - Southeast Asia: bananas, rice, yam
-
- Wheat, barley spread through Africa from the Middle East
 - Crops spread through Afro-Eurasia from the Middle East in general
 - Wheat, barley spread to north China from the Middle East
 - Rice spread to India from Southeast Asia
 - Bananas, rice, yams spread to southern Africa from Southeast Asia
 - Breadfruit spread to Oceania from Southeast Asia

Social Stratification

- Hierarchies are systems of ranking social classes
- Social mobility is how difficult it is to move from one class to another
- Caste systems are hierarchies with no social mobility
- Trends during earlier periods of history:
 - Rigid social stratification
 - Religion justifies hierarchies
 - Elite classes were small but enjoyed legal and financial benefits
 - Status is almost always hereditary

Gender Inequality

- Patriarchalism tended to be the norm
- Reinforced by gender inequality and gender division of labor
- Gender division of labor started as early as the Stone Age
- Tasks assigned by sex among hunter-foragers due to basic physical differences
- Distinctions sharpened among pastoralists and especially agriculturalists
- Regulation of conduct include veiling in public, harsher penalties for adultery, limited property rights, foot binding (China), and the sati ritual (Hindu)

Coerced Labor

- Bottom of the hierarchy
- People become slaves due to becoming prisoners of war, raid captives, debt slaves and indentured servants
- Slave status was sometimes hereditary
- Debt slavery and indentured servitude put people to work for owners who paid money or taxes they owe
- Slaves were owned and traded privately or belonged to the state
- Tasks include mining construction, agricultural fieldwork, household tasks
- Serfdom compelled peasants to labor for owners of the land they lived on
- Some prisons have convict labor policies

Humans and the Environment

Human Technology and Activity

- Hunting and foraging, pastoralism
- Agriculture caused artificially selected plants and animals to dominate many regions and led to forest clearing and irrigation (systems of water management)

- Engineering projects (swamp dredging, dam building, canal digging, road building, urban planning)
- Resource extraction (mining, hunting, fishing)

Environmental Effects

- Erosion
- Deforestation
- Species extinction
- Desertification
- Soil depletion
- Diversion of waterways

Migration

- "Out of Africa" thesis states that humans began as hunter-forager groups in Africa (ca. 100,000 years ago)
 - Left Africa for the Middle East and the rest of Eurasia
 - Settlers from Southeast Asia reached Australia and other parts of Oceania (ca. 50,000 years ago)
 - Eurasian hunters moved into the Americas through the Bering land bridge, which spanned Siberia and Alaska during periods of heavy glaciation (ca. 15,000 years ago)
 - By Neolithic Revolution, humans have settle in all but the most inhospitable places in the globe (8000 BCE)
- Indo-European pastoralists from Central Asia spread to the rest of Eurasia (ca. 1000 BCE)
- Asiatic steppe nomads (Huns) disrupt classical empires (Rome, Han China, Gupta India)
- Germanic tribes and Viking raiders place pressure on Rome and early Medieval Europe (300-1000 CE)
- Bantu migrations ranged throughout much of Africa (1500 BCE-1000 CE)
 - Most present-day Africans are descendents of these people
- Mammoth Polynesian migrations settled through the Pacific (1500 BCE-1200 CE)

Agriculture

- Sugar
 - Arised from New Guinea
 - Extracted from cane and crystallized in India (500 BCE-500 CE)
 - Spread to China and the Middle East (500 BCE-500 CE)
 - Arrived in Europe in large scale as a result of the Crusades (after 1000 CE)
- Bananas and citrus
 - Originated in Southeast Asia
 - Reached the Middle East, the Mediterranean, and Africa by 600s-700s CE
- Cotton
 - Grown in India (2000-1000 BCE)
 - Spread throughout Afro-Eurasia
 - Arose independently in the Americas
- Champa rice
 - Drought-resistant
 - Grew fast enough for two harvests per year
 - Originated in Vietnam
 - Imported from Southeast Asia to China and East Asia
- Coconut palm
 - Spread through Oceania due to Polynesian migrations

Endemic: persistently native to a particular region

Epidemic: regional or transregional in scope

Pandemic: global in scope

Pathogens: smallpox, measles, bubonic plague, malaria, yellow fever, sleeping sickness, cholera, typhus

Unit 1: 1200-1450

Governance (1200-1450)

Classical regimes collapsed (ca. 200-1000 CE)

- New regimes borrowed some of the old states' traditions and methods of governance (Byzantium, post-Han dynasties)
- Decentralization and rise of feudalism (Medieval Europe, Japan)
- Dramatically new forms of governance (Islamic caliphates, Mongol khanates, city-state systems in East Africa, Southeast Asia, the Americas, and Italy)

State-Building in Afro-Eurasia: Tradition and Innovation

Medieval Europe and Byzantium

- Rulers of Medieval Europe were heavily influenced by Roman culture and civilization long after its fall (476 CE)
 - Considered a political ideal of unified and centralized rule
 - Roman law (Justinian law code compiled in Byzantium during the 500s in particular) influenced Western legal thought
 - Latin remained a common language for educated classes
 - Christianity (adopted by Rome in the 300s CE) became a major cultural, intellectual, and political force
- Byzantium in the east enjoyed wealth, cultural advancement, and a high degree of centralization, while the rest of Europe lived in more backwards times
 - Early Middle Ages (ca. 500-1000) had political decentralization and constant military threat
 - High Middle Ages (ca. 1000-1300) was an era of cultural, economic, and political revival
 - Late Middle Ages (ca. 1300-1500) led to even greater centralization, but also constant warfare, social unrest, and crises (Black Death)
 - Italy enjoyed the Renaissance during the Late Middle Ages
- After Rome's collapse, no one empire or kingdom came to conquer Western or Central Europe
 - Small and short-lived kingdoms rose and fall
 - Decentralized and lacked money, military strength, and administrative tools to govern their lands and fight off migrating barbarians and Muslim invaders
 - Feudalism began by the 700s, particularly in the Frankish kingdom that spawned Charlemagne's empire, and was a partial compromise that helped aid centralization
 - The system of feudalism was where monarchs awarded land to vassals, who in turn could subinfeudate (subdivide) their land and have their own vassals
 - In return, vassals guaranteed that their fiefs (parcels of land) would be governed, that law and justice would be dispensed, that crops would be grown, and that the land would be protected
 - Vassals with the largest fiefs became the noble (aristocratic) class
 - The obligations between lord and vassal were formal and contractual, unlike in Japanese feudalism, where it was based on an abstract sense of loyalty
- Key functions of the feudal system were military and manorialism
 - Vassals fought as knights (elite armoured cavalry) and recruited foot soldiers from their land
 - Knighthood required lifelong training and wealth
 - The code of chivalry was supposed to ensure that knights acted as virtuous Christian warriors, dealing fairly with lower classes and treating women with delicacy and respect
 - Manorial system relied on the labor of serfs, who spent certain number of days per month working directly for their lord and also owed their lord a portion of their own crop and livestock
 - Serfs were peasants (not technically slaves) who were tied to a feudal lord's land and did not have the right to change profession or residence without permission
- Frankish monarch Charlemagne (768-814) was an early successful state-builder
 - Defeated Muslims, Vikings, barbarians
 - Sponsored education and culture
 - Created a network of administration and local officials to supervise territories
 - Laid the foundation for the Holy Roman Empire
 - Empire split by grandsons

- During the Middle Ages, European rulers legitimated their power by associating with the Catholic Church and harking back to the Rome as an effective government to imitate
 - Much of the need for centralizing further had to do with continued struggles against other civilizations (Muslim forces, Vikings)
 - Centralization began at different paces and to different extents
 - There were underlying power tensions between monarchs (who preferred centralization) and their nobles (who wished to preserve their feudal powers and privileges)
 - European Monarchs also had to deal with the Catholic papacy

Western Europe

- England and France were the most stable states in Western Europe at this period
 - Royal families intertwined due to the Norman Conquest of 1066
 - Brought French-style feudalism to England and fused Latin-based culture with the Celtic and Anglo-Saxon traditions already present in the British Isles
- Unusually, England achieved a high degree of centralization while severely restricting the power of the king
 - Barons forced the king to sign the Magna Carta in 1215, which guaranteed the nobility several rights and privileges
 - Parliament was formed by the nobility in the 1200s, which passed laws in conjunction with the king and gradually became more representative
 - System of common law in the 1200s began providing for jury trials and observing several liberties
- In contrast, the Capetian kings of France, who ruled from Paris, centralized the nation by increasing their own power. This was more typical.
 - Conquered large and economically important areas during the High and Late Middle Ages that either wished to remain independent (Burgundy, parts of the south) or were under English rule (Normandy, Aquitaine)
 - Did not share power with the common folk or nobility
- Hundred Years' War (1337-1453)
 - Last conflict between France and England that dealt with territory claims on French land
 - Coincided with social unrest on both sides and the Black Death
 - England enjoyed the upper hand in the beginning
 - France eventually won, thanks to the efforts of Joan of Arc
 - French victory further boosted centralization of power for their kings

Southern and Central Europe

- Other important but less centralized states appeared in Southern and Central Europe
- The Holy Roman Empire was a multicultural monarchy founded in the 900s by Charlamagne's heirs
 - Sprawled across the middle of Europe
 - Ethnically diverse (Germanic, Slavic, Hungarian, Italian)
 - Patchwork of dozens of duchies, kingdoms, and principalities (almost 200 of them in the 1300s)
- The emperor of the Holy Roman Empire was comparatively weak, despite the vast size of the state
 - Clashed often with the pope even though they are supposed to work in partnership together
 - Position was not hereditary—the empire's leading noble families choose the next emperor
 - Habsburg family gained permanent imperial control in 1438
- Northern Italy was controlled by the Holy Roman Empire, while parts of the south were conquered and reconquered by various entities (French, Spanish, Muslim, Byzantine, Viking). Areas that remained free were city-states.
 - Very urbanized
 - Influential in the Mediterranean trade network
 - Economically prosperous and culturally dynamic
 - Birthplace of the Renaissance in the late 1200s and early 1300s
 - Chief city-states were Florence, Venice, Milan in the north and Naples in the south
 - Also included Rome, heart of the Papal States
- Spain and Portugal were conquered by the Moors (Muslim invaders) during the 700s

- Known as al-Andalus (Islamic Spain and Portugal)
- Moors brought science, technology, Greek philosophy, and Moorish art and architecture
- Both countries spent most of the Middle Ages locked in a long war, or the Reconquista (early 1000s-1492), against Moorish armies
- Pushed Moors into Granada (southernmost part of Spain) by late 1200s
- Caused Spanish and Portuguese Catholics to hold intense religious hostility against Muslims and Jews
- Spain delayed centralization and had regional autonomy
- Around half a dozen separate kingdoms resisted full centralization until the 1400s

Byzantium

- Byzantium, or the Eastern Roman Empire, was the strongest and most advanced state in Medieval Europe
 - Constantinople (capital) sat at the crossroads between Europe and Asia and housed a million people at its peak
 - Played a role in Mediterranean trade, Silk Road commerce, and indirectly affected the Indian trade network
 - Emperor used Eastern Orthodoxy to justify rule
 - Large and elaborate bureaucracy (holdover from the days of Rome) administered and supervised territory
 - Seljuk Turks defeated Byzantium in the battle of Manzikert (1071) and set in process the empire's steady territorial decline
 - Ottoman Turks, thanks to effective deployment of gunpowder weaponry, captured Constantinople and defeated the Byzantine state (1453)
- While Eastern Orthodox doctrine supported the rule of Byzantine emperors, Roman Catholicism promoted the power of the church separately from state political power
 - Both strictly controlled art, music, architecture, literature
 - Both strove for political power
 - Orthodox doctrine of caesaropapism held the Byzantine emperor up as the supreme authority over worldly and spiritual affairs alike
 - Orthodox Church was in a weak position when it quarreled with the emperor
 - Catholic Church promoted the ideal of Christendom (concept of Europe as a single civilization, joined by a common allegiance to the Catholic Church)
 - During the High Middle Ages, argued that the pope's political authority should be higher than that of any monarch's
 - Owned vast amounts of land and had the power to collect tithes (tax) from the general population
 - Pope determined what was heresy, had the power to excommunicate (exclude worshippers from the Catholic Church) and declare crusades (holy wars), and influenced how European monarchs ruled their nations
 - Established Holy Inquisition in 1231, a set of special courts that sought out and punished unconformity

Interregional Contact and Conflict: The Crusades

- Aimed to convert nonbelievers to Catholicism (Teutonic Knights' crusades in Eastern Europe), crush Christian sects the pope considered heretical (French kings' wars on independent regions in the south), and combat non-Christian foreigners (Spain's anti-Muslim Reconquista)
- "The Crusades" (1095-1291) were those waged against Middle Eastern and North African Muslims
- The First Crusade (1096-1099) were sparked by Byzantine requests for aid against the Seljuk Turks
 - Turks destroyed Byzantine forces at Manzikert (1071) and gone on to capture Jerusalem and the Holy Land
 - Thousands of knights motivated by religious fervor, racial prejudice, and greed
 - Gathered at Constantinople and drove south to capture and besiege Jerusalem in the summer of 1099
 - Butchered thousands of Muslim and Jewish civilians in the process
 - Cemented military and economic process in the Middle East by establishing a series of Latin Kingdoms in the Mediterranean's eastern shores
- Initial success due to lack of unity among Arabs, Turks, and other Muslims
 - Weakened Abbasids and political rivals could not organize effective resistance

- Improved later on—crusades that followed were mainly in response to major Muslim victories
- Kurdish general Saladin recaptured Jerusalem in 1187 and held back the Third Crusade (1189-1212)
- After 1200, the crusades lost focus (Fourth Crusade of 1202-1204 turned into a Venetian-backed trade war against Christian Constantinople, which was sacked) or failed miserably (Children's Crusades)
- Latin Kingdoms steadily declined until the last major outpost was abandoned in 1291
- Long-term effects include: worsening relationship between European Christians and Middle Eastern Muslims, greater awareness of the east among Europeans, increased desire for economic wealth that could be gained by greater interaction with the Middle and Far East, technology transfer (castle architecture, Chinese innovations the Middle East imported)
- The crusading ideal (notion that Christian knights were fighting on behalf of a sacred cause) contributed to the myth of knightly chivalry
- Castle-building in Medieval Europe improved after 1100 as the Crusades against the Middle East exposed them to the military architecture of the Islamic world
 - Muslim armies used stone construction
 - European states had built castles mainly with wood
 - Imported architectural designs

The Middle East

- Prior to 600 CE, the dominant civilizations in the Middle East were the Byzantine Empire and Persia
- Islam spread through Arabia and beyond during the 600s and 700s
 - Spain, most of North Africa, virtually all of the Middle East, and parts of Central Asia came under Islamic rule
 - Destroyed Persia and threatened Byzantium
- Islamic theology divided the world into Dar al-Islam ("house of peace"), where Sharia law was dominant and Muslims were guaranteed the ability to worship freely, and Dar al-Harb ("house of war"), where Islam was not established
 - Muslim authorities viewed it as their duty to expand Dar al-Islam
- While most people who fell under Muslim rule converted to Islam, territorial and economic control (not conversion for its own sake) were the main aim of these wars
 - Muslims insisted on political submission and did not extend full rights of equal treatment to non-Muslims, but generally did not force them to change their faith
- The caliph ("successor") had a combination of political and religious power and governed the Muslim world
- The circle of justice predated Islam but nevertheless guided the caliphates and Ottoman Empire that followed them
 - Ruler gives justice to the people
 - People pay taxes to the treasury
 - Treasury ensures that army receives its salary
 - Army allows ruler to give justice to the people (and exercise sovereignty)

Early Caliphates

- First caliphs (including Mohammed's father-in-law Abu Bakr) ruled from Medina and presided over early expansion of Islam
- After the Sunni-Shiite split (656-661), power passed to the Umayyad Caliphate (661-750), who governed from the Syrian city of Damascus
 - Continued Islam's military expansion
 - Made Arabic the official language of the Muslim world
 - Started practice of imposing jizya (tax) on dhimmi (non-Muslims)
 - Toppled by a series of rebellions

Abbasid Caliphate

- Abbasid Caliphate (750-1258) followed and established a capital at Baghdad
 - Presided over the golden age of classical Islamic culture
 - Built many libraries and madrasas (centers of learning)

- Most famous of the Abbasid caliphs was Haroun al-Rashid (776-809)
- Up through the 800s, the Abbasid caliphs were strong and led a time of economic prosperity
 - Applied military force when necessary but mostly provided peace and stability across the Islamic empire
 - Abbasid trade networks linked the Middle East with Europe, Africa, the Indian Ocean, and Asia
 - Commerce stimulated by the creation of a single currency and the rise of credit
 - Manufacturers were highly skilled and particularly good with working steel
- Abbasid political unity began disintegrating in the 900s due to geographic overextension, ethnic and cultural diversity (Sunni-Shiite split), and hostile nomadic movements
 - Persia, Syria, Egypt, and Spain slipped in and out of Abbasid rule
 - Baghdad fell to the Seljuk Turks in 1055, although the caliph was kept as a figurehead
 - European Crusades (1095-1291) wreaked havoc on the Middle East
 - Mongols captured Baghdad in 1258 and killed the last Abbasid caliph
- There was political confusion in the Middle East between the 1000s and 1300s
 - Seljuk Turks damaged Byzantium at the 1071 battle of Manzikert
 - Entire region besieged by the Crusades
 - Mamluk (elite cavalry) state emerging in Egypt and Syria in the 1250s
 - Mongols arriving in force in the mid-1200s
 - Arrival of the Black Death from China in the early 1300s

Ottoman Turks

- The Ottoman Turks settled in Asia Minor and founded their own state under Osman I (1299-1326)
 - Ottoman sultans claimed the status of caliphs
 - Gained hegemony (dominance) over the Middle East and moved in southeastern Europe and the eastern Mediterranean
 - Relied on the devshirme system, which forcibly recruited boys from non-Muslim families and placed them in positions of privileged servitude, to ensure the loyalty and trustworthiness of their soldiers and civil servants
 - Worked as bureaucrats, clergy, janissary troops (elite infantry units that formed the sultan's household troops, bodyguards, and the first modern standing army in Europe)
 - Loyalty owed directly and solely to the sultan
 - Armies of Mehmet II made effective use of gunpowder artillery to bring about the fall of Constantinople in 1453

Africa

- Chief distinction between major societies was whether they adopted Islam or not
 - Strongest and richest civilizations tended to
 - Some areas incorporated into Dar al-Islam by force
 - Some conversions proceeded peacefully, facilitated by trans-Saharan trade or Indian Ocean commerce along Africa's east coast

North Africa

- Most of North Africa (Egypt to Morocco) converted rapidly and came under the authority of the caliphates until the Abbasid collapse, before joining with the Ottoman Empire later on
- Mamluk sultanate in Egypt and Syria was a formidable military power
 - Founded in the 1250s by elite soldiers who had formerly served the Abbasids
 - Conquered by Ottomans in the early 1500s
- By the 1000s and 1100s, Islam took root in not just the Sahara, but sub-Saharan Africa
 - Impacted by the southward and westward penetration of Arab traders
 - Byproduct was the significant expansion of the Arab slave trade

West Africa

- Berbers were nomadic camel herders and hardened warriors who embraced Islam with great enthusiasm
 - Carried out conversion in West Africa

- Almoravids (Berber clans) from Marrakesh (present-day Morocco) extended Muslim authority far to the south
- West Africa was home to powerful Hausa kingdoms, located between Lake Chad and the Niger River
 - Heavily involved in the region's salt trade
 - Most dominant politically were the Mande-speaking states closer to the Atlantic, such as Ghana
- Before 1200, Ghana played a prominent role in trans-Saharan commerce
 - Large deposits of gold
 - Both welcomed Muslim traders and had many of its people personally convert
 - State's failure to officially convert triggered an invasion from the north by the Berbers in the late 1000s
 - Survived until the 1200s, when it was succeeded by Mali, another Mande state
- Mali was founded by the conquering prince Sundiata Keita (1235-1255) and was Islamized with less violence
 - Well positioned in the Niger River basin, an important north-south trading route
 - Contained plentiful gold and other precious metals
 - Also traded salt, ivory, animal skins, and slaves
 - Emerged as key point in the trans-Saharan trade network
 - Chief commercial and cultural hub (but not capital) was Timbuktu
 - Stopping point for caravans
 - Became a renowned center for Islamic scholarship and home to key mosques and madrasas
 - Good relations with Islamic and Berber states
 - Community of educated scholar who served as public servants
 - Weakened in the 1400s and 1500s due to foreign attacks
- Mansa Musa (1312-1337) was Mali's most powerful ruler and a devout Muslim
 - Centralized the government and expanded trade
 - During his Hajj (pilgrimage to Mecca) in 1324-1325, he brought so much gold that he single-handedly caused its devaluation in the Middle East

East Coast

- Swahili city-states in the shores of the east coast flourished between 1000-1500
 - Consisted of nearly forty autonomous urban centers sprinkled along 1,500 miles of coastline
 - Heavily involved in the Indian Ocean trade network
 - Multiethnic (Persians, Arabs, local Africans, migrants from India and Southeast Asia)
 - Islam played a prominent role and a few city-states came to be ruled by Arab sheiks (merchant families)
 - Key ports include Sansibar, Mogadishu, Mombasa, and Sofala
 - Arrival of European colonists and merchants in early 1500s changed region beyond recognition

Sub-Saharan Africa

- States in non-Islamic parts of sub-Saharan Africa include Great Zimbabwe, Kongo, Benin, Mutapa
- In sub-Saharan Africa, large and centralized political units developed later and more slowly than elsewhere
 - Incredibly diversity (more than two thousand languages and dialects, despite widespread Bantu heritage) encouraged development of small, distinct societies
 - Fluctuating climate and insect-borne diseases (malaria, yellow fever, sleeping sickness) impeded population growth

East Asia

China

- China alternated between periods of fragmentation and political unity after the Han dynasty's fall in 220 CE
 - Imperial collapse was not as traumatic as the fall of Rome
- Stability returned after the mid-500s, especially under the Tang dynasty (618-907)
 - Recentralized political system
 - Enlarged borders
 - Expanded the Grand Canal, which connected the Yellow and Yangtze Rivers
 - Built silk industry into a near global monopoly
 - Neglect of common people sparked uprisings and resulted into the Tang's collapse

- Fragmented into several states until the late 1200s, which included the Song Empire (960-1279)
 - Ruled east-central China from the Yellow River in the north to the Vietnamese border in the South
 - Defeat by the Jurchen in the 1120s forced the Song to withdraw into a much smaller southern state that survived until the Mongol conquest
 - Enjoyed population growth, increased urbanization, thriving trade
 - Port of Guangzhou, or Canton, became one of the world's busiest and most cosmopolitan
 - Key innovations include gunpowder, the magnetic compass, a form of moveable-type printing, paper money
 - Similar to Han and Tang predecessors, rulers subscribed to the mandate of heaven concept (the emperor's authority was divinely ordained, as long as he remained virtuous) and the hierarchical doctrine of Neo-Confucianism (commoners owed obedience to their superiors, who in turn owed them just treatment)
 - Continued to select scholar-officials using the civil service examination
- After the rise of Genghis Khan (early 1200s), Mongol armies moved into Chinese territories
 - Most of the west and north fell by the 1230s, but the Song Empire resisted
- Kublai Khan, one of Genghis Khan's grandsons finally conquered the Song Empire in 1271 and reigned until 1294
 - Established the Yuan Empire (1271-1368)
 - Established capital at Khanbaliq (present-day Beijing)
 - Called himself the Great Khan of the Mongols
 - Considered the first ruler in many centuries to have reunified China into a single state
 - Forced most of China's neighbors to pay tribute, but attacked Japan and Java without success
 - Adapted to the local ways: embraced Buddhism, made Mandarin Chinese the official language of the court
 - Rebuilt bureaucracy and economy
 - Repaired roads and canals, built new cities
 - Recovered Silk Road as a vital trading route and restored trade with the West
 - Hosted Marco Polo in the late 1200s
- After Kublai's death, the Yuan state collapsed
 - Lost 30-40% of population in the first round of the Bubonic Plague in the early 1300s
 - Resulted in economic decline
 - Red Turban revolts, a series of civil wars, broke out in the 1340s and led to the final rebellion that overthrew the Yuans
- Zhu Yuanzhang defeated the Yuan by capturing Khanbaliq in 1368 and became the Hongwu emperor (1368-1398)
 - Established the Ming dynasty (1368-1644), named after the Turban faction he had commanded
 - Changed the capital's name to Beijing
 - Later, the Yongle emperor (1403-1424), one of the Hongwu emperor's sons, built the Forbidden City in Beijing as the new seat of power
 - Along with sons, repaired damage and decentralized the administration
 - Population and economy rebounded
 - Ruthlessly purged anyone in the government suspected of disloyalty (around 100,000 killed in the process)
 - Paper money was seen as unreliable during the 1300s, so China came to rely heavily on silver currency (which crippled the Ming in later years)
- Early Ming rulers increased territory by outright conquering states or forcing them into tributary systems, which avoided direct takeover by allowing China to extort money from them and dictate policy
 - Had a large and mighty army
 - Navy only stood as a instrument of diplomacy and intimidation for a short time
- Admiral Zheng He made seven long voyages to Southeast Asia, India, the Middle East, and East Africa from 1405-1433
 - Expanded traded and shared knowledge of the outside world
 - Travelled with massive ships measuring 400 feet in length and carrying thousands of crew
 - Compelled fifty states and cities to pay tribute to his fleet

- After the Yongle emperor's death, Ming rulers lost interest in exploration and naval expansion
 - More preoccupied by the land-based threat of nomads in the north
 - Destroyed China's oceangoing fleet
 - Had the Ming continued to exploit their power at sea, China might have begun a wave of worldwide exploration and colonization, as the nations of Europe were on the verge of doing

Japan

- Like other parts of the Sinosphere (zone of Chinese cultural influence), Japan was deeply affected by China in its bureaucratic methods, legal principles, and religious and artistic life
- Japan was nearing the end of its own classical period, the Heian period (794-1185)
 - Named after the emperor's capital city (modern-day Tokyo)
 - Emperor was a symbolic figurehead
 - Chancellor (kwampaku), whose duty was to serve and protect the emperor, kept the emperor in seclusion and ruled in his name
- Fujiwara clan gained permanent control over the chancellorship and became Japan's ruling family from the mid-800s to the mid-1100s
 - Presided over a prosperous and artistically brilliant society
 - Pursuit of cultural refinement and preoccupation with court politics caused them to neglect military affairs, which were delegated to other clans
 - Clans quarreled among themselves and with the Fujiwara during the early 1100s
 - Led to the Taira-Minamoto war (1156-1185) in which each side supported a rival claimant to the emperor's throne
 - The Minamoto drove the Fujiwara from power, defeated the Taira, and created the shogunate form of government
- The Minamoto victory marked Japan's transition into medieval feudalism
 - Emperor retained symbolic importance but the real power rested with the shogunate ("great general")
 - Shogun shared power with daimyo (noble warlords) who received control over shoen (parcels of land)
 - Both belonged to the samurai class (elite warriors) who were bound by a strict code of loyalty, honor, and bravery called Bushido ("way of the warrior")
 - Bushido was even more stringent and hierarchical than the code of chivalry
 - Most extreme penalty for violating it was seppuku or hara-kiri (ritual suicide)
 - Adherence to Bushido governed the relationship between lord and vassal, as opposed to the more formal contracts used in Europe
- The Kamakura shogunate regime ruled between the late 1100s to the 1330s
 - Kept order in Japan and drove off Kublai Khan's two attempts to invade from China
- The Ashikaga shogunate regime followed and lasted until the late 1500s
 - Weaker than the Kamakura shoguns
 - Allowed greater centralization
- A combination of civil wars and peasant revolts erupted in the mid-1400s and led to almost complete disunity by the 1500s
- Japan only reunifies in the late 1500s and early 1600s

Interregional Contact and Conflicts: The Mongol Khanates

- The Mongols were nomadic horse warriors united in 1206 by Genghis Khan
 - Originated from the Central Asiatic steppes
 - Semi-unified Eurasia in the 1200s, otherwise known as the Pax Mongolica ("Mongol peace")
 - Facilitated the transfer of technologies, scientific and medical knowledge, cultural practices, and trade goods across Eurasia (particularly on the Silk Road) during the 1300s-1400s, even after the empire broke down into separate khanates
- The first round of Mongol conquests, led by Genghis Khan, ended with his death in 1227
 - Left the Mongols in charge of Mongolia, much of China, and parts of Central Asia (including the city of Samarkand)
- By the mid-1200s, Genghis Khan's heirs have greatly increased his empire

- Absorbed parts of Eastern Europe (Russia, Ukraine), portions of the Middle East, and all of China
- Destroyed the Song dynasty in China, the Abbasid Caliphate, and the Kievan city-state confederacy in Russia
- Westward drive was halted by the Teutonic Knights and Hungarians in Eastern Europe and by the Mamluk cavalry in Syria at the 1260 battle of Ain Jalut
- The Mongols were often stereotyped as barbaric and bloodthirsty (200,000 were killed in the conquest of Baghdad); even so, they possessed a great deal of administrative sophistication
 - Organized army into decimally based units
 - Quickly learned and implemented military techniques (siegecraft)
 - Cultural borrowers: adopted Uighur as a written script from the Turks, took paper money and law code (yasa) from China, embraced Buddhism or Islam depending on where they settled
 - Created one of the most efficient postal services (yam) at that time using their horse-riding expertise
 - Conscripted or enslaved people with the skills they needed
- Nevertheless, Mongols were better at conquering than governing—“One can conquer an empire on horseback, but one cannot govern it from there.”
- Mongke, Genghis’s grandson, was the last khanate to rule over a united Mongol state
 - After his death in 1260, the empire’s four largest units became independent khanates following a short civil war
 - Kublai Khan (1260-1294 as Great Khan, 1271 forward as Yuan emperor) took the homeland (Mongolia, Yuan China)
 - The Golden Horde kept Russia under its yolk until the mid-1400s
 - Il-Khan Mongols converted to Islam and ruled much of the Middle East until the rise of the Ottoman Turks
 - Jagatai Khanate governed Central Asia into the 1400s, also becoming Muslim
- Jagatai khan Timur (Tamerlane) attempted to repeat the military triumphs of Genghis Khan from 1370-1405
 - Moved into Persia, southern Russia, parts of the Middle East, and northern India
 - Expansion ceased after his death
 - Descendents continued ruling Central Asia until the 1500s

South Asia

India

- As China did in East Asia, India had tremendous cultural and religious influence in South and Southeast Asia
 - Spread Hinduism and Buddhism
 - Created the (wrongfully named) Arabic numerals and introduced the concepts of zero and pi
- Different from China in that there was a lack of political unity and centralization
 - Collapse of the Gupta Empire in 500s CE, which had ruled over north-central India
 - Only a quiltwork of small city-states and kingdoms throughout India and the neighboring island of Sri Lanka
- Muslim invaders captured Delhi and established the Delhi Sultanate (1206-1526)
 - Previously had been battered away at the northwestern frontier since the 900s
 - Moved into much of northern India
 - Expanded to control what is now modern-day India and centralized it in the process (mid-1200s-mid-1300s)
 - First Delhi sultans introduced Islam to India by imposing on the populace harshly
 - Although they became less severe over time, division and tension still characterized the relationship between Hindus and Muslims long after
- States and cities in the South began to resist the Delhi Sultanate’s rule and break away in the 1300s
 - Included the Gujarat Sultanate in the west, one of the Islamic Rajput kingdoms
 - Rajput kingdoms were governed by leaders (both Hindu and Muslim) that claimed descent from old warrior castes
 - Most rebelling were Hindu states, like the Vijayanagara Empire, who retook much of the territory conquered in southern India’s Deccan plateau
 - Central Asian warlord Timur attacked from the north, and captured (1398) and plundered Delhi for a year
 - Delhi Sultanate shrank until it succumbed itself to new invaders in the 1520s

- What became of Indian society was highly divided by religious and cultural differences
 - Hindus maintained their caste systems and practices like the sati ritual
 - Muslim minorities were not always well treated
 - Muslims sometimes imposed the jizya (non-believer's tax) on the Hindu majority and other non-Muslims
- Sri Lanka and the nearby southeastern tip of India also experienced their own political and religious tensions
 - Tamil-speaking Hindus, who were prevalent on the mainland, clashed with the devoutly Buddhist Sinhalese, the majority population on the island

Other Southeastern Civilizations (Indonesia, Cambodia, Java, Vietnam, Philippines)

- Prior to 1200, there were two major states governing over Southeast Asia
 - Mainland Khmer Empire (ca. 800-1450) in present-day Cambodia
 - Seaborne Srivijayan Empire (ca. 500-1000) in many of the Indonesian islands and parts of the Malay peninsula
 - Both were strongly influenced by Indian culture (like the Angkor Wat, the Khmer Empire's architectural masterpiece) and Buddhism and Hinduism
- Khmer Empire declined in strength relative to its neighbors in 1200-1500
 - Burma, Annam and Champa (Vietnam)
 - Sukhothai Kingdom (1238-1538), who was considered the ancestor of the modern Thai state, especially after its union with other Siamese states in the late 1400s and early 1500s
- In the south, naval power passed from the Srivijayan to the Majapahit Empire
 - Founded in Java by one of the military leaders who resisted Kublai Khan's assault on the island
 - Conquered or forced into tribute nearly a hundred islands and cities
 - Includes virtually all of modern Indonesia, parts of the Philippines, some of the Malay peninsula
 - Fusion of Hindu and Buddhist elements
 - Islam arrived in Java and Samatra in the 1200s and remained centrally important in modern-day Indonesia
- City-states still remained an important form of political organization
 - Melaka (Malacca), a Malaysian port, sat at a key choke point between the Indian and Pacific islands
 - Sultanate of Malacca (1400s) found support from China as a check on the maritime and economic power of Majapahit

Oceania

- Key development in Oceania was the end of the Polynesian migrations
 - Had proceeded since around 1000-900 BCE
 - Seeded islands of the east Pacific with human populations and new plants and animals
 - Settlement of the Maori people on the islands of New Zealand around 1200 CE completed this long process

State Formation in the Pre-Columbian Americas

Geographical isolation of the Americas from Afro-Eurasia continued until the end of the 1400s, with the arrival of Christopher Columbus

- The period before 1492 is referred to as the pre-Columbian era

North America

- Early natives tended toward nomadic lifestyles, and only a few regions became more settled and agriculturally successful
- Ancestral Puebloans (Anasazi) inhabited the Southwest (ca. 400-1300), although settlement in that region began in the 300s
 - Lived in pueblos (complex dwellings)
 - Some are built on mesas or in caves high up in the canyons (Chaco, Mesa Verde)
- Mississippian Civilization (ca. 700-1500) emerged in the Ohio and Mississippi River valleys to the north and east
 - Most advanced of those earth mound-building cultures

- Built Cahokia, which had a population of over 30,000 (1000-1200) and was mysteriously abandoned after 1250 (may be due to deforestation and soil depletion)
- City was virtually empty by 1350
- Mississippian culture in general fell into a long decline
- As the Mississippian Civilization fell into decline, Native Americans began to form smaller hunter-forager groups that would later evolve into the major tribes that the Europeans would encounter in the 1500s

Mexico and Mesoamerica

- Many societies emerged from the religious and cultural foundations left by the Olmecs (lasted until ca. 400 BCE)
 - Shared religious practices centered on human sacrifice and the building of pyramids, which symbolized sacred mountains reaching the heavens but also rooted in the underworld
 - Aptitude for city-building (Tenochtitlan was one of the world's largest cities with a population of 200,000)
 - Intensive agriculture that made use of the limited space (swamp drainage, elaborate irrigation systems, terrace farming, chinampas (floating islands in shallow lakes))
 - Staple crops included beans, squash, maize (corn), and cacao (chocolate)
 - Lack of domestication of animals for food or labor
- The Mayan civilization emerged in present-day Guatemala and spread as far north as southern Mexico
 - Classical period lasted from 250-900 CE
 - Several cities (including Chichén Itzá) lasted into the 1200s and beyond
 - Mayans and their language have survived into the present
 - Divided into around forty city-states and kingdoms whose total population reached 3 million
 - Conflict among states and the enslavement of wartime captives was common
 - Practiced intensive agriculture
 - Most communities had little access to bodies of water and were forced to rely on a network of cenotes (limestone sinkholes)
 - Mayan kings served both as politicians and priests
 - Satisfied their gods (jaguar deities, winged serpent Quetzalcoatl) through human sacrifice
 - Built pyramids (famous ones found in Chichén Itzá)
 - Devised elaborate hieroglyphic script, which was the most advanced writing system in the pre-Columbian Americas
 - Understood concept of zero
 - Invented an accurate and intricate long-count calendar
 - Reasons for Mayan decline (abandonment of many cities between 800-900 BCE) remain a mystery, but theories include warfare, social unrest, nearby volcanic activity, drought (fragile cenote network) and resource depletion due to overuse of the land
- Increasingly warlike people filled the political vacuum left behind by the Mayans
 - Toltecs (ca. 800-1100) were an aggressive warrior society that ruled much of central Mexico
 - Nahuatl-speaking Aztecs (ca. 1200-1500), or Mexica, reached their military peak with a triple alliance that joined the cities of Texcoco and Tlacopan with Tenochtitlán (modern-day Mexico City)
- The Aztecs controlled a massive empire by the 1400s
 - Encompassed more than 125,000 square miles
 - Estimated population of 5-12 million people
 - Tenochtitlán was home to half a million and its marketplace alone could hold 60,000 people
 - Chinampa and other methods of intensive agriculture supported the vast populace
 - Benefited from an extensive network of roads
 - Adopted cultural and religious practice of pyramid-building and human sacrifice
 - Earned foodstuffs and gold by taxing subjects with a tributary system
 - Thrived until the arrival of the Spanish (early 1500s)
 - Hatred from taxed subjects caused a major vulnerability during the European invasion
 - Defeat of the Aztecs led to Spanish domination of Mexico and Central America until the 1800s

The Andes

- A number of societies achieved a high level of centralization and advancement in South America's Andes Mountains
 - Began with the Chavin (1000 BCE)
 - Includes the Moche (200-700 CE)
- Andean civilizations shared several common characteristics
 - Writing was unknown, but most used quipu (knot-tying method) to keep records
 - Social hierarchies assigned people to ayllu (clans) that owned land communally
 - Stringent mit'a system combined elements of serfdom and corvée labor
 - Compelled subjects to fulfill labor obligations for the elite, such as farming, tending llama and alpaca herds, or building roads and bridges
 - Relied on intensive farming techniques like hillside terracing and waru waru agriculture (planting seed in raised mounds, separated by furrows for drainage)
 - Chief crops included quinoa, potatoes, maize (corn)
 - Domesticated llamas and similar creatures (alpacas, vicuñas) for transport and wool
 - Coastal dwellers fished and contributed to commerce between the seashore and the mountain valleys
 - Trade with the Amazon water basin gave added access to fruit and other foodstuffs
- Chimú culture (ca. 900-1470) was built primarily on the foundations of the Moche
 - Capital at Chan Chan
 - Created the largest empire seen thus far in the Andes
 - Excellent infrastructure of roads and canals
 - Elaborate system of provincial administration
- The Incan empire (ca. 1300-1500) grew even more massive
 - Settled in the Cusco region in the 1200s and rapidly expanded in the 1300s and 1400s
 - Absorbed the Chimú by the mid-1400s
 - Stretched three thousand miles from the north to south
 - Extended from the Pacific coast in the west to the upper Amazon in the east
 - Large road network that measured more than 13,000 miles
 - Reached its zenith in the 1400s with 4-6 million subjects
 - Brought down in the 1500s by Spanish colonists, in part due to the underlying resentment among their exploited subjects
 - Complex bureaucracy and extreme social stratification legitimized by religious belief
 - Great Inca (ruler) was considered the descendent of the sun god
 - Looking at him directly was punishable by death
 - Legally owned all property in the Incan state
 - Incan sun worship also involved human sacrifice, especially in the key temples of Machu Picchu

Cultural Developments and Interactions (1200-1450)

- Global tendency towards greater interconnectedness through trade, migration, empire expansion
- Diffusion of religious practices, intellectual trends, and artistic and architectural styles
- Balance between cultural diffusion and independent innovation

Cross-Cultural Exchange and Cultural Growth

Systems of Regional or Interregional Interchange

- China's influence over East and Southeast Asia (Sinosphere): systems of writing (Chinese pictographs were incorporated into Korean and Japanese scripts) and religious beliefs, including Buddhism and Neo-Confucian principles of hierarchy and filial piety
- India's influence over South and Southeast Asia: fusion of Buddhism and Hinduism that can be found in famous places of worship like the Khmer complex of Angkor Wat and Indonesia's Borobudur temple
- pax Mongolica: established along the Silk Road by the Mongol khanates, facilitating economic, cultural, and technological diffusion

- Islam's influence over Africa: particularly influential in North and West Africa and along the eastern Swahili-speaking coast
- Islam's influence in Asia: most evident in Central Asia but reaching as far as India and Southeast Asia, where modern-day Indonesia contains the world's fourth largest Muslim population (both Persian and Arabic became influential in the cultural sphere that linked the Middle East with India)
- Mesoamerican and Andean cultural similarities: societies tended to pass on common fundamental features, either as they succeeded one another or coexisted

Cross-cultural Exchange of Languages

- Silk Road commerce helped spread the Turkic language throughout the Asiatic expanse between modern-day Turkey and Mongolia (Mongols adopted the Uighur script to provide their own language a written form)
- Expansion of Islam propelled Arabic and gave it a prominent cultural role in the Middle East, North Africa, and India
- Persian became similarly important throughout Islamic Eurasia
- The migration of the Bantu people throughout sub-Saharan Africa affected linguistic development
- Trade and the mixing of ethnicities (Africa, Arabia, Indian Ocean basin) in East Africa led to the creation of Swahili, which is the region's lingua franca

Lingua Franca

- Languages that allow communication between groups with very different native languages (Latin, Arabic, Swahili, Native American sign languages, English)
- Languages achieve the status of lingua franca for many reasons:
 - Shared religious language of ethnically different people
 - Most effectively facilitates trade in a multilingual region
 - Imposed by a military or imperial power (Spanish in Latin America, English in India)

Far From Home: Interregional Travelers

Marco Polo

- Merchant that travelled from Venice to Asia along the Silk Road (1271-1295)
- One of the first Europeans to cross the breadth of Eurasia
- Befriended Kublai Khan (according to Polo)
- Wrote an autobiography, Books of the Marvels of the World (The Travels of Marco Polo), that played a tremendous role to acquainting medieval and Renaissance Europeans to the cultural advancements of Asia
- Stroked the desire to travel to and trade with Asia
- Influenced Christopher Columbus

Rabban bar Sawma

- Monk that lived around 1220-1294
- Had a Central Asian Turkic background, lived in Yuan China, and followed Nestorian Christianity
- Trekking to Jerusalem and then France, seeking to form an alliance with Catholic monarch and crusaders against the Islamic states of the Middle East
- Negotiations came to nothing in the end

Ibn Battuta

- Islamic explorer from Morocco
- Began his hajj to Mecca in 1325 and did not return
- Launched a journey spanning almost 30 years and over 70,000 miles
- Visited most of Islamic Africa and the Middle East, and ventured through Central, East, and South Asia
- Kept a journal, Travels, that reveals the diversity of customs and cultural practices among Muslims
- Surprised at how different lifestyles can be among various people who are only joined together by allegiance to a common faith

Zheng He

- Chinese captain who took ships of the Ming navy on seven far-ranging voyages through the Indian and Pacific Oceans during the early 1400s

Old and New Traditions: Cultural Developments by Region

Medieval and Renaissance Europe

- Europe (aside from Byzantium) lagged behind Asia and Middle East in terms of cultural attainment; when it did move forward, it was largely due to outside forces
- Medieval period (Dark Ages) was generally seen as lacking in culture
 - Early Middle Ages (ca. 500-1000) were genuinely backward
 - High Middle Ages (ca. 1000-1300) witnessed substantial cultural advancement
 - Late Middle Ages (ca. 1300-1500) had the Renaissance in Italy
- Most important factor shaping Europe's medieval culture was the Christian Church
 - Preserved Greco-Roman manuscripts following the fall of Rome
 - Promoted Latin as an international language of learning (Western and Central Europe)
 - Introduced the ideal of Christendom where all European states were bound together by their allegiance to the Church
- The church split formally after the Great Schism of 1054, which divided Roman Catholicism (Latin based and governed by the Roman papacy) from Eastern Orthodoxy (Greek inspired and headed by the Byzantium). Nevertheless, both shared some similarities in shaping Europe's medieval period.
 - Provided the vast majority of employment opportunities for artists, architects, and musicians
 - Severely punished art, literature, and ideas that fell out of line with church doctrine
- Scholasticism was the dominant philosophy of the Middle Ages
 - Attempted to reconcile Greco-Roman thinking with Christian teachings
 - Adaption was limited because it was dangerous to accept Greco-Roman ideas that the Church objected
 - Most scholars were less familiar with Greek and only tended to learn about thinkers like Plato and Aristotle through Latin translations
 - Scientific thinking based on Greco-Roman ideas the Church found acceptable led to mistaken ideas (notably in medicine and astronomy), like the geocentric theory (the sun revolved around the earth)
- Europe made strides in cultural advancements
 - Castles and cathedrals had relatively simple Romanesque styles until the High Middle Ages, where they gave way for an ornate Gothic style
 - Icons (religious paintings) were inspired by Byzantine styles
 - Best-known form of church music was plainsong (Gregorian chant)
 - Secular music arose in the form of troubadour poems, which celebrated love, the code of chivalry, and adventuresome heroes (King Arthur and his knights)
- Learning and education were made more accessible
 - First universities were created to teach religion, medicine, and law
 - By the 1200s and 1300s, increased use of vernacular (native) languages for literature, instead of Latin
 - Includes Geoffrey Chaucer of England and Dante Alighieri of Italy
 - Stimulated growth in literacy
 - Literature became more available to the less educated
 - First cost-effective movable-type printing press developed by Johannes Gutenberg during the early 1400s
- By the late 1200s and early 1300s, certain parts of Europe began to experience the Renaissance (cultural rebirth). It became prevalent in the rest of Europe between the late 1400s and early 1600s.
- The Italian Renaissance began earlier than the rest of Europe and was prominent between the early 1300s and early 1500s
 - Prompted by trade-based economy, exposure to wider cultural influences through the Mediterranean, and growing familiarity with Greek science and philosophy thanks to cultural contacts with Jewish and Muslim counterparts in Muslim Spain
 - Cardinal principles were classicism (a greater emphasis on Greco-Roman thinking), secularism (more frequently writing or painting non-religious subjects, although church dictates still had to be respected), and humanism (concept that to be human is something to rejoice in)

- Humanism was derived from Greco-Roman culture and ran counter to the prevailing medieval view that to be human was to be tainted with sin and that the worldly life is less important than the heavenly afterlife
- Prominent figures include the writers Petrarch and Boccaccio, the political theorist Niccolò Machiavelli, and the artists Leonardo da Vinci and Michelangelo

Islam and the Middle East

- The Islamic golden age, under the Abbasid Caliphate (750-1258) was a time of artistic and intellectual sophistication
 - Cultural contacts of the Middle East and North Africa with Byzantium, China, and India were extensive
 - Developed algebra and popularized the use of Arabic numerals
 - Canon of Medicine by Persian physician Avicenna (Ibn Sina, 980-1037) remained the most authoritative medical text in the Middle East and Europe until the 1600s
- Similar to Christianity in medieval Europe, Islam decisively influenced cultural life in the caliphate
 - Muslim authorities determined what was acceptable art or literature
 - Islamic art tended to feature geometric patterns and shapes rather than human or animal figures because the Qur'an forbids the worship of graven images
 - Madrasas (religious colleges) were centers of learning
 - Similarly to scholasticism, the main point of Islamic philosophy was to investigate the relationship between human reason and religious faith
 - Averroës (1126-1198), a doctor from Muslim Spain, translated and analyzed the works of Aristotle, which was a key step in reintroducing his ideas to medieval Europe as a whole
 - Also from Muslim Spain, Jewish thinker Maimonides (1135-1204) wrote Guide to the Perplexed, which attempted to reconcile Greco-Roman thought with Jewish theology
- Islamic architecture included the Topkapi Palace in Istanbul, built in the mid-1400s by Ottoman sultan Mehmet II in celebration of his 1453 conquest of Constantinople
- Key centers of learning included Timbuktu (Mali) and the universities in Fez and Cairo that dated back to the ninth and tenth centuries
- The House of Wisdom was founded in Baghdad by the Abbasid Caliphate and contained a grand collection of manuscripts
 - Was a vital center for scholarly translation work until its destruction by Mongols during their 1258 sack of Baghdad
 - Uncertainty remains about its exact functions, the degree to which it was open to the public, and the size of its library
- Similarly to Latin, Arabic was both a holy language and a scholarly language used in cultural and intellectual life. It was joined by Persian starting in the 800s and 900s.
- Classics of Islamic writing from this period include:
 - Ibn Battuta's Travels
 - The Thousand Nights and a Night (The Arabian Nights) which included the tales of Sinbad the Sailor, Ali Baba, and Aladdin
 - Mathematician and astronomer Omar Khayyán's Rubaiyat, which was a collection of bittersweet, meditative poems composed in the early 1100s
 - Sufi poet Rumi's verses during the 1200s, which expressed the ideas of Sufism (a mystical strain of Islam that emphasizes union with Allah by means of spiritual exercises like chanting and dancing)

Africa

- Islamic culture powerfully shaped cultural life in many parts of Africa
 - North Africa and many parts of the Sahara came under caliphate rule
 - Islam came to West African states (Mali) and blended with traditions in the east coast (Swahili ports)
 - Bulk of sub-Saharan Africa was less influenced by Islam
- African artists produced intricate beadwork, bold and colorful textiles, and masterful carvings and sculptures made up of ivory, wood, and metal
 - Benin bronzes and other metalworks from West Africa are particularly renowned
- Architecture varied from region to region due to different cultural influences, from Islamic to indigenous

- Mud-and-timber constructions of West Africa (exemplified by the Sankore Mosque in Timbuktu) blended Islamic influences with native styles
- Architecture in Zanzibar, in the east coast, stands out due to the use of coral
- Great Zimbabwe had an imposing stone walls that enclosed the city
- African literature was preserved through oral tradition
 - Griots (storytellers) chronicled history and social custom and also acted as entertainers and advisors
 - Most famous African epic was the Sundiata from Mali in the 1300s, which was named after the chieftain who founded the Mali state and chronicled his many exploits

Asia and Oceania

China

- During the Song dynasty and again in the Ming dynasty (1368-1644), there was a revival of Confucian thought called Neo-Confucianism
 - Reinforced China's cultural tendency toward hierarchy, filial piety, and obedience
 - Served as an unifying factor in the politically divided China during the Song dynasty
 - Justified the rule of Ming emperors
 - Principles tested on the civil service examinations
- Around 600 CE, a new form of Buddhism, Ch'an (Zen in Japan) emerged from China
 - Stressed simplicity and meditation
 - Became popular both in China and abroad
- China's emperors were generous cultural patrons
 - Interacted the the Abbasid Caliphate and influenced neighbors like Japan, Korea, and Vietnam
- The Ming dynasty was a time known for its cultural grandeur and intellectual dynamism
 - Forbidden City, erected in Beijing in the early 1400s, served as a seat of government and as a display of power
 - Key works include The Golden Lotus, a novel about a wicked landowner
 - Produced silk, porcelain, and glassware
 - Scroll painting depicted landscapes and other scenes on vertical rolls of silk and paper

Japan

- Heian (794-1185) period marked a time of cultural brilliance and, after 1000, growing independence from Chinese influences
 - Religion shaped by the importation of Buddhism (through Korea) from China and to a lesser extent, Confucianism and Daoism, which coexisted with Shinto, Japan's native faith
 - Influenced by Chinese poetry, art, and architecture
 - Native cultural work includes Lady Murasaki's The Tale of Genji, a story of love and court life and considered by some to be the world's first true novel
- After the collapse of the Heian regime and the rise of medieval shogunate, artistic pursuits became less centrally important
 - Tales of the Meike describes the Taira-Minamoto war (1156-1185) that destroyed the Heian regime
 - New forms of Buddhism arrived, including Zen (emphasis on self-discipline appealed to the samurai elite) and Pure Land, or Jo Do (promised a heavenly afterlife and appealed to the lower classes)
 - Zen's philosophical simplicity influenced the cha-no-yu tea ceremony, landscaping (rock gardens and bonsai trees), and haiku poetry

Southeast Asia

- Key themes in the Indian subcontinent and the island chains of Southeast Asia include the cultural fusion throughout the Indian Ocean basin and the wider regional impact of Buddhism and Hinduism
 - Angkor Wat is an ornate, forty-square-mile temple complex built by Cambodia's Khmer rulers
 - Imitation of architectural styles from southern India
 - Designed in the 1100s as a Hindu place of worship but was converted to use by Buddhists in the 1200s
 - Example of the intertwining of Buddhism and Hinduism

- Borobudur, a Srivijayan temple in the Indonesian temple of Java, is another monumental building dedicated to Indian Buddhism
 - Takes the shape of a mountain over a hundred feet high
 - Rises in levels, which represent a stage on the path to enlightenment
- Religious changes came to Southeast Asia in the 1200s
 - Arrival of Islam
 - Growing prominence of the Bhakti (“spiritual devotion”) movement within Hinduism
 - Emerged in southeast India in the 700s and 800s
 - Swept to the North after 1400
 - Placed less importance on the caste system and more focus on the worshiping of deities
 - Made Hinduism more theistic
 - Most popular sects are those dedicated to Vishnu (Vaishnavism) and Shiva (Shaivism)

Oceania

- Oceania was populated by the Polynesians, who migrated through the Pacific in their outrigger canoes
 - Blanketed much of the Pacific with polytheistic traditions
 - Focused on the avoidance of taboos (ritually forbidden behaviors)
- Australia’s Aboriginals followed a form of animism
 - Involved trying to enter and understand a transcendent spiritual state known as the dreamtime

The Americas

- Cultural life was unusual in that the wheel was essentially unknown, and systems of writing were rare

North America

- In North America, the principle way of life was hunting-foraging and practising animism
- Most advanced civilization was the Mississippian civilization (ca. 700-1500)
 - Practiced agriculture
 - Built cities as trading centers
 - Remembered for their earth mounds, which were raised for religious and ceremonial purposes

Mesoamerica

- Mesoamerica was home to high centralized and urban centers
 - Included the Mayans (peak period, 200s-900s) and Aztecs (1200s-1500s)
 - Built pyramids, including the Chichén Itzá by the Mayans and the pyramid of the Morning Star in the Toltec capital of Tula
- Aztecs came to dominate the region and adopted many of the past customs
 - Worshipped the same gods as the Mesoamericans who preceded them
 - Key were the sun god Huitzilopochtli, feathered serpent Quetzalacoátl, and the jaguar god
 - Practiced human sacrifice on a large scale because they believed that the sun only rose if reenergized by human blood
 - Victims included prisoners of war and ordinary Aztec subjects

Andes

- Andean society were the most centralized and stratified, particularly by the Incan era (1300s-1500s)
 - Relied on quipu to keep records and accounts
 - Constructed large cities, including the capital, Cusco (Cuzco) and the fortress and temple complex of Machu Picchu
 - Worshipped the sun god and other deities
 - Cusco’s Temple of the Sun was their largest place of worship
 - Laid out in the shape of a puma
 - Interior lined with gold
 - Staffed by thousands of aclas (“virgins of the sun”), who were young women chosen to serve as acolytes

Technology and Innovation (1200-1450)

- Factors (trade, migration, cross-regional conflict and cooperation) that drove cultural advancement also drove scientific and technological progress.
- Culture and technology are not easily separated or distinguished.

Science, Medicine, and Mathematics

Scientific Knowledge

- Most scientific knowledge was empirical (based on observation)
- It was passed on as a body or received and largely unchanging wisdom
- Largely did not involve theoretical thinking and use of the scientific method is left to debate
 - Greek philosopher Aristotle (384-322 BCE) and Persian physician-astronomer Avicenna pioneered rational inquiry based on observation
- New wave of scientific thinking in western Eurasia due to the interplay of Jewish, Muslim, and Christian intellectual trends
 - Greco-Roman thought was limited by Europe's comparative lack of fluency in Greek (as opposed to Latin) and the church's restriction
 - Muslim and Jewish scholars were much more familiar with Greek
 - Al-Andalus (Muslim Spain) or others began interacting with their Christian colleagues and exposing them more fully to Greek philosophy and science
 - Accelerated transition away from medieval scholasticism and paved way for the Renaissance

Astronomy

- Many cultures possessed an advanced knowledge of astronomy and calendar-making
 - Includes the Mayans in the Americas
 - Babylonian-Egyptian-Greeks set foundation for Islamic, European, and Indian scholars
 - Often linked to fortune-telling Astrology pseudoscience in Eurasia
- The flawed geocentric theory persisted everywhere because it rested on the intuitive assumption that the sun revolved around the earth
 - Cemented by unquestioning acceptance of ancient authorities (Ptolemy) in Europe and the Islamic world

Medicine

- Physicians in many societies possess a high degree of surgical skill and anatomical knowledge
 - Anatomical knowledge was less common due being illegal or forbidden on religious grounds
- Greek scientist Galen was the most respected in the Western and Mediterranean world
 - Work contained many mistakes that were replicated by students and followers
- Persian scholar Avicenna (Ibn Sina, 980-1037) wrote the Canon of Medicine
 - Marked a significant advancement in medical knowledge between the Greco-Roman era and the European Renaissance
 - More accurate and showed a greater willingness to test Galen's ideas by means of observation and experimentation
- Chinese traditional medicine (heavily influenced by Dao) and India's yogic disciplines appeared in East and South Asia

Mathematics

- Mathematical writings from India and ancient Greece were invaluable in advancing knowledge in Afro-Eurasia
- Muslim scholars popularised the use of Arabic numerals and formalizing algebra

Key Technologies

- Most technologically adept civilization was China, followed by the Middle East
- Chinese inventions were flowing through Eurasia
- Medieval Renaissance set the groundwork for the Western world's later technological superiority
- In Americas, level of technological advancement remains lower because of environmental and structural reasons

Chinese Inventions

- Accurate water clocks
 - Celestial clock of Su Song (1088) was an 80-foot tower that used a chain-driven mechanism (powered by flowing water) to tell the time of the day, the day of the month, the position of the sun, and the positions of the sun, moon, planets, and major stars
- Paper currency ("flying cash")
- Gunpowder
 - Revolutionized warfare when it reached Europe and the Middle East in the 1200s and 1300s
 - Chinese were slower to adopt gunpowder weaponry
- Magnetic compass
 - See [Innovations in Transport](#)
- Methods of printing
 - Block-printing (200s CE) was costly and time-consuming and could only print one text or image
 - Bi Sheng invented movable-type printing (1000s, Song dynasty), which involved individual, rearrangeable blocks in a frame

European Inventions

- Movable-type printing was less effective in Asian civilizations
 - Chinese used expensive and fragile ceramics, but Koreans created cheaper and more durable metal tablets
 - Asian languages had too many characters to be truly effective
- German inventor Johannes Gutenberg created the first easily workable and cost-effective movable-type printing press in the 1430s
 - Small number of letters in the latin alphabet made it easy to mass-produce texts
 - Explosive effect on literacy rate, the speed at which information spread, the impact of new ideas and scientific theories, and the expansion of libraries and universities
 - Large role in European Renaissance and Protestant Revolution

Innovations in Transport

- Improvements in geographical knowledge (reliable maps, better weather predictions), along with technology, made trade and travel easier

Overland Transport

- Required more time and effort, but was less costly
- Only way to travel to places far from rivers and coastlines
- Subject to banditry and political disruption
- Depended on domesticated pack animals
 - Eurasia utilized horses and oxen, which could carry heavier loads
 - Americas used llamas, which were suited to the Andes and other mountains
 - Camels were vital in the Sahara, the Middle East, and along the Silk Road
- Wheeled vehicles (carts, wagons) were helpful on roads and flat land, but could not travel over rough terrain
- Caravans: large processions of pack animals or wheeled vehicles

Water Transport

- Generally easier and preferable to land transport, although it was more costly
- Not restricted to coastal navigation thanks to changes in maritime technology
 - Astrolabe measured the sun's position in the sky to calculate latitude and came into use on the seas in the 700s
 - Magnetic compass was invented in China during the 1000s and reached the Middle East and Europe during the late 1100s and early 1200s
- Coastal navigation ships:

- Galley, used in the Mediterranean, was powered by oars and had a small square sail whose rigging did not permit heading into the wind
- Open-water navigation ships:
 - Dhow, invented by Arabs in the Red and Arabian seas, was constructed more sturdily (planks were not nailed together but drilled, tied with ropes, and then sealed) and had a stronger and more efficiently rigged lateen sail
 - Lateen sail was tall and triangular
 - Allowed Indian Ocean sailors to catch the seasonal monsoon winds
 - Caught on throughout the Indian Ocean, from East Africa to South Asia
 - Chinese junk had a stern rudder for improved steering and sealed bulkheads to prevent a single breach in the hull from sinking the whole ship
 - Those sailed Zheng He in the 1400s were among the largest ever built
 - Sailing ships (cog, carrack, caravels) began emerging in Europe

Economic Systems (1200-1450)

- Economic productivity grew in most parts of the world due to improved or innovative technologies
- Methods of intensive agriculture become more common
- Early forms of industrialization (protoindustrialization or cottage industry) begin appearing alongside artisanry and craftsmanship

Trade Networks

- Growth in trade was extremely prominent on the four transregional trade routes which had emerged in Afro-Eurasia prior, and all were interconnected by this period

The Silk Road

- Links the Middle East with Asia, indirectly touching upon Europe and Africa
 - Stretches from the ports of the eastern Mediterranean to China's Pacific coast
Middle East, Persia → China, Pacific Coast
 - Nearly 5 thousand miles long
 - Passes through desert, steppe wilderness, and mountains
 - Network of oasis towns and caravanserais (roadside settlements providing safety and shelter)
 - Baghdad (Middle East), Samarkand (Central Asia), Kashgar (western China)
- Caravans moved east and west, and goods were carried by oxen, horses, and camels
 - China sold silk, porcelain, iron and steel
 - India and Southeast Asia sold spices, cotton, and jewels
 - Middle East sold slaves, metalware, and glassware, while Persia specialized in textiles
- Spread cultural and religion practices, technological innovations, and new diseases
 - Missionary efforts and cultural diffusion spread Christianity, Islam, and Buddhism eastward
 - Innovations (printing, gunpowder, navigational technology) and diseases (Black Death, 1300s) spread westward from China to the Middle East and Europe
- Marco Polo, a Venetian merchant who traveled through the Silk Road to the court of Kublai Khan in the late 1200s, created the most famous description of it in the west
- Never fell into complete disuse, although its global importance has waned
 - Experienced disruption in the 800s-1200s
 - Flourished through the 1400s due to the pax Mongolica
 - Importance fades in the 1500s-1600s due to the explosion of European maritime trade

The Mediterranean Sea and Europe's Economic Revival

- Supported large-scale trade between Europe, the Middle East, and North Africa
 - Includes Constantinople (Byzantine Empire), Alexandria and Cairo (Egyptian ports), and Venice (Italian city-states)

- Tied into trans-Saharan caravan trade (North Africa), Silk Road traffic (eastern Mediterranean), and Indian Ocean commerce (Egypt, Red and Arabian Seas)
- Depended on galleys (oared ships with small square sails)
 - Well-adapted for coastal navigation
 - Often rowed by slaves or prison convicts
- Political disturbances largely affected commerce
 - Fall of Roman Empire (500-1000) disrupted trade in the western Mediterranean and Europe
 - Europe's Crusades (1100-1300) increased access and appetite for goods from Asia and the Middle East
 - Expulsion of Latin kingdoms (1300) from the Middle East meant Europeans had to rely on Muslims and Mongols for access to Silk Road trade
 - Fall of Constantinople (1453) also put Europeans at a disadvantage
- Europeans shifted their economic efforts away from the Mediterranean
 - Explored along the Rhine River (North Sea and English Channel) and along the Baltic coastline
 - Created the Hanseatic League, which was a trading organization that united Germanic and Scandinavian cities in the Baltic Sea
 - Stretched from England to Russia
 - Novgorod (Russia) became one of the few points of interaction between Russia and Western Europe
 - Experimented with sailing ships and Atlantic navigation due to the desire to find alternative routes to East and South Asia that would bypass the Middle Eastern bottleneck

Trans-Saharan Caravan Trade

- Trade vastly increased along the trans-Saharan caravan trade routes
 - Rapid expansion of Islam through North and West Africa, thanks to Arab and Berber traders
 - Formation of strong African countries with an appetite for trade on a larger scale
- Saharan Desert has been a barrier to movement and trade between sub-Saharan Africa and the Mediterranean
 - Animals capable of carrying heavy loads in arid conditions were rare, until the domestication of camels (ca. 200)
 - Knowledge of where to find oases (sources of water) was crucial
- Most trans-Saharan trade went north-south (North Africa → sub-Saharan Africa), but east-west trade also became more common (Africa → Middle East, Silk Road, Indian trade networks)
 - Sub-Saharan Africa supplied ivory, exotic animal skins, foodstuff (nuts, fruit) northward
 - Salt and manufactured goods (metalware, pottery, glass) traveled southward
 - Europeans and Middle Easterns increased demand for gold after adopting the practice of minting coins
 - Arab slave trade expanded in sub-Saharan and eastern Africa and resulted in the forcible removal of at least 10 million Africans
- Timbuktu (Mali) was a major hub for trans-Saharan commerce as a key site in salt and gold trades. Ports on Africa's Mediterranean coast and in Egypt were also important.

The Indian Ocean

- Sea lanes linked East Africa and the Middle East directly with South and Southeast Asia, while land routes and straits opening into the South China sea insured that China and Japan were also part of this trading system
 - More than 6,000 miles wide from west-east
 - Ships ventured back and forth between China and Southeast Asia, India, and Persia
 - Includes the Swahili city-states (East African coast), Mecca (Arabia), Hormuz (Persia), Calicut (western India), Melaka/Malacca (Malaysia), Canton/Guangzhou and Hangzhou (China)
 - Melaka dominated the checkpoint between the Indian and Pacific Oceans
 - Hangzhou, located in the Yangzi delta, was at the southern end of China's Great Canal
- Transportation included lateen-sailed dhows, which took advantage of the seasonal monsoon winds, and Chinese junks
- The western zone was controlled largely by Arab and Persian traders and included East Africa and the Middle East. The middle zone consisted of South Asian city-states and kingdoms. The eastern zone was dominated by China and Japan.

- East Africa sold ivory, diamonds, animal hides, ebony, and gold
- Middle East sold copper, textiles, glassware, and Arabian horses
- India sold gems, elephants, salt, and cotton cloth
- Ceylon (Sri Lanka) sold cinnamon
- East Indies (Indonesia) sold other spices and exotic woods
- China sold silk, porcelain, and paper
- Japan sold silver

The Americas

- Trade routes were not as extensive or interconnected as those in Afro-Eurasia
- Cahokia (Mississippian North America) arose as a center of wide-ranging trade
- Tenochtitlán benefited heavily from trade with other Mesoamerican city-states
- Elaborate system of roads and bridges throughout the Andes
 - Coastal Andeans traded with those in the mountain valleys
 - Also traded with tribal societies living along the Amazon River to the east

Making Trade Easier: Technology, Banking, and Infrastructure

- Key technologies and practices made trade more efficient and easier (see [Innovations in Transport](#))
- Along major trade networks with political stability, commerce was boosted by the rise of banking and the extension of credit in the form of checks, bills of exchange, and loans with interest
 - Required trust over long distances
 - Allowed for a safer and simpler transfer of wealth
- States contributed by policing and regulating trade routes
 - Built customs houses, which housed officials who oversaw imports and exports
 - Enforced standard weights and measures
 - Supporting currencies by minting coins or printing paper money
- Transportational and communications infrastructure also enabled the expansion of trade
 - Markets, trading outposts, port cities
 - Caravanserais (wayside inns and settlements that lined routes like the Silk Road)
 - Networks of roads and man-made waterways, including China's Grand Canal
 - Connected the Yellow and Yangzi Rivers
 - Ran well over a thousand miles
 - Completed by Sui dynasty (581-618)
 - Improved to cover the distance from Beijing in the north and Hangzhou in the south
- Large empires (Byzantium, Islamic Caliphates, the Mongol states, China) made trade more viable by bringing vast territories under their authority
 - Important to have stable and predictable conditions
 - Consistent laws and regulations
 - Relative safety from pirates or bandits
 - Mutually recognizable currencies
 - Proper care for infrastructure
- Sometimes, states competed or warred with each other over trade
 - The authorities of Venice persuaded the armies of the Fourth Crusade (1202-1204) to attack and pillage the city of Constantinople instead of pursuing their original war aims against Muslim forces in Egypt
 - Constantinople was a fellow Christian city, but also an economic rival to the city-state of Italy

Social Interactions and Organization (1200-1450)

- Social structures and systems of labor management grew more complicated
- Social stratification (caste systems, hierarchies) remained the norm
- Vast majority lived in the countryside and were agriculturalists or pastoralists
- Increased trade → urbanization, class diversification, social mobility
- Trade allowed people to work in non-agricultural occupations

- Patriarchy and gender inequality remained as common or worsened due to cultural or religious trends

Cities

- Served as seats of power (political, administrative, military) and centers of culture and economic activity
- Urbanization → increased quantity and size of cities
 - Low urbanization: Europe, Americas, sub-Saharan Africa
 - High urbanization: Middle East, shores of Indian Ocean basin, East Asia (China)
- Merchant classes became larger and more influential due to banking, commerce, and trade in cities
 - Elite classes in many areas viewed trade (and merchants) with disdain
- Specialization of labor introduced the working class (artisans, laborers)
- Diasporic communities and sporadic enclaves formed in ports and cities along far-reaching trade routes, and include travelers, traders, and merchant families who took up long-term residence far from home. They introduced traditions and culture to the host culture.
 - Chinese merchants throughout Southeast Asia (Malaysia, Indonesia)
 - Jews throughout Eurasia
 - Muslim traders throughout the Indian Ocean trade network (mosques in Persian style were established in Canton and Hanzhou during the 1300s)

Social Structures and Labor Management

Hierarchies and Caste Systems

- Organized religion and cultural norms were used to justify hierarchies and caste systems
- Elite classes mainly made their wealth from the ownership of land
 - Composed 10-15% of the population
 - Includes royal family, aristocratic nobles, high-level clergy, top civil servants in the state bureaucracy
 - Often looked down on trade and may be forbidden to partake in it for religious or customary reasons
- A small (but growing) group of commoners worked in professional occupations and became known as the middle class in certain societies (especially Europe)
 - Includes scribes, lawyers, physicians, mid-to-low level bureaucrats, mid-to-low level clergy
 - Opened to those of low birth, but required literacy
- Merchants and bankers were also part of the emerging middle class
 - Profession grew in size, wealth, and clout due to the growing importance of urbanization and trade
 - Place on the hierarchy depended on the society
 - Commonly above most commoners due to the riches they brought
 - Considered less than peasants in much of Asia (which had been influenced by Confucian doctrines)
- Artisans and craftspeople were another group among the common classes that expanded due to urbanization
 - Often banded together in guilds that maintained a monopoly on their respective trades
 - Restricted membership, set prices and standards of quality, and provided pensions
- Members of the urban lower classes include shopkeepers and unskilled laborers
- Vast majority of the population lived in the countryside and worked agriculture
- Free farmers and peasants either owned land or paid rent to landowners, in addition to government taxes
 - Place in hierarchy tended to be near the bottom, although this was not the case in Confucian parts of Asia
- Bottom of any hierarchy were slaves, coerced or unfree laborers, and the “untouchable” or pariah classes that existed in India and Japan

Europe	Ottoman Empire	East Asia (Confucian)	South Asia (Hindu Caste System)
Royalty	Royal/Noble Elites	Royal/Noble Elites	Royal/Noble Elites
Aristocracy/Nobility, Knights	Men of the Pen (Scholars, Civil Servants)	Scholars, Warrior Elite (Samurai in Japan)	Brahmins (Priests)

Merchants	Men of the Sword (Warriors)	Farmers	Kshatriyas (Warriors)
Artisans and Laborers	Men of Negotiation (Merchants, Artisans)	Artisans	Vaishyas (Merchants, Skilled Workers, Peasants)
Free Peasants	Men of Husbandry (Peasants, Herders)	Merchants	Sudras (Unskilled Workers, Servants)
Enserfed Peasants	Slaves	Slaves (Untouchables in Japanese Caste System)	Slaves, Pariahs, Untouchables

Social Mobility

- Tended to be limited, but varied in different societies
- In parts of medieval Europe, cities served as pockets of relative freedom
 - Peasants could escape the bonds of serfdom
 - Trade and commerce allowed for a degree of self-advancement, regardless of birth
- Caste systems eliminate any change of social mobility
 - Includes Hindu caste system, feudal Japan's high regimented society
 - Japan's untouchable class, the eta, handled waste and disposed of the dead

Minorities and Diasporas

- May be tolerated and respected in a society, or may face prejudice and persecution
- Jews and medieval Europe were marginalized due to religious prejudice
 - Also in part due to their role as moneylenders
 - Christians were not allowed to charge interest on loans to fellow Christians
 - Jewish people took over this occupation
- Islamic states required non-Muslims to pay the jizya (religious tax) in exchange for the right to keep their own faith
- Ottoman Empire added the millet system, which sorted each non-Muslim group into its own community
 - Permitted to worship as it pleased
 - Subject to many legal and social restrictions

Coerced Forms of Labor

- Slavery and other forms of coerced labor were just as common as free labor
- Demand for it grew substantially
- Mesopotamian and Andean societies enslaved their neighbors
- Africans also enslaved people from neighboring states
 - Foreigners added to the burden by arriving from outside to enslave Africans
 - Arab slave trade steadily grew
 - Portuguese moved into West Africa (early 1400s) and stirred up the trans-Atlantic slave trade
- Mongols compelled soldiers and skilled workers from conquered states to work for them
- Middle East enlisted slaves for both military and civilian purposes
- Mamluks were neighboring people from Asia Minor recruited by Muslim armies as military slaves
 - Slavery was more to ensure loyalty than to oppress them
 - Developed tight-knit bonds and a sense of professional pride
 - Received many privileges and could attain positions of power
 - Taught to observe the code of furusiyya ("equitation"), which involved military training and cultured and honorable behavior
- Ottoman Turks devised the devshirme ("collecting") system for the same purpose of ensuring loyalty (mid-1300s to 1600s)
 - Took young men from non-Muslim (typically Christian) families
 - Groomed them to serve as privileged slaves in the civil service, the army, or the clergy
 - Janissaries (gunpowder infantry) had status as privileged slave-soldiers similar to that of the mamluks

- Serfs performed agricultural labor where free peasants or slaves were unavailable
 - Not technically slaves (legal property), but could not change residence or profession without permission from their landowner
 - Had to give a portion of their own crops and livestock to the lord
 - Had to spend a certain number of days per month fulfilling labor obligations
 - Duties included agricultural work and corvée labor projects (building roads, cutting down forests)
 - Conscripted to serve as soldiers for their lords
 - Most common in feudal societies
 - Arose in medieval Europe (700s-800s), faded in Western Europe by the Renaissance, persisted in Central and Eastern Europe until the 1700s and in Russia until the mid-1800s
 - Japanese peasants lived in serf-like conditions after Japan descended into samurai feudalism in the late 1100s
- Mit'a system was a similar system of coerced labor in the Americas
 - Ayllu (commoner clans) cooperated to fulfill labor obligations they owed to their landowning warrior-priest elites
 - Incan rulers made the system more burdensome because private property did not exist (the Incan ruler was considered the owner of everything)
 - Common in the Andes during the Moche period (200s-700s) and remained customary until the arrival of the Europeans (1500s)

Social Unrest and Labor-Related Revolts

- Most peasants and laborers faced dreary working conditions and sometimes intolerable treatment
- Labor-related unrest and revolts become more common in various parts of the world
- Wool Carders' Revolt in Florence (1378) was considered the first urban labor dispute in Europe
 - Sparked by the rage of unskilled workers who had no guild to protect them from being paid too little
- Peasant uprisings were more common than urban labor disputes
 - Tended to take place either in times of famine or disaster
 - Also common when taxes, rents, or military obligations suddenly increased
- Red Turban revolt (mid-1300s) in China's Yuan dynasty caused the collapse of the Yuan dynasty and the rise of the Ming emperors in 1368
 - Sparked by the regime's unwillingness to aid peasants after disastrous floods and a sharp rise in taxes in fund military spending
- Japanese peasants regularly rose up against their feudal daimyo landowners in the early 1400s
- Strain in stress caused by the Hundred Years' War (1337-1453) caused large peasant revolts in both England and France
 - French peasants staged the Jacquerie in 1358
 - Wat Tyler led the English Peasants' Revolt in 1381

Gender Roles

- No gender equality in any society
- Patriarchy and gender inequality were the norm due to organized religion and cultural traditions
- Upper-class women lived easier lives but were more constrained by restrictions on their behavior
- Lower-class women endure harder working and living conditions but were less bound by the proper conventions of conduct

Women's Occupations

- Women from elite classes may take positions of privilege
 - Occasionally governed states
 - Usually informally influenced royal or noble sons and husbands
 - Supervised households and estates
 - Had access to education
 - May distinguish themselves in the arts (Japanese writer Lady Murasaki, German nun-composer Hildegard von Bingen)

- Had religious careers (nun, priestess)
- Occupied mainly with childbearing and homemaking
- Women in commoner classes mainly assisted their husbands
 - May or may not be able to inherit or own property
 - Helped merchant or shopkeeper husbands
 - Occasionally owned their own businesses
 - Occupied mainly with childbearing and homemaking
- Peasant women (farming and laboring classes) were generally confined to weaving, pottery, gathering food, farm chores, tending herds, and domestic servitude
- On rare occasions, women fought in wars and even led troops
 - Peasant girl Joan of Arc rallied French forces during the Hundred Years' War and defeated their English foes in several key battles (early 1400s)
 - Genghis Khan's Mongol armies allowed women to fight (1200s) and one of Genghis's daughters commanded troops in Central Asia
 - Chinese saga of the warrior girl Hua Mulan arose in the 500s, but poems and novels about her reached their peak popularity between the 1100s and 1300s

Women's (Limited) Rights and Freedoms

- Could generally inherit and own property, although not as freely as men
 - Most favorable in parts of sub-Saharan Africa
 - Partial rights existed in Europe, the Middle East, and East Asia
 - Limited in Hindu parts of India and the stratified societies of Mesoamerica and Andes
- Men generally had the upper hand in marriage and divorce
 - Some women received a dowry or bride price that provided them with some economic security
 - Some women's families had to pay a dowry to the husband-to-be, which is a burden that led many families to view daughters as less desirable than men
 - Women were more stigmatized and punished more heavily than men for unfaithfulness
 - Divorce from abusive husbands was possible in most places but far harder for women than men
 - Men could typically separate for little or no cause
- Among the upper-class, women were generally allowed to receive some education
- Women enjoyed some legal safeguards before the law and courts, but never full equality
 - In Islamic courts, the testimony of a woman was not considered as reliable as that of a man
- The code of chivalry in medieval Europe encouraged proper conduct toward women, but was still condescending in how it regarded women as frail and weak and therefore requiring male protection (the samurai code of Bushido did little to encourage respectful treatment of women)
- Areas and cultures that allowed women more freedoms include sub-Saharan Africa, Mongols, North American hunter-foragers and Heian era Japan
 - In sub-Saharan Africa, descent was traced matrilineally (through the mother), women's farm labor along with husband's cattle-herding labor were highly valued, and older women were consulted for advice most frequently
 - Islam in sub-Saharan Africa tended to restrict women's behavior less than it did in North Africa or the Middle East
 - Mongols were more respectful of women's property and divorce rights
 - Hunter-foragers of North America have comparatively loosely defined gender relations
 - Heian era Japan (before 1200) afforded upper-class women a high degree of respect for their cultural and intellectual attainments, which was lost after the rise of Japanese feudalism

Restrictions on Women's Lives

- Aside from the secondary status that women had, certain practices stand out as particularly repressive
- Arranged marriages almost always worked out to the groom's advantage
 - Common in India and China
 - Often promised young girls as brides to older men
- Veiling and seclusion were prominent ways to control female conduct

- Practiced in Muslim Middle East, among both Muslims and Hindus in India and Southeast Asia, and in Christian Europe (especially in the Byzantine and Orthodox world)
- Harem (women's quarters) arose in most famously in Ottoman Turkey
- Custom of seclusion in India and Southeast Asia is known as purdah
- Basic terms of married life also varied from place to place
 - Concubinage (taking openly acknowledged lovers in addition to a wife) was possible in China, other parts of Asia, and the Middle East
 - Polygamy (taking more than one wife) was famously practiced in the Middle East, where Muslim men were permitted up to four wives
 - Not supposed to marry more wives than they could comfortably support
 - Remained more limited in practice than in theory
- Suppression of women's equality sometimes took extreme forms
 - Sharp rise in the persecution of suspected witches in medieval and Renaissance Europe
 - Ritual of sati (burning of Hindu widows on their husbands' funeral pyres) continued in parts of India
 - Practice of foot binding in China, which kept women's feet tiny and dainty but also crippled them, was firmly established by 1200, popular among all class (especially among the elite), and continued into the 1900s
- Organized religion played a crucial role in defining women's roles and justifying their subservience
 - Both Catholicism and Eastern Orthodoxy viewed women as subordinate to men, if not inherently more sinful, and refused them positions of spiritual authority
 - Islam proclaimed the desirability of treating women with respect, but also assigned women a secondary status relative to men
 - In India, the arrival of Islam meant that many women were no longer subject to the Hindu caste system of the sati ritual, and got to enjoy more rights than most Hindu women in respect to divorce and property
 - Neo-Confucianism led to the greater subordination of women and contributed to the growing popularity of foot binding in China and East Asia
 - Hindu women were highly restricted by the dictates of the caste system

Humans and the Environment (1200-1450)

- Steady population growth made humanity's environmental impact dramatically heavier (and sometimes harmful or self-destructive)
 - Increased economic productivity (engineering, construction, resource extraction and depletion)
- Other environmental factors include climate change and the movement of disease pathogens

Migrations

- Large-scale migrations regularly took place in Afro-Eurasia
 - Caused by environmental factors (climate change, lack of food supplies, overpopulation)
- Waves of Asiatic and Germanic people moved into Europe during the late Roman and medieval periods
 - Military threat forced European states to centralize politically during the medieval era
 - Migrants founded states and blended in with existing European culture
 - Includes the Vikings
- Migration of Mongol-Turkic horse pastoralists had a similar impact on the Middle East Central Asia, and East Asia
- In sub-Saharan Africa, the Bantu people finally complete their centuries-long continent-wide movements
 - Brought new agricultural techniques
 - Increased the extent of African land under cultivation
 - Environmental impacts include increased reliance on water and the need to irrigate
 - Spread ironworking, which encouraged mining and metallurgy
- Three-thousand-year Polynesian Migrations populated a 20,000-mile expanse of the Pacific Ocean
 - Began in Indonesia and Philippines
 - Outrigger canoes carried Polynesians east

- Original Polynesians were root farmers and spread taro, sweet potatoes, pigs, chickens, fish, and coconut palm
- Badly deforested some of the places they settled
- Civilization on Easter Island was destroyed by environmental stress and tribal war by the 1500s
- The Maori's arrival in New Zealand marked the end of the migrations
- Trade routes opened or widened because migratory or nomadic people traveling upon them adapted to challenging environments
 - The camel-herding expertise of Arabs and Berbers in the Middle East and North Africa established the trans-Saharan caravan trade
 - The horsemanship of pastoral people in the steppes of Central Asia developed the Silk Road
 - The Viking's longboats and ability to navigate on the open ocean led to the establishment of a trade route that connected Iceland, Greenland, the British Isles, northwestern France, Sicily, to Russia (Novgorod) and the Byzantium (Constantinople)
 - During the time of Leif Ericsson (1000), Vikings became the first Europeans to reach the Americas, although their brief time there had nowhere near the impact that the arrival of Columbus did in the 1490s

The Impact of Manufacturing, Resource Extraction, and Agriculture

- Economic activity increased worldwide, including agriculture and manufacturing (cottage industry, protoindustry)
- Increased resource extraction and corresponding increase in environmental impact of human activity
- Cities concentrated large numbers of people and their demand for resources into small, densely packed spaces
- Heavy environmental impact of urban construction and engineering
- Hunting and fishing intensified
- Mining and metallurgy represents a particularly intrusive form of resource extraction
 - Supported the expansion of protoindustrial production and a heightened demand for metals, gems, and jewels
 - Exerted a powerful influence on many ecosystems
- Increased production of textiles created a greater demand for wool (requiring the grazing of larger number of sheep) and cotton (requiring more land to be placed under agricultural production)
- Farming and water management became more efficient, and more land was used for it
- Forms of intensive agriculture maximized the productive potential of every square foot of a given area
 - Improved versions of the horse collar, which was invented in China, spread throughout Afro-Eurasia
 - Terrace farming (on the sides of hills and mountains) and the Mesoamerican chinampa technique of growing crops on "floating islands" in lakes were utilized more frequently in the Americas
 - Waru waru system of interspersing raised seedbeds (where the plants grew) and ditches (which allowed for irrigation and drainage alike) was widely adopted in the Andes
 - Techniques increased the risks of soil erosion and deforestation
- Afro-Eurasian trade spread plants and foodstuffs far from their place of origin
 - Bananas, originating in Papua New Guinea and Southeast Asia, reached the Middle East by the mid-600s and took root in Africa between 700 and 1500
 - Citrus from Southeast Asia eventually became common throughout the Islamic World and the Mediterranean
 - Sugar, first extracted from the sugarcane plant in New Guinea around 8000 BCE, reached the Asian mainland by 1000 BCE and was being produced in a crystallized form in Gupta India by the 500s. Buddhist monks brought sugar to China, and it reached Persia via the Silk Road by about 600. Muslim Arabs encouraged it to spread widely throughout the Middle East and North Africa during their wars of expansion. Europeans discovered it during the Crusades and started growing sugarcane themselves.
 - Cotton also became more wide-spread throughout Afro-Eurasia
 - Drought-resistant and fast-growing Champa rice from Vietnam were imported to China. They grew fast enough to permit two harvests per year, substantially increasing food production.
 - The coconut palm spread across Oceania due to the migration of Polynesian peoples

Environmental Forces: Disease and Climate

Disease

- Smallpox, measles, and bubonic plague had moved back and forth throughout Eurasia
- Black Death (early 1300s) was the deadliest epidemic in the premodern era
 - Began in China and migrated to the Middle East
 - Traveled to Europe by the 1340s via the Mediterranean trade between the Middle East and the Italian peninsula
- Tropical diseases such as malaria, yellow fever, and sleeping sickness terrorized Africa

Climate

- Especially affected the northern hemisphere
- Also includes volcanic eruptions, diversion of rivers, earthquakes
- Medieval climate optimum (800-1300) greatly affected patterns of migration, agriculture, fishing and whaling, and interregional trade
 - Allowed freer movement
 - Vikings traveled into northern regions and the Inuit ventured into the Arctic North America
 - Agriculture became more productive
- After 1300, the MCO was followed by a general cooling trend that resulted in the Little Ice Age (1400s-early 1800s)
 - Made agricultural production more difficult
 - Altered patterns of northern settlement
 - Affected economic activities (fishing, whaling, fur hunting)
 - Downturn in agricultural production may have contributed to the wave of peasant uprisings that broke out in places like Europe and China during the mid-to-late 1300s

Summary

Governance

- Monarchies and oligopolies were the most common. Forms of rulership remained nonrepresentative.
- Many states were decentralized, or were multicultural empires joined by a conqueror. They did not resemble modern, centralized nations.
- Successor states of classical empires used traditional sources of power (patriarchal authority, religious backing, support of landowning elites) and blended them with new governing techniques and effective bureaucracies.
- Conflict and contact between civilizations caused cultural diffusion and the transfer of technologies and cultural practices.
 - Europe's Crusades against the Middle East
 - Mongol expansion
 - China and Middle East interchange
 - Persia's cultural impact on the Middle East
 - China's cultural impact throughout East Asia
- Cities became more prominent.
- Invention of gunpowder technology began to diffuse throughout Europe and change the balance of world power.

Governance, 1200-1450	
Europe	Byzantium (Constantinople, 300s-1453) Transition from feudalism to centralized nation-states City-state government on the Italian peninsula (Venice) and elsewhere (Novgorod) Papal-imperial struggle and the medieval idea of Christendom Mongol rule over Russia (Golden Horde) Fall of Constantinople and Ottoman conquest of Byzantium (1453)
Middle East	Abbasid Caliphate (Baghdad, 750-1258) peaks in 800s and declines after 900s Dar al-Islam and "circle of justice" Sharia law Mongol Il-Khanate (mid-1200s-mid-1300s)

	Ottoman Empire (1299-1922) and conquest of Byzantium (1453)
Africa	Ghana (ca. 800-1200) Mali (Timbuktu, mid-1200s-1600s; Mansa Musa in 1300s) Hausa kingdoms Ethiopia Great Zimbabwe (ca. 1000-1400) Swahili city-states
East and Central Asia	Song dynasty (960-1279) in China Mandate of heaven and bureaucracy (civil service examinations) Yuan (Mongol) dynasty in China (1271-1369) Ming dynasty (1369-1644) in China Chagatai (Mongol) khanate in Central Asia (ca. 1200-mid-1600) Breakdown of the Heian regime (794-1185) in Japan Feudalism in Japan (shogun and samurai daimyo, 1100s-1500s)
South and Southeast Asia and Oceania	Post-Gupta disunity in India (ca. 600-1200) Incursions of Delhi Sultanate (1206-1526) vs. resistance of Hindu states (Vijayanagara Empire, Rajput kingdoms) Sinhalese dynasties in Sri Lanka Khmer Empire (ca. 800-1400) and Sukhothai kingdom (ca. 1200-1400) Srivijayan Empire (ca. 500-1100) and Majapahit (1293-1500) City-states in Southeast Asia (Malay sultanates, Melaka)
Americas	Mississippian culture (Cahokia, ca. 700-1500) City-states in Mesoamerica (legacy of Maya, ca. 250-900, and Toltecs, ca. 800-1100) Aztecs (Mexico) (Tenochtitlán, ca. mid-1200-1520) Chimú empire (Chan Chan, ca. 1000-1400) Incas (Cuzco, ca. 1300s-early 1500s)
Global and Interregional	Islamic expansion into Africa and Asia (600s onward) Crusades (Christian Europe vs. Islamic Middle East, 1096-1291) Mongol conquests under Genghis Khan (early 1200s) and the pax Mongolica

Cultural Developments and Interactions

- Distinct artistic and cultural traditions developed. At the same time, cultural diffusion became increasingly common due to the expansion of empires, the growth of trade networks, the emergence of diasporic communities, and the sharing of religious beliefs.
- Religions spread widely due to trade, missionary activity, and conquest.
- Civilizations in East Asia, India, the Middle East, and Muslim Spain (al-Andalus) possessed the highest degree of scientific knowledge and cultural sophistication.
- China and India had high levels of regional influence. Buddhism, Hinduism, and art and architecture styles spread to Southeast Asia, Korea, Japan, and Tibet.
- Middle East and Muslim Spain played a large role in spreading philosophy, science, technology, music, art, and architecture to North Africa and Europe, partly due to the knowledge they imported from China. The Middle East had cultural influence on medieval and Renaissance Europe.
- Europe underwent rapid cultural development. The Renaissance involved the rediscovery of Greco-Roman science and philosophy and the borrowing of it from Islamic and Jewish scholars.
- Travelers and explorers made the world increasingly interconnected.
 - Marco Polo, Rabban Sawma, Ibn Battuta, Zheng He
- Major civilizations in the Americas (Toltec, Aztecs (Mexico), Chimú, Inca) left cultural and religious imprints on neighbors.
- Languages became transregionally influential because they were sacred to major religions or the official tongues of large, enduring empires.
 - Sanskrit, Mandarin Chinese, Latin

- Languages gained regional or transregional status due to cultural or religious preeminence, status as a scholarly language, or suitability as a lingua franca for trade.
 - Sanskrit, Mandarin Chinese, Swahili, Arabic, Persian, Latin

Cultural Developments and Interactions, 1200-1450	
Europe	<p>Latin as regional language of religious and educated elite</p> <p>Papal idea of Christendom vs. "great schism" between Roman Catholicism and Eastern Orthodoxy</p> <p>Scholasticism (partial reconciling of Christian doctrine with Greco-Roman thinkers like Aristotle and Plato)</p> <p>Renaissance humanism (revival of Greco-Roman learning)</p> <p>Universities</p> <p>Code of chivalry</p> <p>Intellectual impact of moveable-type printing press (1430s+)</p> <p>Architecture (Romanesque and Gothic cathedrals, castle building)</p>
Middle East	<p>Arabic as regional language of religious and educated elite (also note cultural importance of Persian)</p> <p>House of Wisdom in Baghdad and golden age of Islamic culture</p> <p>Madrasas as centers of learning</p> <p>The Arabian Nights</p> <p>The Rubaiyat of Omar Khayyám</p> <p>Sufi movement (Rumi's poetry)</p> <p>Geometric design in Islamic art</p>
Africa	<p>Swahili as regional language in East Africa</p> <p>Spread of Islamic influences via war and trade</p> <p>Oral traditions (griots in West Africa)</p> <p>Sundiata epic (Mali, 1300s+)</p> <p>Sculpture, wood carving, weaving, metalworking</p> <p>Architecture (Great Zimbabwe city complex, mud-and-timber mosques of Timbuktu)</p>
East and Central Asia	<p>Mandarin Chinese as classical language</p> <p>Diffusion of Buddhist and Daoist culture (Zen/Chan form of Buddhism)</p> <p>Impact of Neo-Confucianism)</p> <p>Samurai culture and the code of Bushido in Japan</p> <p>Architecture (pagodas, grid layout of cities, Great Wall of China, Beijing's Forbidden City, Heian Shrine)</p>
South and Southeast Asia and Oceania	<p>Sanskrit as classical language</p> <p>Indian epics</p> <p>Diffusion and mingling of Buddhist and Hindu cultures</p> <p>Bhakti movement</p> <p>Islam arrives in India</p> <p>Architecture (Angkor Wat, Borobudur)</p>
Americas	<p>Polytheism (human sacrifice and pyramid building in Mesoamerica)</p> <p>Mayan hieroglyphs, calendar, and concept of zero</p> <p>Quipu in Andes cultures</p> <p>Architecture (Mississippian earth mounds, Mesoamerican pyramids, Machu Picchu, Inca Temple of the Sun)</p>
Global and Interregional	<p>Expansion of Islam's cultural influence to Asia and Africa</p> <p>Buddhist and Hindu influences throughout Southeast, South, and East Asia</p> <p>Greek and Indian mathematics transferred to Islamic world and Europe</p> <p>Greek science and philosophy reintroduced to medieval Europe from Muslim Spain</p>

	Arab-Chinese cultural transfer European-Islamic cultural transfer during Crusades Cultural transfer throughout Mongol empires Interregional travel = Rabban bar Sawma (1200s), Marco Polo (1200s), Ibn Battuta (1300s), Zheng He (1400s)
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Technology and Innovation

- Systemization of rational thought (philosophy, logic, empirical observation, early variants of the scientific method) emerged or matured in parts of Eurasia. In the Middle East and Europe, this largely involves the preservation and rediscovery of learning from the classical Greco-Roman era.
- Civilizations in East Asia (especially China), India, the Middle East, and Muslim Spain (al-Andalus) possessed the greatest degree of scientific knowledge and medical expertise.
- The Middle East and Muslim Spain spread science, medical skill, technology, and architecture to North Africa and Europe, in part because of the knowledge they imported from China.
- The European Renaissance borrowed from Islamic and Jewish scholars in the Middle East and Muslim Spain. It involved advancements in not just the arts, but in science, engineering, and architecture.
- Arabic numerals had migrated westward, first to the Middle East, and then more widely to Europe.
- Improvement of print technology allowed the faster and wider dissemination of information in Asia and Europe. Block printing (ca. 200) and early versions of the moveable-type printing (ca. 1000) emerged in China. That led to the invention of a cost-effective, high-speed movable-type printing press in Europe by the mid-1400s. The resulting information explosion caused intellectual revolution in many parts of Eurasia.
- Innovations in ground transport and agriculture increased the efficiency with which pack animals were domesticated and used.
 - Better yokes, harnesses, saddles, stirrups, horse collars
- Maritime transport technologies were key innovations. It includes shipbuilding refinements (stern rudders, deeper keels) and more advanced systems of rigging and sailing (shift from square sails to lateen sails).
- Astrolabe and compass improved and became more widely available throughout Europe.
- Changes in military affairs and the global balance of power due to the invention of gunpowder in China (ca. 900) and the subsequent spread of gunpowder weaponry through Eurasia (especially in Europe) from ca. 1200 onward.

Technology and Innovation, 1200-1450	
Europe	Wheeled vehicle vs. saddles and pack animals (horses, oxen) Shipbuilding and navigation (cogs, carracks, caravels) Moveable-type printing press (mid-1400s) Architecture (Romanesque and Gothic cathedrals, castle building)
Middle East	Wheeled vehicles vs. saddles and pack animals (horses, oxen, camels) Camel saddle improved Expertise in medicine (impact of Ibn Sina's Canon of Medicine) Expertise in astronomy (astrolabe improved 700s+) Expertise in mathematics (algebra) Shipbuilding and navigation (dhow and lateen sail)
Africa	Wheeled vehicle vs. saddles and pack animals (camels) Shipbuilding and navigation (monsoon winds + dhow and lateen sails) Architecture (Great Zimbabwe city complex, mud-and-timber mosques of Timbuktu)
East and Central Asia	Horse collar and stirrup spread out from China Woodblock printing improved and movable-type concept invented in China Water mills and water clocks in China Gunpowder invented in China (ca. 800-900) and spread widely

	Shipbuilding and navigation (junk, stern rudder, magnetic compass) Architecture (pagodas, grid layout of cities, Great Wall of China, Beijing's Forbidden City, Heian Shrine)
South and Southeast Asia and Oceania	Wheeled vehicles vs. saddles and pack animals (horses and oxen) Arabic numerals, pi, and zero Shipbuilding and navigation (monsoon winds + dhow and lateen sails) Outrigger canoes in Polynesia Architecture (Angkor Wat, Borobudur)
Americas	Saddles and pack animals (llamas) Mayan hieroglyphs, calendar, and concept of zero Architecture (Mississippian earth mounds, Mesoamerican pyramids, Machu Picchu, Inca Temple of the Sun)
Global and Interregional	Westward transfer of many technologies from China (horse collar, compass, printing) Influence of Greek and Indian mathematics on Islamic world and Europe Greek science and philosophy reintroduced to Europe from Muslim Spain Gunpowder acquired from China by Middle East and Europe (1200s)

Economic Systems

- Economic production increased globally.
- Because of innovations in overland and maritime transport, transregional trade increased and over greater distances.
- Existing trade routes (Eurasia's Silk Roads, the Mediterranean sea lanes, the trans-Saharan caravan trails, the Indian Ocean basin) witnessed huge upswings in commercial activity. New routes expanded trade in Mesoamerica and the Andes as well.
- Trading organizations like northern Europe's Hanseatic League developed.
- New cities emerged as centers for interregional trade.
 - Venice, Novgorod, Baghdad, the Swahili city-states, Timbuktu, Hangzhou, Melaka (Malacca), Calicut, Cahokia, and Tenochtitlán.
- Increased demand for luxury goods like textiles, porcelain, and spices from the Middle East, South and Southeast Asia, and East Asia.
- Infrastructure (markets, roads, harbors, other state facilities) supported trade. Tax collection and rent gathering became more efficient and intrusive.
- New forms of banking and monetization (credit, checking, banking houses) and state practices (minting coins, printing paper money) made trade easier and safer. Customs agencies and standard weights and measures helped regulate and regularize trade.
- The warmer weather of the medieval climatic optimum facilitated trade. It was later affected by the global cooling that led to the Little Ice Age.
- Innovations in ship design (Atlantic cogs, carracks, caravels; Indian Ocean dhow; Chinese junk) and navigation (astrolabe, magnetic compass) expanded trade. There was also an adaptation of environmental knowledge (Saharan camel herders' knowledge of the desert, Central Asian pastoralists' use of horses for steppe travel).

Economic Systems, 1200-1450	
Europe	Revival and growth of European trade (Hanseatic League) Mediterranean trade network Crusades stimulate appetite for Asian goods Connections with trans-Saharan caravans and Silk Road Improved open-water navigation and Atlantic voyaging Intensive agriculture (wheat) Feudal manorialism (serfdom) Guilds (artisans and craftsmen)

Middle East	Trans-Saharan caravans (Arab-Berber expertise with camels) Mediterranean trade network Connections with Silk Road Connections with Indian Ocean basin Intensive agriculture (wheat)
Africa	Indian Ocean trade network (Swahili city-states) Trans-Saharan caravans (Arab-Berber expertise with camels) Mediterranean trade network Salt, gold, ivory Arab trade in African slaves
East and Central Asia	Silk Road (briefly disrupted, then revived under pax Mongolica) Grand Canal in China Connections between Indian Ocean basin and Pacific trade Intensive agriculture (rice) Nomadic pastoralism continues in steppe zone Silk, iron, steel, and porcelain industries in China Feudal landholding in Japan (serfdom)
South and Southeast Asia and Oceania	Indian Ocean trade network Intensive agriculture (rice) Cotton industry in India Spices
Americas	Intensive agriculture (potatoes, beans, corn/maize) Chinampa, waru waru, and terracing as techniques for growing crops Mit'a labor system in Andes (especially under Incan empire) Pastoralism and hunting-foraging remain common in many areas
Global and Interregional	General rise in agricultural production due to technological innovation and techniques of intensive agriculture New trading cities and merchant classes Increased craft production Luxury goods fuel expansion of trade networks Minting of coins and printing of money Standardization of currencies, weights, and measures Credit and banking become more common Slavery, serfdom, and corvée become more common

Social Interactions and Organization

- Population growth continued globally.
- Social structures in centralized states diversified and became more complex. Peasant, laborer, artisan, merchant, clergy, and slave class appeared. The elite classes remained small and generally hereditary.
- Class hierarchies, social stratification, and caste systems continued. Social mobility opportunities were few, but generally appeared in urban settings where trade and commerce dominated.
- Nomadic pastoralism continued as a form of labor organization.
- The vast majority of societies remain agricultural-based. The main forms of labor organization in the countryside were free peasant production (typically owing rents to landlords or taxes to the government) and serfdom (unfree labor bound to the land and owing labor to the landowner).
- Urbanization continued worldwide. Periods of decline were mixed with periods of revival and expansion. The rise of trade and commerce in cities made the merchant class larger and more influential. Another key form of labor organization was craft production, where artisans often band together in guilds.
- Other forms of labor organization include coerced and unfree labor (slavery, serfdom, mit'a) as well as military conscription. The demand for slaves grew as more domestic labor, agricultural work, and military service was needed.

- Unfair treatment of workers and peasants made unrest and revolts more common.
- Along far-reaching trade routes, diasporic communities and foreign enclaves formed in many ports and towns as refugees, migrants, and traders from one society settled in new homes far from their points of origin.
- Patriarchalism was often buttressed by traditional religions and custom and remained the norm. Women generally occupied a secondary status and remained on the disadvantaged side of the gender division of labor. They had minimal to nonexistent political rights. They had defined occupational roles generally confined to childbearing, homemaking, and low-status jobs such as weaving, food gathering, farm chores, and domestic servitude.
- In most societies, women had some freedoms and rights, which might include the right to divorce abusive husbands, the right to a dowry, the right to some education, and the right to inherit and own property. They tend to play informal but important roles in the management of the household and family finances. They supervised the education and upbringing of their children and influenced their husbands.
- Upper-class women lived easier lives but were more constrained by religious and cultural restrictions on their behaviour (seclusion or purdah, foot binding, veiling). The laws of proper behavior applied less to lower-class women, but they led harder lives
- Women enjoy more respect than average in West Africa, Japan (during certain periods), the Mongol Empire, and parts of Southeast Asia.
- Religious change (Buddhism, Christianity, Islam, Neo-Confucianism) influenced gender relations and family structure.
- Practices such as polygamy, concubinage, and harems were permitted in some places. Terms of divorce and the status of children born outside of marriage varied.

Social Interactions and Organization, 1200-1450	
Europe	Serfdom (feudal manorialism) vs. free peasantry Peasant revolts in England, France, and elsewhere (ca. 1300) Craftsmen and guilds Diaspora community (Jews) and anti-Semitism Money lending by Jewish diaspora (anti-Semitism) Witch hunts (Hammer of Witchcraft, ca. 1400) Christian doctrine and patriarchy
Middle East	Islam and patriarchy (veiling, seclusion, polygamy) Jizya tax for subject nonbelievers (dhimmi) Millet system (religious communities) system in Ottoman Empire Devshirme (Ottoman slave-recruiting system) Military slaves (mamluks and janissaries) Diaspora community (Jews)
Africa	Patriarchy (with some matriarchy and matrilinealism) Diaspora communities (merchant from Middle East and Indian Ocean basin) Arab slavers in North and East Africa Origins of Atlantic slave trade
East and Central Asia	Diaspora communities (merchants along Silk Road) Neo-Confucianism and hierarchy (caste system) Neo-Confucianism and patriarchy (foot binding) Red Turban uprising in China (ca. 1300) Samurai nobility and feudalism in Japan (serfdom) Samurai patriarchy
South and Southeast Asia and Oceania	Diaspora communities (minorities throughout Indian Ocean trade network) Chinese merchant communities in Southeast Asia Hinduism and hierarchy (varna caste system) Hinduism and patriarchy (sati, seclusion) Islam and patriarchy (veiling, seclusion, polygamy)

Americas	Mit'a labor system in Andes (intensifies under Inca) Ayllu clan system in Andes
Global and Interregional	Persistence of caste systems in many regions Growth of artisan (craftsman) classes Growth of merchant classes Greater urbanization and trading cities Muslim merchant diaspora in Africa and Indian Ocean basin Jewish diaspora (Middle East, Europe, Silk Roads, Indian Ocean basin) Slavery and serfdom become increasingly common Patriarchy continues or deepens

Humans and the Environment

- The Americas remain isolated from Afro-Eurasia.
- Nomadic and migratory populations (Mongols, Polynesians) impact large parts of the world.
- Innovations in overland and maritime transport permitted easier and wider travel.
- Humanity's ecological footprint increased dramatically as a result of population growth and the development of more centralized states. Advanced and urbanized societies are able to carry out large-scale architectural and engineering projects (China's Grand Canal).
- Heightened risks of soil erosion and deforestation due to the increased scale of agricultural production and irrigation.
- Forms of resource extraction (mining, hunting, fish) exerted a growing impact on the environment. Mining supported the expansion of industrial production and increased demand for metals, gems, and jewels.
- Trade activity spread plants and foodstuffs (bananas, rice, cotton, sugar, spices, fruits) far away from their points of origin.
- Epidemic diseases (smallpox, measles, bubonic plague) periodically affected large parts of Eurasia. The Black Death swept China, the Middle East, and Europe in the 1300s.
- The medieval climatic optimum (ca. 800-1300), a global warming trend, affected patterns of migration, agricultural life, and interregional trade.
- The Little Ice Age, a global cooling trend, began between the early 1300s and early 1500s and persisted until the early-to-mid-1800s.

Humans and the Environment, 1200-1450	
Europe	Environmental impact of city building and intensive agriculture (deforestation, desertification, soil erosion, silted rivers) Cotton, sugar, and citrus spread through the Mediterranean Prevalence of disease-causing pathogens and recurring epidemics (smallpox, measles, bubonic plague) Black Death pandemic (ca. 1300)
Middle East	Environmental impact of city building and intensive agriculture (deforestation, desertification, soil erosion, silted rivers) Water management systems (irrigation) Migration of Mongol-Turkic horse pastoralists (East and Central Asia, Middle East) Cotton, sugar, and citrus spread through Islamic World Origins of coffee in Ethiopia and Yemen Prevalence of disease-causing pathogens and recurring epidemics (smallpox, measles, bubonic plague) Black Death pandemic (ca. 1300)
Africa	Environmental impact of city building and intensive agriculture (deforestation, desertification, soil erosion, silted rivers) Growth of Sahara and other instances of desertification Bananas spread after arrival from the Middle East

	<p>Origins of coffee in Ethiopia and Yemen</p> <p>Prevalence of disease-causing pathogens and recurring epidemics (malaria, yellow fever, sleeping sickness)</p>
East and Central Asia	<p>Environmental impact of city building and intensive agriculture (deforestation, desertification, soil erosion, silted rivers)</p> <p>Migration of Mongol-Turkic horse pastoralists (East and Central Asia, Middle East)</p> <p>Spread of Champa rice</p> <p>Prevalence of disease-causing pathogens and recurring epidemics (smallpox, measles, bubonic plague)</p> <p>Black Death pandemic (ca. 1300)</p>
South and Southeast Asia and Oceania	<p>Environmental impact of city building and intensive agriculture (deforestation, desertification, soil erosion, silted rivers)</p> <p>Spread of Champa rice</p> <p>Prevalence of disease-causing pathogens and recurring epidemics</p> <p>Polynesian migrations end in 1200s (spread of pigs and taro) + deforestation of Easter Island</p>
Americas	<p>Environmental impact of city building and intensive agriculture (deforestation, desertification, soil erosion, silted rivers)</p> <p>Chinampa agriculture and terrace farming continue</p> <p>Waru waru agriculture in Andes</p> <p>Comparative lack of domesticated animals vs. Afro-Eurasia</p> <p>Comparative lack of disease-causing pathogens vs. Afro-Eurasia</p>
Global and Interregional	<p>Medieval climatic optimum</p> <p>Little Ice Age begins</p> <p>Continued isolation of Afro-Eurasian and American ecosystems</p>

Unit 2: 1450-1750

Governance (1450-1750)

- During 1500s-1600s, global power was mainly concentrated in China and the Islamic world's gunpowder empires: Ottoman Turkey, Safavid Persia, and Mughal India
- Nations of Europe steadily grew more powerful and overtook the civilizations listed above in military, scientific, and technological aptitude by the 1700s
- European campaign to explore the rest of the world, starting in the 1400s
- Between 1500s-1700s, numerous European Empires (Portugal, Spain, the Dutch Republic, England, France) had created trading-post and maritime empires
- State-building depended on skill in deploying gunpowder in the infantry, cannons, and gunships as well as the ability to build fortresses and fortified cities capable of defending against gunpowder artillery

State-Craft: Old and New Techniques of Governance

New State-Building Techniques

- Nation-states in the contemporary sense of the term emerged
 - Relatively fixed borders
 - Sense of national unity

- Largely homogeneous population in terms of language and ethnicity
- Political and administrative centralization became more sophisticated and led a higher degree of state organization and efficiency
 - Includes bureaucracies, treasuries, and state banks
 - More reliable and efficient way to collect taxes and conscript soldiers
- Most monarchies remained autocratic or absolutist, but some nations experimented with more representative forms of government (parliamentary monarchy)
- Most empires established or expanded on land empires, but the nations of Europe took the lead in building trading-post empires and maritime empires

Old State-Building Techniques

- State-building techniques still included methods used in earlier eras
 - Impressive displays of architecture and art
 - Religion to legitimate authority
- States grew more adept at placing ethnic and religious minorities more firmly under their control while keeping them economically productive
 - Ottoman Empire's treatment of non-Muslim subjects
 - Exercise of Manchu authority over ethnic Chinese during the Qing dynasty
 - Spanish treatment of native populations in their New World colonies
- Many states also depended on larger and more modern bureaucratic elites
 - Civil servants recruited by the Ottoman devshirme system
 - Chinese mandarins who arose thanks to the Confucian examination system
 - Various nobles who adapted to civil service: Russia's Table of Ranks, Japan's salaried samurai, and France's nobles of the robe during the 1600s-1700s

Empire Building: The Age of Exploration and Colonization

- Europe eventually became the planet's dominant civilization, but paid a steep moral price in exchange—colonization went hand in hand with war, greed, racial and religious intolerance, and slavery
- Tensions left over between Western nations and their former colonies continue to affect international relations

Motivations and Capabilities

- Primary motivation in the beginning was economic
 - Mediterranean trade, the Crusades, and tales told by Marco Polo whetted European appetite for the wealth of eastern states (China, the Indies, Japan)
 - Wanted direct access to asiatic goods (silk, spices) rather than rely on the Silk Road and Middle Eastern middlement
- Secondary reason was to take advantage of the rich fishing and whaling grounds in the North Atlantic
 - Fishers and whale hunters may have ventured close to the Canadian coast during the 1300s-1400s
 - No conclusive proof that they came within sight of the Americas during this time
- Europeans were less technologically and scientifically advanced and geographic knowledge was limited until the 1400s
- China had the potential to lead the way in world exploration
 - Invented the astrolabe, the magnetic compass, and the sternpost rudder
 - Voyages of Zheng He in the early 1400s
- Europeans' ability to voyage further and more safely grew as their interest in exploring expanded
 - Adopted Chinese technologies by the 1300s and early 1400s
 - Developed sailing ships capable of long-range oceanic voyaging, with deep keels and advanced rigging systems that permitted ships to sail against the wind
 - Most important was the nimble, three-masted caravel, but the Dutch fluyt and larger carrack also played a role
- Gunpowder weaponry, adopted in the 1300s-1400s, made colonization easier
 - Sailors and soldiers were equipped with muskets and cannons
 - Effective against the less technologically advanced natives

- Invented galleons and other large gunships by the 1500s-1600s

The Iberian Wave: Portugal and Spain

- The first European nations to explore the wider Atlantic world were Portugal and Spain, on the Iberian peninsula

Portuguese Exploration

- Portuguese exploration began around 1410 with voyages to the west and south
 - Encouraged by Prince Henry the Navigator
 - Claimed several Atlantic island groups, including the Azores, as well as ports along Africa's west coast
- Bartholomeu Díaz reached the southern tip of Africa in 1488
 - Rulers of Portugal named it the Cape of Good Hope
 - Recognized as an important step on the way to India
- Over the next decade, the Portuguese made their way into the Indian Ocean basin
 - Captured East African ports and cities
 - Vasco da Gama was the first European to reach India by sea; he landed in Calicut in 1498 and earned an immense profit upon returning home
- Portugal quickly took steps to enlarge their presence in Africa and Asia

Spanish Exploration

- The Spanish fell behind Portugal in terms of exploration because they were preoccupied with the anti-Muslim reconquest in southern Spain
- Ferdinand and Isabella considered the unusual proposal made in 1492 by the Italian captain Christopher Columbus because they were blocked from following Portugal's African-Indian Ocean route to Asia
 - Claimed that he could sail west to reach the Far East
 - Bold due to erroneous belief that the globe was small enough that an expedition would be able to sail from Spain the Asia before running out of food or water or without being barred by some other landmass
- Columbus set sail in August 1492 and reached the Caribbean's Bahama islands in October
 - Convinced that he had found the Indies (hence the term "Indians" for indigenous Americans)
 - Others realized that he had found something completely unknown to Europe

Aftermath of the New World Discovery

- Spain and Portugal turned to the pope to determine who could claim which parts of this "New World"
 - Drew the lines of demarcation (1492-1529), where most of South America and all of North America was given to the Spanish
 - Portuguese received Brazil, which was discovered in 1500
 - Similarly defined Spanish and Portuguese spheres of influence in Asia
- Ferdinand Magellan, a Portuguese mariner sailing on behalf of Spain, tied all of the two countries' earlier efforts together in the 1520s
 - Leaders of the first circumnavigation of the globe
 - Left Europe in 1519, traversed the Atlantic, and rounded the tips of South America
 - Ships crossed the Pacific and returned to Europe in 1522
 - He himself died along the way, in the Philippine islands
- Both countries established a commercial or colonial presence wherever they could

Presence in Asia

- Most states in the Far East and Southeast Asia were too strong or too advanced for the Portuguese to conquer, so they mostly settled for trade
 - In addition to their West African outposts, they gained control over East African cities (Mombasa, Zanzibar, port of Muscat (1507) in the Arab state of Oman)
 - Also seized the Indian port of Goa (1510), commercial center of Melaka (Malacca, 1511), and the island of Sri Lanka
 - Opened ties with China in the 1510s and with Japan in the 1540s
 - Granted the port of Macau 1557 by China as a reward for fighting pirates

- Spain's colonial presence in Asia remained limited relative to its holdings in the Americas
 - Controlled the Philippines, notably the port of Manila (1571)
 - Crucial link in the global silver trade (transfer point where metals mined in South America were shipped across the Pacific to ports in South and East Asia (China))
- In the 1600s, Portugal lost many of these colonial and commercial assets to the Dutch, English, and Omani Arabs

Presence in the New World

- In contrast to the trading-post empires established in Asia, the Portuguese and Spanish founded maritime empires (overseas colonies fully under their control) in the New World
 - Portugal moved into Brazil
 - Spain built up power in the Caribbean, using islands such as Cuba, Puerto Rico, and Hispaniola (now Haiti and the Dominican Republic) as bases
- Mainland fell to conquistadors (generals who received permission from the crown to bring huge parts of North and South America under Spanish control and to profit themselves while doing so)
 - Juan Ponce de León conquered Florida in 1513
 - Mayans first encountered the Spanish around 1502, and various Mayan communities and city-states were conquered between the 1520s-1590s
 - Hernán Cortés carried out the brutal conquest of the Aztecs (1519-1521)
 - Capital of Tenochtitlán, renamed Mexico City, became the headquarters for all of New Spain
 - Opened way for Spanish domination of Mexico, Meoamerica, and most of the U.S. Southwest along with California
 - Francisco Pizarro carried out a similar conquest of the Incas in the 1530s
 - Opened the way for Spanish takeover of South America
- Horses, metal armor, and gunpowder weapons gave the Spanish and Portuguese sizable military advantages, which made up for their small numbers
 - Cortés brought a few hundred men, while Pizarro led barely over a hundred
- Adept at the divide-and-conquer tactics, where they stirred up rivalries among native groups and aligned themselves with others
 - Especially effective against the Aztec and Incan Empires whose taxed subjects deeply resented their masters
 - Allowed Cortés to enlarge his forces to a total of 200,000 before moving against Montezuma II of the Aztecs
 - Cortés also gained diplomatic guidance and contracts in the form of Malinche, or Doña Marina, who became his mistress
- Most important reason for Spain and Portugal's triumph over the New World was the diseases brought over as part of the Columbian Exchange (measles, smallpox), which killed indigenous people in massive numbers
 - Estimated at least half of the Americas' original population perished

Life in the Colonies

- Cortés famously said that he came to the Americas for "God, gold, and glory"
 - Conversion of Native Americans to Catholicism was important, particularly to offset the loss of European worshippers to Protestant churches
 - Economic exploitation was the highest priority for Spain and Portugal
- Most important activities were mining and plantation monoculture
 - Silver were mined near Mexico City and at Potosí (Bolivia's "mountain of silver")
 - Sugarcane was the most prized and most labor-intensive cash crop
- At first, Conquistadors governed the land they took over on the crown's behalf, sending one-fifth (la quinta) of their profits back to Spain
- Starting in 1535, New Spain was placed under more direct government control as a viceroyalty ("in place of the king")
 - All colonial activity was run by the House of Trade in Seville
 - Three new viceroyalties—Peru, New Cranada (northern South America), and La Plata (southern South America)—had been added by the 1700s

- Initially, the encomienda (“grant”) system gave conquistadors and their agenda the right to enslave American natives
 - Declared against their will to be subjects of Spain
 - Continued vulnerability to Euro-African diseases lessened their usefulness as a labor force
 - Many Catholic clergy, including Bartolomé de las Casa, author of the influential Account of the Destruction of the Indies (1542-1552), judged encomienda slavery to be too inhumane
 - Abolished in the early 1540s
- Spanish continued exploiting native workers in other ways, including low pay and dreadful working conditions
- In the Andes, the Spanish took the mit’a system (form of coerced labor utilized previously by the Incas) and adapted it for their own purposes
- Spanish became increasingly reliant on the importation of slaves from Africa
 - More durable than the vulnerable Native American workers
 - Racism caused them to be viewed as less worthy of salvation and protection
- History of the slave trade:
 - Began by the Portuguese in the 1400s
 - Brought to Brazil and the Carribean by the 1510s
 - First shipments to the New World began in the 1520s
 - Resulting Atlantic slave trade continued well into the 1800s
 - Brazil, the largest importer of African slaves, was the last country in the Americas to outlaw slavery (1888)

The Northern Wave: The French, Dutch, and English

- During the 1500s, other European nations (France, the Dutch Republic, England) began to explore and colonize
- Spain and Portugal were anxious to lock these “northern wave” countries out of Atlantic exploration
 - Wealth, military power, and Catholic-Protestant rivalry (except in the case of France) was at state
- French, Dutch and English mariners turned to Arctic and North Atlantic voyaging
 - Only places open to new exploration (dismissed by the Spanish and Portuguese)
 - Hoped to find a Northeast Passage (through Russia’s northern coast) or a Northwest Passage (through Canada’s northern waters) to Asia
 - Did not succeed in the original goal, but did discover rich fishing and whaling grounds
 - Developed interest in the northern coast of North America
- By the late 1500s, the three nations had grown strong enough and sufficiently skilled at seafaring to challenge the Spanish and Portuguese for control over Carribean, Indian Ocean, and Pacific sea routes, and even ports and colonies
- Indigenous populations in eastern North America fell victim to Afro-Eurasian diseases brought by the English, French, and Dutch (especially smallpox) in much the same way that native groups did in the Portuguese-and-Spanish-controlled territories to the south and west

French Exploration

- Colonial presence in North America began in Canada
 - In the 1530s, Jacques Carter charted the St. Lawrence River
 - During the early 1600s, France established its first cities (including Quebec, founded by Samuel Champlain in 1608)
 - Created the Company of New France in the 1620s
- Later in the 1600s, the French moved southward and claimed the vast Louisiana territory (included the Great Lakes, Mississippi basin)
 - Highest priority was the fur trade
- French hunters and trappers were more adept at cooperating with Native Americans (especially the Hurons and Algonquins) than other Europeans
 - Adapted to local customs and environments
 - Less numerous, which relieved tensions
 - More interested in fur hunting than farming, which meant less competition over land ownership
 - In contrast, agricultural interest of the English settlers drew them more directly into conflict with the Native Americans

- In the south and along the Gulf of Mexico, the French challenged the Spanish
 - Seized Caribbean islands (including Martinique and Saint-Domingue (now Haiti))
 - Grew sugarcane and coffee
- Also in the 1600s, competed with the Portuguese for trade in the Indian Ocean
- France's principle enemy in the 1700s was England, who took Canada from France as a result of the French and Indian Wars (1756-1763), which was an offshoot of the Seven Years' War in Europe
 - Province of Quebec retained French heritage
 - French-speaking Acadians in the east were forced to resettle in Louisiana, where their descendants are still known as Cajuns

Dutch Exploration

- Resentment from the Dutch due to their long war of independence against Spain (1568-1648) led Dutch mariners to disrupt Spanish trade and attack Spanish-controlled port worldwide
 - Treated the Portuguese in much the same way
 - Seized the port of Melaka, the island of Sri Lanka, much of West Africa, and a number of Caribbean islands by 1600
- The Dutch East India Company, a joint-stock enterprise founded in 1602, oversaw operations in the East Indies
 - Captured the Havanese city of Jakarta in 1619, renamed it Batavia, and used it as a capital from which to colonize the East Indies (modern-day Indonesia)
 - Ran pepper and spice plantations
- The Dutch West India Company was established in 1621 to oversee Caribbean colonies
- Dutch also controlled the New York region for a time
 - Hired Henry Hudson to explore it in 1609
 - Dutch settlers bought the island of Manhattan from a local Native American tribe
 - Built New Amsterdam, which thrived as a commercial center under the leadership of Peter Stuyvesant

English Exploration

- Voyages of John Cabot, who attempted to find a Northwest Passage to Asia through Canada's Arctic waters, helped the English claim parts of North America in as early as the 1490s
- Moved into the New World in the 1500s as part of their commercial and naval rivalry with Spain
 - Established a presence in the Caribbean (particularly on Barbados and Jamaica), where they grew sugar
 - Gained knowledge of global navigation through conflicts with Spain and Portugal
 - Francis Drake became the first Englishman to sail around the world (1577-1580) during a voyage whose main purpose was to raid Spanish ships and ports
- Established colonies on the North American mainland in the 1600s
 - First successful settlement was Jamestown, Virginia, founded in 1607 and led by John Smith
 - Pocahontas was indispensable in forging relations between the Jamestown colony and the local Native Americans
 - Saved the life of John Rolfe from her father, the chief
 - Later married one of the colonists
 - Similar to Malinche with Cortés in Mexico
 - Joined by religious minorities fleeing persecution in England
 - Mayflower Pilgrims landed at Plymouth Rock in 1620
 - Puritans founded the Massachusetts Bay Colony in 1628
 - Quaker William Penn established Pennsylvania
- Economics mattered in the New World
 - Took sugarcane, timber, corn, potatoes, and tobacco
 - Hudson Bay's Company, established in 1670, intruded into Canada and other French colonies to search for furs
 - Coerced labor included the colonists who became indentured servants to pay for their passage to the New World and the African slaves brought over by the Atlantic slave trade
- Also ventured into the Indian Ocean Basin and South Asia

- First expedition to the Indies was in 1591, where they interfered with Portuguese trade and forced them to abandon some of their outposts and ports
- Founded British East India Company to manage economic and military relations with South and Southeast Asia
- Gained presence in northwestern India by 1608 and eventually took over more of the subcontinent
- Seized the the port of Melaka from the Dutch in 1795

Russia in Siberia and America

- Cossack leader Yermak led the armies that began the long process of conquering all of Siberia in the mid-1500s
 - Sent on contract from the merchant family that had been chartered by the tsar to develop the Russo-Siberian frontier
- Native Siberians were subject to the coerced-labor system known as the yasak
 - Required them to pay tribute and hunt fur-bearing animals for the Russians
 - Led to bitter wars between the Russians and the indigenous populations
 - At least 80 percent of native Aleutians are said to have perished from Russian colonization due to violence, the spread of disease, and alcoholism
- Russia extended its reach to North America after establishing a land empire in Siberia (1500s-1600s)
 - Reached Siberia's Pacific coast in the 1600s
 - Set their sights on Alaska and other parts of North America
 - Organized the Bering Expedition (1730s-1740s), which was a scientific venture to survey the waters separating Siberia from North America
 - Established a colony in Alaska in the late 1700s, which was administered by the Russian-American Company
 - Moved down the Pacific Coast and reached as far south as northern California
 - Sold all American possessions to the United States in 1867

Major States and Empires

- World's geopolitical balance was hugely altered in favor of Europe during this era
 - Outclassed China and the Islamic gunpowder states by the late 1700s
 - Power would only grow during the 1800s

Europe

- Most European states became nation-states in the modern sense of the word
 - Politically and administratively centralized units with fixed borders
 - Sense of national unity
 - Mostly homogeneous populations in terms of language and culture
- In Central and Eastern Europe, especially in Russia, serfdom remained in place much longer than in Western Europe, where it faded away for the most part following the Renaissance
- Centralization allowed European monarchs to become more powerful
 - Asserted power with more confidence
 - Abandoned weak institutions of feudalism
 - Competition between monarchs and the noble aristocracies, who were anxious to hold onto the feudal privileges their ancestors had been granted during the Middle Ages

Absolutism

- One of the major forms of government that emerged was absolutism
 - Monarch was theoretically all-powerful with no legal restrictions on power
 - Tended to have censorship and restrictions on social mobility
 - Typically justified by the doctrine of divine right, according to which the monarch reigns by the will of God
 - Could be handicapped by weak personalities, uncooperative nobles, or unreliable armies
- Most nations in Europe (Austria, Prussia, Russia) attempted to build absolute monarchies
 - Peter the Great westernized Russia in the late 1600s and early 1700s and forced his nobles to serve the state according to a strict Table of Ranks

- Fredrick the Great of Prussia, a skilled general who made his kingdom vastly more efficient but also more autocratic in the mid-1700s
- Europe's archetypal absolute monarch was Louis XIV of France, the Sun King, who ruled from 1661-1715
 - Impacted by the Fronde (1648-1653), a civil war led by powerful nobles who resented the crown's growing power, in his youth
 - Louis's father was dead and his mother governed as regent
 - Made the throne seem vulnerable for aristocrats to strike
 - Aristocrats were defeated in the end
 - Traumatized Louis enough that he determined as an adult to force noble obedience at all costs
 - Centralized the French bureaucracy
 - Shifted administrative power from traditionally powerful families (nobility of the sword) to civil servants that he himself entailed and who therefore owed him loyalty (nobility of the robe)
 - Illustrated the advantages and weaknesses of absolute monarchy
 - Turned Paris and his palace of Versailles into an impressive centers of power
 - Built the largest army and navy Europe has ever seen since the fall of Rome
 - Persecuted Protestants, even though they had been granted religious freedom in the late 1500s
 - Involved France in too many wars and accumulated a national debt that would worsen in the 1700s and eventually help cause the French Revolution

Parliamentarism

- Another form of government was parliamentarism
 - Ruler governed with a lawmaking body appointed by the aristocracy or elected by some or all of its people
 - Tended to develop intellectual and cultural outlooks that were relatively open and free from religious persecution
 - Skewed to have greater social mobility than in absolutist states
- A smaller number of European states chose parliamentarism
 - Dutch developed a parliamentary system in which there was only the stadtholder (an executive official) who shared power with the States General (a large council) as they freed themselves from Spanish rule in the late 1500s
 - Also includes other minor states like Venice
- The most famous parliamentary system arose in England
 - Monarchs had been compelled to share power with the Parliament since the 1200s, including strong-willed monarchs like Henry VIII and his daughter Elizabeth I during the 1500s
 - Parliament grew increasingly stronger, while the monarchy steadily weakened
 - Power shifted decisively in favor of Parliament in the 1600s
 - Parliamentary forces won the English Civil War (1640-1649)
 - Led to the execution of the king
 - Temporary assumption of power by the Puritan parliamentarian Oliver Cromwell
 - Royal family returned in 1660, and the rivalry between monarch and Parliament resumed again
 - Parliamentary forces overthrew the king once again in the Glorious Revolt of 1688
 - Invited Dutch prince William of Orange to become king, with conditions
 - Had to sign the English Bill of Rights, which curtailed the powers of the monarch and made Parliament dominant in the English political system

The Middle East

- The Ottoman Empire, centered in present-day Turkey, and the Safavid Empire in Persia emerged as strong political units after decades of political confusion
 - Highly centralized, technologically advanced, and militarily powerful
 - Referred to as gunpowder empires (along with Mughal India) because of their mastery of new weaponry and their effective use of it in accumulating regional might in the 1500s-1600s

Ottoman Empire

- History of the Ottomans:

- Originally nomads from Central Asia that established their own state in the 1290s
- Gained hegemony over the Middle East in the 1300s-1400s and restored central authority
- Accomplished the conquest of Constantinople in 1453 by making effective use of gunpowder artillery
- Further expanded into southeastern Europe and across most of North Africa (except Morocco) in the early 1500s, led by Muleiman the Magnificent
- Presence lingered until the late 1800s and early 1900s
- Ottoman sultans borrowed many state-building techniques from the past
 - Selim I claimed religious authority as well as political power in the 1500s, and equated the Ottoman's right to rule with that of the bygone Abbasid caliphates
 - Adopted the centuries-old circle of justice ideology
 - Ruled with as elaborate bureaucracy that was headed by the grand vizier and staffed by lesser viziers and pashas and beys (provincial governors)
 - Other institutions included the devshirme system, the millet system, and the jizya
- Suleiman the Magnificent (1520-1566) was the Ottoman's last gifted sultan
 - Talents as a lawmaker and domestic ruler matched his abilities as a general
 - Began a trend of asserting the sultan's right to shape the law
 - Blended secular dictates with Sharia (Islamic law)
 - Built royal power, but also softened some of the fundamental aspects of Muslim traditions
- Many of Suleiman's successors were mediocre (or worse) and coped ineffectively with key problems in the late 1500s and 1600s
 - Regional autonomy grew, which threatened to pull away far-flung territories and even provinces closer to home
 - Suffered runaway inflation as New World silver flooded the economy
 - Little Ice Age cause terrible famines
 - Military efforts in the early 1600s, against both the Habsburg Empire to the west and the Safavid Persians to the east, went poorly
 - Political and military elites became less interested in state service and more so in guarding their own privileges (sometimes to the point of defying their own sultan)
 - Sultan's authority came under threat during the Celali revolts of the 1590s-1510s
 - Sultan Osman II was assassinated by his janissaries in 1622
- Stability was briefly restored by the Köprülü clan, which provided several capable viziers between 1650s-1680s
- In 1683, the Ottomans launched their last major offensive against Europe and drove deep into Austrian territory
 - The 1683 siege of Vienna seemed likely to open the way for a full-scale invasion of Europe
 - City was saved at the last minute by a massive Catholic counterforce
- The Ottoman Empire entered into a long decline after that pivotal year
 - Austrians responded by pushing far back to the east, although the Ottomans were not completely expelled from Europe
 - Lost much territory to Austria and Russia in the 1700s
 - Never again seriously menaced Europe
 - Global power weakened during the 1700s and 1800s

Safavid Empire

- Persia had been controlled by various Mongol and Zturkic regimes from 1200s onward, but regained their independence in this era
- Ismail I rose to power in 1501, took the ancient title of shah, and proclaimed the Safavid Empire
- Safavid Shahs were devoted to the Shiite form of Islam
 - Converted the majority of Persians to that denomination
 - Warred with their Sunni neighbors in the Ottoman Empire
- Safavid Persia was economically vibrant and Isahan, its chief commercial center, was a hub for the production of silk, ceramics, and Persian rugs
- Abbas the Great (1587-1628) helped the Safavids make effective use of gunpowder weaponry and military slavery

- The Safavids fell in the early 1700s due to a series of famines and plagues, which caused population loss, tax shortfalls, and made the empire vulnerable to attacks by the Uzbeks from Central Asia and Cossacks from Russia

Africa

North Africa

- North Africa came to be ruled by the Ottomans in the 1500s while the rest of the continent was government in a variety of ways
- Morocco was once ruled by the Berbers, but now distinguished itself as the one North African state to remain free from Ottoman rule
 - Invasion of Songhai was motivated by the need for funds to pay for wars against Christian Portugal and Spain

West Africa

- Africa's most powerful states arose in the west
- The Muslim kingdom of Songhai arose to take Mali's place in the mid-1400s
 - Asserted control over Timbuktu and the region's key trade routes
 - Askia Mohammed (1443-1538) was Songhai's most famous ruler
 - Originally a general, but came to the throne by overthrowing the previous monarch (Askia means "usurper")
 - Expanded Songhai's boundaries and created a complex bureaucracy to centralize his power (1493-1528)
 - Used Islam to justify his rule and built many mosques
 - Expanded trade; growing merchant class generated wealth by exchanging salt for gold
 - Inspired The Epic of Askia Mohammed, a classical tale in West African oral tradition and performed by griot storytellers since the 1500s
 - Songhai prospered until civil war and invasion by Moroccan forces destroyed it in the 1580s-1590s
- After the 1400s, the advent of the Portuguese and other Europeans profoundly shaped the development of West African states
 - May have caused certain states to centralize as a way to avoid being taken over, including Kongo, the Ashanti kingdom, Benin, Oyo, and Dahomey
 - Centralizing trend was further reinforced by the labor mobilization needed to clear land for growing corn, which the Europeans had brought from the Americas and which proved enormously helpful in offsetting the agricultural downturn caused by the Little Ice Age
 - Several states attained or maintained power by cooperating with the outsiders at the expense of their neighbors, like Kongo
- Kongo was a Bantu state that took shape around 1400 on the western edge of the modern Congo
 - Portuguese arrived in 1483 and took hostages, but did not conquer outright
 - Compelled Kongo to enter a long and coercive partnership
 - Received favorable trade terms and the right to use their ports
 - Kongo monarchs converted to Catholicism, took European names
 - Although Kongo had little choice, in many ways, its ties to Portugal enriched and strengthened it
 - Acquired gunpowder weapons and defeated fellow African
 - Sold thousands to Portugal as slaves
 - With Dutch help, Kongo expelled the Portuguese in the mid-1600s but fell into disunity and later suffered recolonization
- In the 1600s-1700s, other West African societies likewise warred on and imprisoned their neighbors, then sold the captives to European slavers
 - Ashanti (Asante) kingdom, founded by Osei Tutu in 1680, grew immensely powerful because its leaders sold gold and slaves to Europeans in exchange for muskets and gunpowder

South and East Africa

- Portugal established itself as a colonial and trading-post power in South and East Africa as well, but this changed significantly in the mid-1600s

- Dutch colonizers called Boers or Afrikaners gained control of South Africa
 - Enslaved the Africa herding tribes nearest to them, including the peaceful Xhosa
 - Wars broke out between the Zulu, the Boers, and the English who arrived later
- Portuguese power in East Africa was broken during the 1600s-1700s by other Europeans (Dutch, English) and by the Omani Arabs
- The Omani Arabs rose up against Portuguese rule in the 1650s
 - Expelled them from their home port of Muscat
 - Proceeded down the East African coast (1690s-early 1700s)
 - Pushed them out of many cities, including Zanzibar and Mombasa
- Despite this, Portugal maintained a colonial presence in parts of East Africa for a long time to come

East Asia

China

- China grew bureaucratically and strategically stagnant in the late 1500s and 1600s
- Ming opened China up to the European traders and Christian missionaries (especially Jesuit) who began arriving in the 1500s. The Portuguese arrived first, followed by the Spanish and Dutch.
- For the Ming, the 1600s were a time of rapid decline
 - Government control decentralized
 - Massive influx of silver from the Portuguese and Spanish triggered inflation and economic breakdown
 - Little Ice Age led to famines and the cooling led to a limitation on the land's capacity to support growth
 - Effort to put more land into cultivation led to deforestation, which resulted in devastating floods
- The Ming state's inability to solve these problems prompted Li Zicheng's peasant revolt in the 1630s and early 1640s
 - Toppled Ming regime, which ended with the suicide of the last emperor
 - Opened the door for external conquest by the Manchus, the Turkic people living to China's northeast
- The new dynasty was called Qing ("pure") and lasted from 1644-1912
 - Early Qing rulers were skilled warlords and spent the late 1600s consolidating their rule over southern China and expanding it to include the island of Formosa (now Taiwan)
 - Gained control over Mongolia, Tibet, and much of Central Asia
 - Forced many neighboring areas into their tributary system
 - Manchus (1 million) subjugated their Chinese subjects (250 million) by enforcing the ethnically based system of social stratification
- Starting in the 1690s, the Qing traded with European nations but regulated trade tightly and limited foreign contacts as much as possible
 - Christianity banned in 1724
 - By the the 1750s, foreign trade was funneled through a handful of ports and border cities (most important was Canton, on the Pacific coast)
 - Sold a high volume of tea, silk, and porcelain, but allowed few imports
 - Policy of trade protectionism made China wealthy but also angered its European trading partners
- During the late 1600s and early 1700s, the Qing emperors were capable administrators and strong centralizers
- Kangxi emperor (1661-1722) is widely considered one of China's greatest rulers
 - Adept general, just lawgiver, and a sponsor of culture and learning
 - Bolstered Qing authority by claiming to have the mandate of heaven and patronizing Confucianism, with its emphasis on respect for authority
 - Appreciated the importance of the West's growing technological aptitude, unlike his successors
- In the late 1700s, Qing emperors grew more complacent with respect to scientific and technological advancement and left the country open to foreign domination in the 1800s

Japan

- The shogunate regime decentralized during the 1300s and 1400s
 - Civil war, banditry, and economic breakdowns became the norm (late 1400s and 1500s)
 - Disunity led Japan open to European influence when the Portuguese arrived in the 1530s, followed by Spanish and Dutch trader and missionaries

- Europeans introduced gunpowder weapons into Japan
- The reunification of Japan lasted from 1560-1615 and was complete by three warlords
 - The first two relied on gunpowder weaponry and an increasingly harsh system of social stratification to defeat their enemies and restore civic order
 - Tokugawa Ieyasu, a brilliant and ruthless commander, finished the process by declaring himself shogun in 1603 and bringing the entire country under his control by 1615
 - Japan's capital moved to the city of Edo (modern-day Tokyo)
- The Tokugawa era, which lasted until 1868, is often referred to as the "great peace"
 - Came at the price of increased autocracy and social hierarchy
 - Emperor remained a figurehead
 - Caste system (samurai, peasants, artisans and merchants, and eta "untouchables") was justified by Confucian ideology and became more rigid than before
 - Ordinary citizens (non-samurai) were forbidden to possess weapons or serve as soldiers
 - Tokugawas maintained monopoly on gunpowder technology
 - Salaried samurai served as bureaucrats and civil servants now that their warrior function was no longer needed
- Another feature of Tokugawa policy was isolationism, which was a trend from their predecessors in the late 1500s
 - Feared the influence of foreign ideas and further importation of gunpowder weapons
 - Officially discouraged Christianity
 - National seclusion policy, instituted in the 1630s, restricted foreign access to an artificial island, Dejima, off the port of Nagasaki
- Despite restrictions on trade, the economy flourished
 - Biggest trading partner was the Dutch East India Company and the Western scientific knowledge that made its way into the country was popularly known as "Dutch learning"
 - Population grew rapidly
 - Rice production more than doubled between 1600 and 1720
 - High levels of urbanization
 - Elaborate network of roads and canals built by the government
 - Great producers of lacquerware, pottery, and steel
 - Merchant class gained economic and social clout in the 1600s and 1700s, despite their low standing in the caste system

South Asia

- India was still ruled by the Delhi Sultanate in the late 1400s, although it had been weakening for decades
- In 1520, the Central Asian warlord Babur, a descendent of Timur, invaded the sultanate from the north
 - Led to the 1526 establishment of the Mughal Empire
 - Mughal is the Persian word for "Mongol"
- The Mughal Empire eventually conquered the rest of India and ruled for the next several centuries
 - India was turned into one of the Islamic world's three gunpowder states
 - Bureaucratic centralization turned the previous autonomous landowning zamindar class into regional governors and tax collectors
 - The economy thrived thanks to a boom in India's cotton trade
 - Rulers remained famous for having sponsored a rich artistic and literary style based on Indo-Persian cultural fusion
- Mughal rule reached its peak under Akbar the Great (1556-1605)
 - Used gunpowder weaponry to complete the conquest of India
 - Reformed taxes and the law code
 - Gained fame for his religious tolerance
 - Abolished the jizya tax and encouraged friendly relations among Muslims, Buddhists, Hindus, and Sikhs
 - Ensured that a minimum percentage of government officials were Hindu
 - Married a Hindu princess
 - Attempted to outlaw the Hindu funeral custom of sati, without success
- Akbar's grandson, Shah Jahan was also a benevolent ruler

- Left behind a great cultural history that includes the Taj Mahal
- The Mughal's fortune took a downward turn under Akbar's great-grandson, Aurangzeb (1658-1707)
 - Militant Muslim who abandoned the policy of religious flexibility
 - Reimposed the jizya and began forcing non-Muslims to live under Sharia and Muslim dietary restrictions
 - Stirred civil strife and impacted the economy negatively
 - Militarized India's Sikhs by putting their guru (leader) to death in 1675
 - Provoked the secession of the Maratha Empire, a Hindu state founded by the warrior-sovereign Shivaji in west-central India
- The Mughal state declined during the 1700s as religious struggles continued and many provinces joined the Sikh and Maratha states in declaring independence
 - Struggle to control rebellious states can be compared to the difficulty experienced by the Ottomans with outlying regions in their own empire, although religious differences matter more in India and more states successfully broke away
- European interference also disrupted economic and political life in the Indian Ocean basin in the 1600s.
 - English built textile factories near Calcutta and Madras
 - Western gateway port of Bombay (now Mumbai) was ceded to the British East India Company in 1661
 - Dutch East India Company established bases in Ceylon (now Sri Lanka), in addition to those in Indonesia and Melaka
 - French created a garrison and trading center on Pondicherry, on the east coast
- During the 1700s, European control over India increased
 - In the beginning, European presence was concentrated on the coastline
 - By the 1740s, large numbers of French and British troops were clashing for the right to colonize more of the interior
 - In the 1750s, during the Seven Years' War, the English defeated key Indian allies of the French, after which they turned to the domination of India itself
 - English easily triumphed, although they kept many Mughal rulers in place as puppets
- Spanish control over the Philippines, cemented in the 1570s, is also worth remembering, especially because of the role Manila played in the global silver trade

The Americas

- Fell under European control in the 1500s in the form of colonial regimes or joint-stock companies, with some episodes of indigenous resistance

War and State Rivalries

Military Revolution

- A number of Eurasian states experienced the military revolution between 1500-1700
 - Process in which gunpowder weaponry was fully incorporated into war
 - Includes adopting cannons and muskets, readjusting one's military strategies, replacing medieval castles with gunpowder fortresses, and learning how to safely install cannons on ships
 - Entails the development of bureaucracies capable of conscripting larger amounts of soldiers, training them, and supplying them
- Levels of development among states:
 - Although China invented the gunpowder, it was the slowest to undergo this process and only did so partially
 - Gunpowder empires of Ottoman Turkey, Safavid Persia, and Mughal India started out strong in the 1500s but stagnated in the 1600s and 1700s
 - Military modernization played out most thoroughly and efficiently in Europe, which was a major cause of its rise to global dominance in the 1700s and 1800s

Major Conflicts

- Major conflicts of this era erupted over several issues: religious disputes, competition over trade routes, and long-standing territorial rivalries
- Franco-Habsburg hostilities divided Europe in the 1500s and early 1600s

- Catholic-Protestant religious wars divided Europe in the 1500s and early 1600s
 - Culminated in the Thirty Years' War (1618-1648)
 - Weakened Spain and Austria but strengthened France
- France became engaged in an Anglo-French rivalry that lasted from the late 1600s to the early 1800s
 - Resulted in the Seven Years' War (1756-1763)
 - Shifted control of Canada and India to Great Britain
 - Set into motion the chain of events that led to the American Revolution by increasing the costs of defending the American colonies
- The Ottoman-European rivalry played out in south-eastern Europe and in the Mediterranean
 - Turks had the advantage in the beginning with the 1453 conquest of Constantinople and the campaigns of Suleiman the Great in the 1520s
 - Balance tipped towards the Europeans after the Ottoman's failed 1685 siege of Vienna
- In West Africa, Songhai-Moroccan conflict led to the destruction of the former after the crucial battle of Tondibi in 1591
- The Indian Ocean basin was the scene of an Ottoman-Safavid competition over trade and religious differences (Sunni Islam vs. Shiite Islam) as well as the Omani-European rivalry for influence over the East African coast
- European powers competed with each other over trade routes worldwide, which included piracy in the Caribbean

Cultural Developments and Interactions (1450-1750)

Print Culture and the Impact of Ideas

- Moveable-type printing press was one of the most transformative inventions of this era
 - Reached its heyday after the 1430s, when Johannes Gutenberg developed a cost-effective, easy-to-use version of the press in the German city of Mainz
 - Started in Europe and eventually moved throughout Eurasia and the Americas
 - Disseminated information over ever-greater distances and to increasingly large audiences
 - Elevated literacy rates by creating more materials to read and more incentive to read
 - Spinoff effect include the expansion of libraries, publishers, schools, universities, and museums

Religious Developments

- Religions remain central to the lives of many people (cause of conflicts, political justification), even as it diversified

Divisions: New Sects and Denominations

Buddhism

- Rift grew larger among the older Theravada Buddhism (South Asia, simplicity, meditation) and the newer Mahayana Buddhism (East Asia, rituals, deities, afterlife)
- Among Mahayana traditions, approaches like Zen differed from sects like Pure Land
- Tibetan Buddhism (Central Asia, Turkic, Mongol) developed its own traditions as well

Islam

- Sufism (spiritual communion with Allah over doctrinal strictness) continued to flourish after taking root between the 900s-1300s
- The Sunni-Shiite split, which had divided the Muslims since the mid-600s became more pronounced due to Shiism taking hold in Safavid Persia
- Tensions paralleled the ongoing conflict between Sunni Ottoman Empire and Shiite Persia
- Shiite Muslims believe that Mohammed's son-in-law Ali, not the Umayyad caliphs, were Mohammed's rightful successor
 - Correct interpretations of Islamic doctrine and Sharia law flow from the teachings of the imams (twelve religious authorities)
 - Now-standard form of Shiism is known as Twelver Shiism
 - Imams include Ali and the eleven leaders who followed him until the mid-800s
 - The Twelfth Imam (Hujjat-Allah al-Mahdi) did not die, but rather entered a hidden spiritual state from which he is someday to return as the Mahdi (a messiah)

Christianity

- Eastern Orthodoxy (Byzantium) and Roman Catholicism (central and western Europe) suffered a series of grave crises that weakened their power
 - Byzantium's gradual decline and destruction in 1453 left Orthodoxy politically weak and confined mainly to Europe's Slavic and Balkan periphery
 - Power and prestige of the papacy waned due to its forced transfer from Rome to Avignon (France) for most of the 1300s, then to several decades of confusing and painful rivalry between two papacies that both claimed allegiance from all Catholics
 - Even after the reinstatement of a single papacy, the situation worsened during the 1400s due to growing corruption within the Catholic hierarchy; church offices were sold (not earned by merit) and indulgences (certificate of forgiveness of sins) were granted in exchange for money
 - Much of the willingness to address Church problems had to do with the questioning spirit of the Renaissance
 - However, until the early 1500s, Catholic authorities were able to crush any opposition
- The Protestant Reformation began in 1517, when the German monk Martin Luther protested the sale of indulgences
 - Wrote the Ninety-Five Theses, which launched a general attack against church abuses in certain parts of Catholic doctrine
 - Refused the pope's orders to retract his criticisms and was excommunicated and threatened with arrest and death
 - Took shelter with sympathetic political figures after becoming a fugitive
 - Founded a new church in the 1520s called Lutheranism, which was the first of Europe's major Protestant denominations
- Other movements in the Protestant Reformation emerged, aided by the printing press
 - French scholar John Calvin preached an even stricter form of Protestantism, which argued that God knew whether a person would be saved or not from the beginning of time
 - Established a theocratic community in the Swiss city of Geneva
 - Spread to France (among the Huguenots, an oppressed minority), the Dutch Republic (the Reformed Church), parts of England (the Puritans), and Scotland (the Presbyterians)
 - In England, King Henry VIII formed the Protestant Church of England (Anglican Church)
- Other than dissatisfaction with the Catholic Church, Protestants differed from Catholics in terms of religious beliefs and practices as well
 - Believed that only God's forgiveness (not good works, observance of rituals, or the power of the pope) could bring a worshipper to heaven
 - Favored institutional simplicity in contrast to the Catholic bureaucracy
 - Sacraments (Christian rite) were less important
 - Did not venerate the saints of the Virgin Mary
 - Allowed clergy to marry
- In response to the Protestant Reformation, the Catholic Church subjected itself to a process of change called the Catholic Counter-Reformation in the mid-1500s
 - Eliminated the worst of its corruption
 - Reaffirmed the authority of the pope and gave new powers to the Holy Inquisition
 - Created an Index of Forbidden Books that remained in place until the 1960s
 - Used art and architecture to impress worshippers with Catholicism's might and grandeur, including the construction of St. Peter's Basilica from 1506-1626, which still remains the largest Christian Church building in the world
- Europe suffered a series of religious wars between the 1520s and 1640s as Catholic monarchs tried in vain to stem, even reverse, the spread of Protestantism

Missionary Activity and Syncretism

- Missionary activity, in conjunction with trade and colonization, spread certain faiths over wide distances
 - Active proselytization (conversion) of Buddhism in Asia

- Christianity experienced the most massive growth
- The global spread of Christianity, starting in the late 1400s, went hand and hand with European colonization and exploration
 - Catholic priests (including the Jesuit Francis Xavier) brought Christianity to South and East Asia soon after Spanish and Portuguese expeditions arrived
 - Even more dramatic was the importation of Christianity to North and South America, first by the Catholic Spanish and Portuguese, then also by French Catholics and Protestant English and Dutch
 - Almost monolithic Catholicization of Latin America
- The development of new syncretic religions were mainly caused by Europe's colonization of the New World and the forcible transfer of enslaved Africans
 - Vodun (voo-doo) developed among African-descended populations throughout the Caribbean due to the mixing of spirit worship from West Africa with the animistic practices native to the Americas and also with elements drawn from Christianity
 - A cult of saints, in which indigenous worshippers came to identify their own polytheistic deities with the array of saints venerated by Catholics, was created in Latin America
 - Encouraging or tolerating this logic made it easier for European missionaries to win converts in the Americas
 - In Mexico, Aztecs and other Nahuatl-speaking natives equated Mary with their own mother goddess, giving rise in the 1500s and 1600s to stories and icons of the Virgin of Guadalupe
 - An identical process can be seen in the Andes, where icons of the Virgin of Cerro Rico portrayed Mary as the spirit goddess who embodies the "silver mountain" of Potosí, which appealed to the indigenous laborers who toiled in the Potosí mountains
- Although many consider Sikhism an independent tradition, it is categorized by others as syncretic, joining aspects of Hinduism with a monotheism perhaps inspired by Islam
 - Founded in the late 1400s in India's Punjab region by Guru Nanak
 - Early Sikh gurus led the religion until the death of the tenth in 1708
 - Taught that meditation and virtuous behavior would help worshipper penetrate the veil of maya (worldly illusion) and thereby come to know Waheguru, the one true god
 - Originally pacifist but embraced a warrior culture during the 1600s because of growing persecution in Mughal India
 - Mughal emperor Aurangzeb killed the guru and provoked the creation of a Sikh army called the Khalsa
 - Has almost 30 million followers in the present

Trends in Art, Literature, and Architecture

General Developments

- Cultural interaction was boosted in this era by the European exploration campaign
- Languages, religions, artistic traditions, and music from the Americas were profoundly impacted by the importation of Europeans and African culture
- The political use of art and architecture continued, which also included cultural patronage, the organizing of elaborate court dances, and the staging of musical or dramatic performances
 - The French palace of Versailles was built by Louis XIV to demonstrate his power as an absolute monarch and was avidly imitated by other European rulers
 - China's Summer Palace was an exquisite garden complex constructed near Beijing by Qing rulers
 - The Grand Palace of Isfahan (Naqsh-e Jahan Square) was a grand display of Persian might, featuring the Shah Abbas Mosque
 - The Blue Mosque in Istanbul was built to distract attention from Ottoman military defeats at the hands of Persia
 - The Red Fort in Delhi was the residence of the Mughal emperors, erected by Shah Jahan, who also commissioned the Taj Mahal
- The availability of culture increased, eventually leading to genres of art and literature that specifically targeted popular audiences
 - Includes novels like Cervantes's, theatrical productions like Shakespeare's, and artwork commissioned by the increasingly prosperous merchant and middle-class patrons during the Renaissance and beyond

Cultural Innovations by Region

Europe

- In Europe, the Renaissance, which had begun in the late 1200s and early 1300s, spread to the rest of Europe and continued until the early 1600s
 - Italy was in the midst of its High Renaissance (Michelangelo and Leonardo da Vinci) by the late 1400s and early 1500s
- The Northern Renaissance featured several notable figures
 - Dutch philosopher Erasmus was known for his religious debates with Luther as well as his satirical novel *In Praise of Folly*
 - English scholar Thomas More invented the term “utopia” in his book of the same name and lost his life as a Catholic resisting king Henry VIII’s Anglicanism
 - Spanish novelist Miguel de Cervantes was the author of *Don Quixote*, the tale of an aged knight bewildered by Europe’s transition from the medieval ages
 - English poet and playwright William Shakespeare
- During the 1700s, Europe, as well as its American colonies, experienced the Enlightenment, a philosophical and intellectual movement
 - Put full confidence in the power of rational thought to solve social and political problems and to understand the wider world
 - Prided in logic and progressive ideas
 - Provided much of the intellectual justification for the American and French Revolutions in the late 1700s
 - Inspired by the Scientific Revolution and by certain philosophers in the late 1600s (notably John Locke of England)

Middle East

- Islamic culture was dominated by a synthesis of Arabic, Turkish, and Persian elements
- Ottoman architectural innovation reached its peak in the 1500s and 1600s due mainly to Mimar Sinan, who was a military engineer
 - Designed more than 80 mosques, including the Süleymaniye Mosque, which was commissioned by Suleiman the Magnificent in the 1550s to surpass the glory of the Hagia Sophia mosque (which had originally been built as a Christian cathedral)
 - One of Sinan’s students, Sedefkar Mehmed Agha, built Istanbul’s Blue Mosque in the early 1600s
- Carpet weaving stood out as a key art form and as a profitable enterprise in both Turkey and Persia
- The tradition of miniature painting, which arose in Persia during the 1300s and 1400s and then spread to the Ottoman Empire and Mughal India in the 1500s, was also distinctive
 - Vibrantly colored illustrations were collected in *muraqqas* (albums)
 - Featured many subjects, including portraits, because Islam’s traditional disapproval of depicting human subjects had always been weaker in Persia than in Arabia
 - Did not strive for the level of exact realism that Renaissance artists in Europe did, nor were the laws of perspective followed as rigorously because there was a religious-philosophical conviction that the physical world was imperfect and that art should present a more idealized version of reality
 - Most famous were produced at the Herat and Tabriz workshops on Persia and in the Topkapi Palace in Istanbul
 - Best-remembered Ottoman painters are Nakkas Osman (late 1500s) and Levenu (early 1700s)

Africa

- Sculpture and carving remained dominant art forms
 - Materials include wood, metal, and ivory
 - Best-known collections include the Benin and Oyo bronzes produced in West Africa
- Most art was abstract long before the concept of abstraction gained popularity among European artists
- Textiles and basketry were also prominent, featuring complex geometric patterns
- African architecture came to be gradually influenced by the Arab and European colonists, who built fortresses and residences along the coasts of East and West Africa

- Oral tradition overshadowed written works
 - Griots acted as entertainers, historians, musicians, and advisors to kings
 - The Epic of Askia Mohammed glorified the deeds of the Songhai state's founder
 - Sundiata, an earlier saga that did the same for the chieftain who ruled Mali in the 1200s, remained popular

East Asia

- The Ming dynasty remain famous for their fine porcelain as well as literary masterpieces
- Wu Chengen's Journey to the West was a much-loved novel published in the late 1500s
 - Narrated the travels of the seventh-century monk Xuanzang to India in the form of an adventure fantasy starring the mischievous half-beast Monkey King as Xuanzang's companion
 - Style of writing matched how the common people spoke, rather than imitate the old-fashioned prose from earlier dynasties
 - Accessible to the middle classes, not just elite audiences
- In the Qing dynasty, its cultural attainment included the construction of the Summer Palace outside Beijing in the mid-1700s
- Japan's transition to unification under the Tokugawa shogunate (1603-1868) brought about cultural changes
 - Japan's samurai class maintained many original traditions and styles
 - New art forms emerged in response to the growing wealth of merchants and the urban classes
 - Kabuki theater, which featured acrobats, swordplay, and scenes of city life, grew popular, in contrast to the older, more elegant Noh drama favored by the upper classes
 - Ukiyo-e ("pictures of the floating world") painting became more affordable thanks to woodblock printing

South Asia

- The highlight of South Asian culture in the 1500s and 1600s was the Indo-Persian cultural fusion that took place under India's Islamic Mughal rulers
 - Miniature painting also caught on as a dominant art form
- This was also an age of architectural magnificence in India
 - Akbar the Great transformed the northwest city of Lahore into a scrumptious capital and palace complex in the 1580s
 - Agra, where the Mughals relocated their capital in the 1590s, is also home to the Taj Mahal, the white marble mausoleum built by Shah Jahan in memory of his wife
 - Shah Jahan also built the mammoth Red Fort, which was constructed as a royal residence in Delhi

Americas

- The blending of European, African, and indigenous elements gave rise to creole and mestizo traditions, along with other mixed cultures
- European arrival caused literature and writing to assume widespread importance for the first time in a region where written scripts had been extremely rare over the course of many centuries
- A sense of racial and religious superiority prompted European colonizers to alter or destroy the customs and beliefs of indigenous Americans, and much native culture was forever lost as a result
 - Spanish priests burned nearly every existing manuscript that contained Mayan writing between the 1540s and 1580s
 - Only inscriptions on pottery and stone survived, but they would take centuries to decipher
- The Aztecs fared somewhat better thanks to the Mesoamerican codices of the 1500s
 - Example of interchange between native and European literary practices
 - Approximately 1500 of these texts survived, produced by Aztec converts of Catholicism, often in conjunction with Spanish priests
- Most famous is the Florentine Codex (The Universal History of New Spain), assembled by the Spanish Franciscan friar Bernardino de Sahagún between 1545 and 1590
 - Written partly in Nahuatl, partly in Spanish, and partly in Latin
 - Combine the pre-Columbian practice of codex painting and the European emphasis on writing
 - Most are richly illustrated

- Addresses many subjects, including translations of Aztec pictographs, explanations of Aztec beliefs and customs (religious practices, folk medicine, the calendar system) and occasionally complaints about Spanish abuses
- A similar text from the Andes is called The First New Chronicle (1600-1615), an eleven hundred-page document written and illustrated by the high-born Quechua Felipe Guamán Poma de Ayala
 - Produced exclusively by a native and far more critical of the Spanish
 - Written largely in protest of Spanish policy in the decades following the conquest of the Inca

Technology and Innovation (1450-1750)

- In Europe, there was the greatest increase in scientific knowledge and technological expertise
- Built on the age of exploration and the experience of the Renaissance, the Scientific Revolution laid the groundwork for European industrialization and the remarkable rise in global power that Europe would undergo in the 1800s
 - Began in the mid-1500s and culminated with the career of Isaac Newton in the late 1600s and early 1700s
 - Went beyond the simple absorption of new technologies and the discoveries of isolated scientific concepts
 - Revived the scientific method
 - Yielded a comprehensive understanding of fundamental scientific principles

Marine/Navigational Technology: Continued Innovation

- Navigational technologies imported from Asia were in regular use: the astrolabe (latitude) and the magnetic compass (direction)
- During the Renaissance, the Europeans improved their knowledge of cartography and the movement of stars
 - Produced ever more precise maps and astronomical charts
 - Mercator projection was devised in the mid-1500s
- John Harrison devise the marine chronometer (longitude) in 1761
 - Difficult because it must simultaneously measure one's own local time and the time at one's place of origin
 - The time difference and the physical distance between two points was needed in order to calculate longitude
 - British Admiralty offered a cash prize for whoever could solve this dilemma
- Europeans learned how to build sturdy and maneuverable sailing ships that could travel far into the open ocean
 - Deeper keels for stability
 - Stern-post rudders, which was first used on Chinese junks
 - Mix of square sails and lateen sails on several masts and with complex systems of rigging
- During the 1400s and 1500s, the new mode that first enabled oceanic exploration was the caravel, largely invented by the Portuguese, who combined square and lateen sails for better control over direction
- Large, multimasted ships, like the carrack and the galleon, that were capable of carrying cannons as well as cargo quickly followed
- The Dutch fluyt sacrificed the protection of heavy guns to maximise cargo space while remaining nimble and swift

Gunpowder and the Military Revolution Thesis

- Several parts of Eurasia (Europe, gunpowder empires) experienced the military revolution
 - Concept was originally limited to changes in Europe between the mid-1500s and mid-1600s
 - Expanded into a global trend lasting roughly from 1500 and into early 1700s
- The military revolution thesis deals not just with the technological changes but also with the social and political developments they caused by accelerated
 - Learned to deploy gunpowder artillery and handheld weaponry like muskets in sieges or battles
 - Built new fortresses that were geometrically ornate and very expensive because medieval castle walls proved unable to withstand gunpowder attacks
 - Designed oceangoing ships capable of travelling vast distances and carrying heavy guns (in Europe)

- The social and economic burdens of war were vastly increased
 - Armies grew much larger because they now relied more on gunpowder infantry (relatively easy to train and supply) and less on cavalry (difficult to train and supply and increasingly old-fashioned)
 - High costs incurred from tearing down medieval walls and replacing them with gunpowder fortresses, creating gunship navies, and conscripting many men and paying for their equipment
- The enormous costs involved with converting to the new style of warfare gave many states the incentive they needed to modernize their bureaucracies and tax-gathering systems. Supporters of the military revolution thesis argue, not only did the state make war but war (or at least the need to adapt to new forms of war) made the state
- Many explanations have been put forth to explain Europe's success with gunpowder
 - Older arguments attributed it to Europe's greater hospitality to entrepreneurship and scientific innovation, but these are generally now seen as resting on outdated stereotypes
- The key political difference between Europe and other regions was the lack of a single dominant state that easily eliminated all nearby military rivals in Europe
 - Near-constant warfare among numerous neighboring states created the persistent need to experiment and innovate
 - Regimes like the Ottoman sultanate or the Tokugawa Shoguns had less incentive to devote resources to the constant improvement of gunpowder technology because they have already pacified all opposition in their domains
- In addition to the more competitive environment, Western and Central Europe states were fighting specific kinds of war that made even the most primitive of gunpowder weapons worth investing in
 - First artillery pieces were so heavy, unreliable, and slow to fire that in most circumstances (fast-moving battles, pursuing a mobile enemy) their inefficiency outweighed any advantage that could be gained by their firepower; the exception was siegecraft, where lack of speed mattered less and explosive power helped immensely
 - Warfare in medieval and Renaissance Europe revolved mainly around siege action, making cannons and other forms of artillery immediately useful
 - In contrast, China's most dangerous military threat came from frontier nomads on horseback, who were easily able to avoid any military force with heavy gunpowder weapons
- It is important to put in light the needs of the day—this also applies to other technologies
 - Other states that already possessed material wealth and luxury goods had no need to develop the oceangoing ships that the relatively impoverished Europe needed for exploration (and then turned into platforms for heavy guns)

Europe's Scientific Revolution

- The Scientific Revolution in Europe began in the mid-1500s and continued into the 1600s and early 1700s
 - The Catholic Church continued to have control over much of Europe's intellectual life
 - Certain scholars were moving away from the intellectual Orthodoxy of the Middle Ages, in which a fixed set of ideas taken from certain ancient Greek and Roman thinkers (especially Aristotle) were combined with Catholic doctrine
 - Many of the ideas behind the modern understanding of science was discovered or proved, including the states of matter, the question of whether light consists of waves or particles, the fact that living creatures are made of cells, the concept of the vacuum, and the science of statistics
 - Among the scientific instruments invented or perfected during the 1600s and 1700s were the telescope, the microscope, the pendulum clock, the thermometer, and the barometer
- Polish astronomer Nicolaus Copernicus provided mathematical proof for the heliocentric theory in his 1543 book *On the Revolution of the Heavenly Spheres*
 - The heliocentric theory, according to which the earth and other planets revolved around the sun, ran counter to long-held standard wisdom of the geocentric theory handed down by the Greek scientist Ptolemy
 - The Catholic Papacy supported the geocentric theory because it placed human beings (God's greatest creation) at the heart of all existence
 - It took more than a century after Copernicus published his findings for the heliocentric theory to become widely accepted throughout Europe

- Flemish scholar Andreas Vesalius revolutionized the study of medicine by introducing his new textbooks on anatomy in the 1540s
 - Based on the dissection of corpse, then a controversial and often illegal practice
 - Corrected many of the errors of the ancient Greek authority Galen
 - Improved on the work done by the Persian physician Avicenna
- René Descartes of France and Roger Bacon of England laid the ground-work for formal logic and the modern scientific method in which observation and experimentation are used to prove theoretical hypotheses in the 1600s
- German astronomer Johannes Kepler and the Italian physician Galileo confirmed a popularized Copernicus's theories in the 1600s
 - Kepler also proved the elliptical orbits of the planets, where others had envisioned circular orbits
 - Galileo was tried by the Inquisition and forced to reject his own scientific conclusions in public
 - Galileo's scientific writings remained on the church's index of forbidden books for centuries
- Although some Protestant clergy rejected the new science, Protestant nations such as England and the Dutch Republic became relatively safe havens for scientific pioneers. Only in the 1700s did it become less risky for those in Catholic countries to challenge church doctrine
- Swedish botanist and zoologist Carl Linnaeus devised a system of classification for animals and plants
- Isaac Newton (1642-1727) of England is known for the laws of motion, his thoughts on the concept of gravity, and as one of the two mathematicians who invented the system of calculus
 - Understood scientific thought as a totality
 - Took the discoveries of his day and tied them together into a single system of thought (Newtonian physics), backed up with mathematical proof
 - Wrote Principia (1687), one of the most influential scholarly texts ever written

Economic Systems (1450-1750)

- All sectors of the economy grew, but agriculture remained the dominant mode of production
- While the vast majority of people worked as agriculturalists and lived in rural settings, trade, manufacturing, and banking generated wealth and encouraged significant growth among urban populations
- Interregional trade and agricultural production were both affected by the Little Ice Age

The Early Globalization of Economics

- The European Age of Exploration led to an early stage of economic globalism as Afro-Eurasia was brought into permanent contact with the Americas

Changing Trade Routes and New Trade Goods

- Europe's encounter with the Americas, along with its newfound ability to voyage to Asia and the Indian Ocean basin, reshaped existing patterns of interregional trade
 - Silk Road declined in importance after the 1500s because of the relative slowness and expense of overland transport
- European exploration also caused the rise in the harvesting of animal products over vast distances
 - Fishing and whaling led European ships to venture throughout the Atlantic and into Arctic waters where possible
 - Sea mammal hunting for walrus ivory and for the oil and pelts of seals escalated
 - Fur hunting played an enormous role in the settlement of remote regions like Canada and Siberia

Indian Ocean Basin

- Seaborne trade in the Indian Ocean basin (and the Pacific regions close to it) increased in volume and was also restructured by the Europeans' arrival in the 1400s and 1500s
 - Portuguese established a trading-post empire that consisted of ports along the African coast and weak or amenable parts of Asia (Oman on the Arabian peninsula, Zanzibar and Mombasa in East Africa, Goa in India, Melaka on the Malay peninsula, Macau in China)
 - Dutch, English, and French followed, sometimes replacing the Portuguese in the late 1500s and 1600s
 - All were firmly entrenched in Asia by the early 1700s

- Spain controlled the Philippines, using Manila as a transit point for the shipment of silver from the New World to Asia
- Europe's colonial presence in Asia changed economy and had a noticeable impact on the region
 - Economic activity consisted of moving goods from one Asian market to another and of pumping silver into Asian economies in exchange for goods to sell back home
 - Influx of silver caused inflation
- Europeans also worked to gain thorough control over Indian Ocean sea lanes
 - First used to combat piracy, but later to compete against each other as well as against Muslim fleets
 - Led to naval escalation and paved the way for a larger European military presence in Asia (and eventually full-scale colonization)
 - Set a precedent because no state had ever attempted this before

Atlantic Ocean

- The Atlantic system of trade sprung much more quickly than in the Pacific
 - Columbian Exchange introduced staple foodstuffs (manioc, corn, potatoes) and desirable luxury goods (cacao, tobacco) from the Americas
 - Europeans introduced cotton and sugarcane, which both required backbreaking labor to cultivate and partly caused the lightning rise of the Atlantic slave trade
 - Coffee arrived to the Americas in the 1700s
- During the 1500s and 1600s, Spanish and Portuguese extraction of precious metals (especially silver) from the Americas affected economies around the world
 - Resulted in severe inflation in Afro-Eurasia (Europe, Ottoman Empire, China) because of the huge and sudden influx of silver and gold bullion
 - Caused social and political disruption, up to the point of rebellion
- During the 1600s and 1700s, the expansion of European wealth depended increasingly on the Atlantic network known as the triangular trade system
 - European manufactured goods (metalware, cotton textiles, firearms, gin, rum) would be brought to Africa's west coast and exchanged for gold, ivory, and slaves
 - Voyage would continue to the Americas, where slaves were sold in exchange for sugar, tobacco, furs, cotton, and other raw materials
 - Those materials, along with the gold and ivory from Africa would be shipped back to Europe
 - Atlantic slave trade had a central role in this system

Controlling Trade: Companies and Competition

Companies

- Exploration and exploitation of newfoundlands was risky and expensive, so governments rarely paid for it directly
- Mariners, merchants, explorers, and investors tended to operate under monopoly charters awarded by the state
 - Assumed the costs or risks of exploration or trade that required long voyaging
 - Enjoyed exclusive rights to profit from new territories or markets
- All discovered were considered to belong to the charter-granting nation and a share of earnings might be owed to the government
 - Early Spanish conquistadors handed over to the state a portion of their New World wealth, and all goods and resources extracted had to pass through the state-run Board of Trade in Seville
 - Merchant clans began the mapping and settlement of Siberia, and were authorised by the Russian tsars to search eastward for precious metals and fur-bearing animals
- Elsewhere in Europe, joint-stock companies, which were forerunners of the modern corporation, were formed
 - Common way to share the expenses and risks involved with overseas exploration and trade
 - Allowed investors to pool their funds and receive a share of the profit based on the size of their investment
- Notable joint-stock companies were formed in the 1600s, when nations such as Britain, the Netherlands, and France founded numerous joint-stock companies to oversee commercial and colonial interests in the West Indies, North America, and the East Indies

- Muscovy Company, founded in England during the mid-1500s to carry out trade with Russia via the Arctic, was among the first joint-stock companies
- Most famous were the British East India Company (1600), the Dutch East India Company (1602), the Company of New France (1664), and the Hudson's Bay Company (1670)
- Some joint-stock companies became chiefly or solely responsible for exerting their home nation's political and strategic will overseas, in addition to their role as business entities
 - Dutch East India Company controlled a fleet of over 250 ships at its peak
 - British East India Company maintained an army in South Asia that was larger than Britain's actual army for some time

Competition

- Piracy was common in the Caribbean, the Indian Ocean, and Asia's Pacific and southeastern waters
 - Malay and Japanese pirates were a particular concern in Asian waters
 - Chinese government awarded the Portuguese for suppressing piracy in the region by allowing them to establish a port on Macau
- In the Atlantic and Caribbean, European states relied on the practice of privateering in addition to their own armies
 - Privateering was the licensing of captains who owned their vessels privately to capture enemy ships or raid enemy ports
 - There was a thin line between piracy and privateering
- There were several important trade and colony-related rivalries during this era
 - In Africa in the 1500s, Morocco's desire to increase its share of the gold and salt trades helped to provoke its war against the Songhai Empire
 - In the Atlantic, there was Anglo-Dutch and Anglo-French competition over parts of North America (New York in the case of the former, Canada in the case of the latter) which were both won by the English in the 1600s and 1700s
 - Most European powers quarreled over island colonies and shipping lanes in the Caribbean, or "West Indies"
 - Southeast Asia and India became an arena of competition during the late 1500s and 1600s as the Spanish and Portuguese were elbowed aside by the Dutch, French, and English
 - The Dutch cemented their presence in the "Spice Islands" (in and around present-day Indonesia), while the English during the 1700s, enlarged their presence in the India at the expense of the French
 - The Indian Ocean as a whole witnessed a great deal of trade-related rivalry during the 1600s and 1700s as Ottoman Empire and Safavid Persia dueled for economic influence in addition to the European encroachments
 - Omani-European rivalry erupted in the mid-1600s as the Arab state of Oman rebelled against Portuguese colonial rule, pushed them out of their own territory and Swahili ports such as Zanzibar, and ruled those conquered ports as their own for many decades
 - For some time, the Omani Empire also competed with the British East India Company and other European commercial entities attempting to break into the Indian Ocean markets during the 1600s and 1700s

From Mercantilism to Capitalism and Proindustrialization

- Agricultural production vastly increased, even though much of the world (especially the northern hemisphere) was affected by the Little Ice Age
 - Crops transplanted as a result of the Columbian Exchange (corn, potatoes, and manioc from the Americas) flourished in their new locations
 - More land was brought under cultivation
 - Improved agricultural methods, including better fertilizers and the scientific rotation of crops and fields (which prevented soil from being depleted too quickly), were practiced more commonly
- Other sectors of the economy also grew
 - Trade and banking increased in importance, with merchant classes earning great wealth and rising to positions of prominence

- Manufacturing also expanded, with artisan and craftsman classes growing in size and importance
- Although most manufacturing continued to be done by hand and on a small scale, there was a protoindustrialization, notably in Europe by the 1600s and 1700s
 - Noticeable rise in machine-assisted production and cottage industry
 - Laid the groundwork for actual industrialization in the late 1700s and 1800s
 - Stimulated a greater global demand for raw materials such as cotton (Egypt, India), silk (China) and wool and linen (Europe)
- The dominant economic philosophy in most advanced societies tended to be mercantilism, which assumed a fixed and finite quantity of wealth in the world
 - States viewed all other nations as rivals and aimed for self-sufficiency with the state in control of economic activity
 - Colonies were viewed as economic extension of the homeland (source of raw materials, market for manufactured goods)
- In the second half of the 1700s in Europe, capitalism caught on, which emphasized free trade and argued for less state control of the economy
 - Went hand in hand with industrialization and would soon revolutionize economic life worldwide
- Commercial economies had a boom-and-bust nature that became apparent during the 1600s and 1700s when several financial disasters occurred
 - Resulted from optimistic overinvestment in corporate schemes whose potential profitability turned out to be wildly overvalued
 - Commonly involved investment in foreign trade or exploitation of colonies
- There were many economic bubbles that burst in this era
 - Tulipmania of the early 1600s occurred when Dutch merchants purchased huge quantities of tulips from Ottoman Turkey, causing a terrible crash of the tulip market in 1637
 - Mississippi bubble of 1720, which involved overvalued shares in the Mississippi Company, meant to reap profits from France's New World colonies
 - Great Britain's South Sea Bubble, also in 1720, was due to a similar overinvestment in Pacific territories
- The global rise in productivity and wealth rested on a foundation of coerced labor
 - The Atlantic slave trade was extensive (and formed the heart of the Atlantic world's triangular trade), and so were the Arab slave trade and the market for slaves in Southeast Asia
 - Serfdom was common in Europe, especially in eastern regions like Russia
 - Unfree (or badly treated and poorly paid) labor in the Americas was the basis of plantation and cash-crop agriculture (sugarcane, cotton, coffee)

Social Interactions and Organization (1450-1750)

- Many of the main social trends from the previous era continued, including a high degree of social stratification, a steady move toward greater urbanization, continued reliance on coerced labor, and the perpetuation of a secondary status for women
- New developments include increased class diversification, higher literacy rates, greater accessibility of art and culture, and more varieties of coerced labor
- Higher degree of centralization forced elite classes to adapt to new realities or risk losing their power

Social Classes in Flux

Agriculture

- New forms of peasant labor arose
 - Overseas colonies required intensive labor for plantation agriculture and cash-crop monoculture, which led to an immense strain on peasant populations and typically involved coerced labor if not outright slavery
 - Peasant labor was also involved in the expansion of cotton production in India and the similar enlargement of silk production in China
 - Serfdom arose in Russia during the 1400s and 1500s (and was exported to the Siberian frontier in the 1600s and 1700s) just as many parts of Europe were abandoning the practice or relying less heavily on it

- Serfdom also became increasingly important in Japan
- As governments centralized, state power expanded, and their ability to affect peasant communities grew
 - Taxation grew more efficient and therefore more burdensome
 - Conscription increased as larger armies drafted more serfs and peasants
 - Some states proved unable or unwilling to assist rural populations when floods or bad harvests caused food shortages
- Increasingly often, conditions in the countryside caused enough frustration and desperation to trigger food riots and peasant uprisings
 - German Peasants' War of the 1520s in which 300,000 peasants rebelled against landowners and aristocrats in Central Europe was the largest social disturbance in Europe prior to the French Revolution
 - Ottoman sultans struggled against the Celali revolts of the late 1500s and early 1600s
 - Japan was rocked from the late 1400s through the mid-1500s by the Ikko-ikki revolts and again in the 1630s by the Shimabara rebellion, which both pitted peasants against samurai landowners and high taxes
 - Russia experienced numerous Cossack and serf uprisings in the 1600s and 1700s, including that of Stenka Razin (Robin Hood-style figure) in 1670 and the Pugachev revolt in the 1770s, which shook the regime of Catherine the Great
 - In China, the Ming dynasty was brought down by a peasant war launched in the 1630s by the shepherd and ironworker Li Zicheng, who called for the abolition of grain taxes and the redistribution of land from the upper classes to the farmers. He briefly ruled as China's "Dashing King" until the Manchus toppled him in 1644 and established the Qing dynasty

Urban and Merchant Classes

- The growing importance of artisanry, manufacturing, shopkeeping, unskilled labor, and domestic servitude to middle- and upper-class households led to the enlargement of urban working classes
 - Tended to be near the bottom of the hierarchy, like peasants
 - Commonly suffered poverty and related hardships
- The middle class also increased in urban settings
 - Included highly skilled artisans, professionals (lawyers, physicians), merchants, and bankers
 - Placed a high premium on hard work and education
- The middle classes (especially merchant classes) were frequently in an ambiguous position in regards to their place in the hierarchy
 - On one hand, the economic importance of merchants greatly increased and they often commanded as much wealth (and sometimes informal power) as the elite classes
 - On the other hand, in most societies, elite classes looked down at merchants, scorning trade and the earning of money as somehow beneath them
 - Merchants were mostly categorized as commoners, meaning that no matter how hard they worked or how much wealth they amassed, they found it difficult or impossible to receive the prestige that most elites simply inherited
 - Merchants ended up making valuable contributions in societies where commoners paid taxes and elites did not, but without ever gaining society's full respect
- The merchants class's place in the hierarchy depended on the civilization they lived in, but they tended to fare better in places with a high degree of social mobility
 - Played influential social and political roles (and sometimes, moved into the elite classes) in England, the Netherlands, the Italian city-states (Florence, Venice), and the Swahili city-states
 - Experienced difficulty entering the top levels of society in much of Europe
 - Remained lower class in many parts of Europe
 - Ranked below artisans and peasants (in theory) where Confucianism prevailed (China, Japan)
- Middle class frustrations with existing social orders increased throughout this period, although they would not become a force for change until the late 1700s and 1800s

Elite Classes

- Traditional aristocrats and nobles from the previous era provided military leadership and local governance in decentralized or feudal systems

- Authority depended on inherited status and land ownership
- Theoretically subject to their monarchs, but wielded a great deal of power in their own lands
- Often clashed with the will of the monarch
- Centralization altered the traditional aristocracy as power shifted decisively to the monarch, who compelled nobles and aristocrats to serve their state more actively
 - European nobles, due to monarchical pressure, served as officers in their nations' rapidly expanding armies and navies and as civil servants in their governments' growing bureaucracies
 - Peter the Great created Russia's Table of Ranks shortly after 1700 by requiring all Russian nobles to take positions in the army, the navy, or the civil service if they wished to retain their rights and privileges
 - Landowning zamindars, who had previously enjoyed much local autonomy, were incorporated into the Mughal system as local officials and regional governors
 - The daimyo, Japan's samurai landowning nobility, were masters of their own domains during the feudal disunity of the 1400s and 1500s but were forced into loyalty and service by the Tokugawa shogunate in the 1600s and 1700s
- Modernizing states had the tendency to create or elevate new bureaucratic elites and military professionals
 - In China, the Confucian examination system continued to produce a mandarin class of bureaucrats
 - Salaried samurai took up administrative posts in a Japan that had been made more peaceful by unification after 1600 and no longer required traditional warrior skills
 - Ottoman devshirme system provided the sultan's government not just with janissary gunpowder troops but also with civil servants, which in theory ensured loyalty to the sultan
 - Louis XIV of France transferred many of his state's increasingly important but less glamorous bureaucratic jobs to nobles of the robe: civil servants who were ennobled by Louis himself and therefore owned their loyalty to and continued dependence on the king. This was a deliberate way to centralize at the expense of his powerful traditional aristocrats, known as nobles of the sword in honor of the military roles they had played since the Middle Ages
- Because an aristocrat's wealth depended so much on land ownership profits, the rising importance of trade and commerce (which they tended to disdain) did not work in their favor
 - Merchants, makers, and urban entrepreneurs were generating more wealth and gaining more social and political influence (at least unofficially)
 - Traditional elite had to adapt and work harder to remain relevant
 - Those who failed to do so would fall behind or suffer serious consequences during the 1700s or later

Slavery and Coerced Labor

- Forms of coerced labor increased in variety, as did the number of people who fell under its yoke
- Chattel slavery (the outright ownership of human beings as personal property) was commonly practiced throughout the world

Miscellaneous Forms of Coerced Labor

- Serfdom remained important in places like Japan and the eastern half of Europe (especially Russia, where serfdom formed the bedrock of social and economic life until after the 1800s)
- The Ottoman Empire's devshirme system and the Arab slave trade also continued
- As Russians expanded into Siberia (1500s-1700s), they implemented the yasak, where native populations were forced to work for them and provide them with a yearly quota of fur pelts and other goods
- During the late 1400s and early 1500s, Spain exploited its New World possessions by means of the encomienda system
 - Vulnerability of indigenous Americans to European-borne diseases made them unreliable as a source of labor
 - Catholic clergymen protested the cruelty caused by the encomienda system
 - A Short Account of the Destruction of the Indies by Bartolomé de las Casa swayed Spanish opinion
 - The New Laws of 1542-1543 abolished it
- In South America, the Spanish adapted the mit'a system the Inca rulers had previously used in the Andes to harness labor in a manner similar to serfdom

- Indentured servitude was a form of debt bondage that brought labor to North America (especially to English colonizers)
 - Would-be colonists who could not afford passage across the Atlantic agreed to work for a period of time for the families who paid their way
 - English criminals were also often punished by transportation or exile to the Americas

Rise of Coerced Labor in the Americas

- The rise of plantation monoculture involves the intensive cultivation of a single crop on large estates known as haciendas and latifundias
 - Required an immense amount of labor
 - Encouraged the employment of native workers on harsh terms and for little pay
 - Persuaded the Spanish and Portuguese to rely heavily on slave labor from Africa
 - Spread to North America, where French and especially English colonizers practiced it and also resorted to slave labor
- The crops most directly connected with this trend were sugarcane in the Caribbean and South America and cotton and tobacco in North America

The Atlantic Slave Trade

- Once the Atlantic slave trade started, it became a central part of the European economy and a primary factor in Europe's ability to generate such wealth
 - By the 1440s, the Portuguese had begun to enslave (a relatively small number of) Africans, taking them to Portugal and selling them to Europe
 - In the 1550s, the Portuguese and Spanish started shipping slaves to the Americas and the Caribbean for mining and plantation monoculture (especially sugarcane production), and numbers grew and conditions became harsher
 - Europeans enslaved roughly 1,000 Africans per year in the late 1400s and more than 2,000 per year in the 1500s, for an estimated sum of 325,000 during these two centuries
 - More than a million Africans were transported in the 1600s and at least 6 million in the 1700s
 - A total of 12.5 million Africans were forced into New World slavery between the mid-1400s and late 1800s, split between Brazil (37%), Spanish America (15%), non-Spanish parts of the Caribbean (41%), and the southern colonies of British North America (5%)
- Africans were captured and shipped to the Americas under notoriously appalling conditions
 - Many were captives or prisoners of war, conveyed to Africa's west coast and sold to European slavers by Africans from enemy tribes
 - Many were separated from families or mixed in with other tribes with unfamiliar languages and customs
 - They were then loaded into ships to make the infamous Middle Passage across the Atlantic
 - Captives were packed into boats as tightly as possible because the profit was greater the more slaves a ship could carry
 - Chained, lying on their backs, surrounded by hundreds of other bodies, all in darkness, they endured a nightmarishly claustrophobic sea journey that lasted for weeks
 - Upon arrival, they would be taken to slave markets and sold
- The Middle Passage had a steep mortality rate
 - In the early years, up to 25 percent of captives perished during the journey
 - During the 1700s and 1800s, slavers cut the average death rate to 10 percent or less because each dead slave was a financial loss

Gender and Ethnicity

Religious and Ethnic Differences

- Europe was generally very intolerant of other religions
 - Protestants and Catholics regularly persecuted each other
 - Anti-Semitism was rampant and Jews were stereotyped by European Christians as greedy because of their success in fields like banking and commerce

- Jews were also resented for the popular but misguided belief that they bore responsibility from biblical time for the death of Jesus
- Anti-Islamic tendencies also prevailed due to tensions stirred up by the Spanish Reconquista and the Ottoman Empire's campaigns against Constantinople and the Balkans
- In the Middle East, both Ottoman Turkey and Safavid Persia officially operated according to a policy of relative religious tolerance, although violence and persecution were not unknown
 - Ottomans referred to it as *mudarra* ("moderation")
 - Non-Muslims were allowed to convert to Islam if they wished but not forced to
 - *Dhimmis* (non-believers) did not have equal rights (could not serve in the military, testimonies in trials were given less weight, had to pay the *jizya* tax)
 - The *devshirme* system in the Ottoman empire was generally disliked, although some families saw this as an opportunity for their sons to rise in status
 - Three *millet*s ("nation") existed before the 1700s in the Ottoman Empire: one for Jews, one for Armenian Christians, and one for Greek Orthodox Christians
 - Threat of non-Muslims remained relatively mild until the 1800s when nationalist aspirations among the Ottomans' subject peoples began to heighten tensions
- In Mughal India, where a Muslim minority ruled a Hindu majority as well as a growing population of Sikhs, the religious policy varied
 - Akbar the Great abolished the *jizya* tax for Hindu in the late 1500s and encouraged friendly relations among those of all faiths
 - Aurangzeb imposed Sharia law on India's Hindus in the late 160s and persecuted Sikhs, causing them to revolt and to establish their own state in the Punjab
- In the Americas, colonization created mixed populations with European, African, and/or Native American ancestry
 - *Mestizos* and *métis* (Spanish and French for "mixed") were common names for the offspring of Europeans and American natives
 - *Mulattos* described those of European and African descent, and *Zambo* described those of mixed African and Native American heritage
 - *Creole* (French equivalent of the Spanish *criollo*) eventually came to mean someone of mixed descent, but it originated from the Portuguese term *crioulo* (from the verb *criar*, "to raise") as a way to describe a person of European descent who happened to be born in the Americas
- Colonization and conquest led to the formation of new race-based hierarchies
 - The ruling Manchus, who composed a tiny percentage of the population, forced their Chinese subjects to wear certain clothes and to braid their hair into long queues. Males had to shave their head, as reflected in the classical proverb, "shave your head or lose your head"
 - In Spanish colonies in the New World, *peninsulares* (pure-bred Spanish who settled in the New World) remained on the top of the hierarchy, with *criollos* (pure-bred Spanish who were born in the New World) alongside them enjoying elite status. *Mestizos* (those with mixed blood and native ancestry) were near the bottom, and slaves occupied the lowest rung of the social ladder
 - For some time, Spanish colonial authorities set natives apart by forming *República de Indios*, an administrative unit that resembled the Ottoman *millet* in that it kept natives under Spanish jurisdiction (and harnessed their labor and taxes) but allowed a certain degree of social and cultural autonomy

Restructuring of Gender and Family Relations

- In Europe, women gained more rights and were more educated
 - Many Catholic nuns achieved a high level of education
 - Both women of the upper class and middle classes enjoyed more access to education, in part because of Protestantism's emphasis on literacy
 - Women of the upper class took a more active role in intellectual life
 - Many in the middle classes assumed a greater economic role as operators of businesses or partners in them
 - Those of all classes gained more control over when and whom they married as well as over issues like divorce, childbirth, and inheritance

- In urban settings, where the labor of children was needed less than on a farm, women opted to have fewer children, causing a decline in the average size of European families
- A number of baroque and eighteenth-century painters were women, and some also turned to writing, philosophy, and scientific research (although they were not allowed to become university faculty)
- Important monarchs from this period of European history were women, including Isabella of Castile, Elizabeth I of England, Maria Theresa of Austria, and in the late 1700s, Catherine the Great of Russia
- European women were still in no way treated as equal to men, and sexism prevailed
 - They remained subservient legally and economically
 - Rates of death during childbirth were still high
 - Women made up about 75% of the victims of witch hunts of the 1500s and 1600s
 - Both Catholicism and Protestantism used the scripture to justify the view that women were inferior and more sinful than men
 - Even during the Enlightenment of the 1700s, few among Europe's liberal thinkers were willing to entertain the notion of gender equality
- A similar ambiguity prevailed in the Muslim World in both the Middle East and South Asia
 - In Ottoman Turkey, the sultan's mother ran the household, controlled marriage alliances, and sometimes conducted diplomacy
 - Among both the Ottomans and the Persian Safavids, the harem was a complex social network that included most female members of the imperial family (relatively few of whom were used for any sexual pleasure) and involved itself with the raising of children and pursuit of the arts. It was not simply a collection of concubines for the ruler's pleasure.
 - Polygamy was rarer in the Muslim world than is generally believed
 - However, the seclusion of women was practised consistently throughout the Muslim world and among most classes
 - While Muslim women had certain rights with respect to owning and inheriting property, they had few rights within a marriage or when it came to divorce
 - Although they could testify in court, their testimony was not counted as equal to a man's
- In India, the impact of Mughal rule on women was mixed
 - Muslim women generally had more rights than their Hindu counterparts, who remained subject to the caste system and the funeral practice of sati (depending on their status)
 - The seclusion of women applied both to Muslim women and Hindu women of high caste, and restrictions also fell to Hindu women when Mughal rulers chose to impose Sharia law to non-Muslims in the 1600s
- Conditions of women in East Asia generally worsened in this era
 - In China, foot binding became more widespread and Confucian doctrine continued to justify the secondary status of women
 - The stratification of Japanese society by the Tokugawa shogunate placed heavier restrictions on the behavior of women, especially if they belonged to the samurai class. Women were obligated to obey their husbands or face death, had little authority over property, and received less education than men (even if artistic and cultural pursuits were encouraged among elite women)
 - In Japan, some women gained status and fame as geishas, special courtesans valued not just as sex objects but for their musical, artistic, and conversational skills
 - In both China and Japan, girl children, as in earlier eras, were less valued and sometimes put to death or sold into prostitution or servitude
- As before, several African societies, especially in the west, were matrilineal and relatively willing to accept female leadership, as in the famous case of Queen Nzinga of Angola during the late 1500s and early 1600s. However, Islam's deepening presence also led to more veiling and seclusion.
- Local women in Africa, Asia, and the Americas played crucial roles during the economic and political encounters between European colonizers and their own people
 - The Portuguese and other Europeans who arrived in Southeast Asia found themselves heavily dependent on the local women they took as mistresses or wives
 - In the Americas, Hernán Cortés's success in conquering the Aztecs were due at least in part to the guidance and diplomatic skills provided by his Nahua mistress Doña Marina, or Malinche

- The story of Pocahontas and her helpful interactions during the early 1600s with English colonists in Virginia (saving the life of John Smith from her own people and later marrying John Rolfe) is the most famous illustration of this trend

Humans and the Environment (1450-1750)

- Human impact on the environment increased substantially due to the intensification of economic activity (new forms of agricultural production, the rise of manufacturing, resource extraction on a greater scale) and worldwide population growth
- New foodstuffs from the Americas increased the populations of Afro-Eurasia
- The Little Ice Age hit its peak between the early 1500s and mid-1800s

The Columbian Exchange: Plants and Animals

- Afro-Eurasians brought many new animals, plants, and foods to the Americas
 - Sheep, goats, cattle, and pigs increased the supply of meat and milk
 - Horses provided labor and transport and radically changed the lifestyles of the Native Americans who lived and hunted on plains and grasslands
 - Columbus introduced sugarcane, which would eventually be produced in massive quantities as a crucial factor in the emergence of the Atlantic slave trade
 - Cotton, another development that encouraged the use of slaves, was produced in high quantities at the southeastern part of North America, rivaling Egypt and India
 - Okra and rice from Africa, along with wheat, olives, grapevines, citrus, and other fruits and grains, also arrived
 - During the 1700s, coffee was found to flourish in the Caribbean and South America
- The Americas introduced crops that would eventually become seen as staple foods and luxury goods in Afro-Eurasia
 - Manioc, corn, and potatoes were relatively easy to grow and yielded many calories per acre, which sparked a general population growth and offset the impact of the Little Ice Age
 - Manioc and corn displaced many traditional foods in Africa
 - In Asia, corn grew readily in areas that were too dry to grow rice but too wet to grow wheat
 - Other plants that traveled include squash, sweet potatoes, chili peppers, beans, peanuts, and vitamin-rich tomatoes
 - Tobacco and cacao (for making chocolate) became eagerly sought luxury goods in Europe

The Columbian Exchange: Diseases and Populations

- The movement of diseases during the Columbian Exchange was almost exclusively in one direction: from Afro-Eurasia to the Americas
 - Tropical diseases (malaria, yellow fever) from Africa took hold especially in the Caribbean, but also South America and warmer parts of eastern North America
 - Small-pox, measles, and influenza was even deadlier because the inhabitants of the Americas had not immunity to these new diseases
 - Europeans from the Americas may have brought back the sexually-transmitted disease syphilis (although scholarly debates continue about the origins)
- In Afro-Eurasia itself, many diseases continued to have a recurrent and lethal impact on large numbers of people until the discovery of germ theory and the development and widespread distribution of vaccines
 - Bubonic plague flared up periodically until the late 1700s and early 1800s
 - Smallpox, influenza, and measles remain deadly killers
 - Urbanization helped certain diseases (cholera, typhus, tuberculosis, polio) to spread quickly and widely, especially among the poor
- Most historians think that the death rate among American natives caused by their first encounters with Afro-Eurasian disease could run to at least 50% of the pre-Columbian population
 - An increasing number of estimates have gone higher, reaching as high as 80-90%

- Principle research difficult is the scarcity of evidence that would provide a reliable estimate of how many people lived in the Americas prior to European contact
- Another demographic change associated with the Columbian exchange is the mass transfer of populations
 - Millions of slaves and hundreds of thousands of colonists came from Africa and Europe to the New World
 - Interactions led to a rich and complex ethnic and cultural mixing

Monoculture and Resource Extraction: Ecological Effects

- Agriculture remained the dominant form of production in most parts of the world and increased in scale and intensity
 - The European introduction of plantation monoculture to the Americas was especially harmful to the environment
 - Overexploitation of the land typically led to soil depletion (as nutrients were exhausted) and deforestation (as woods were cleared to make more room for farms), and it could lead to water shortages
 - Increased dependency on a single staple crop for food heightened the risk of food shortages or famine if something went wrong with that one crop
 - Cash-crop agriculture by means of plantation agriculture had a particularly profound impact during this period
 - Sugar was grown in the Caribbean and tobacco was grown in the Americas
 - Cotton spread to the Americas and intensified in places like India
 - Coffee from Ethiopia, which was adopted by Sufi Muslims in southern Arabia during the mid-1400s, spread throughout the Middle East during the 1500s
 - European transplanted it in to Southeast Asia (mid-to-late 1600s) and Brazil and the Caribbean (early 1700s)
- In areas where herding and pastoralism were still practiced, the risk of overgrazing was always present
- Manufacturing emerged as a larger sector of the economy in places like Europe, the Middle East, and Asia
 - The number of watermills and windmills grew
 - The burning of coal and wood fires increased in scale for metallurgy, protoindustrial production, and also to heat a growing number of homes and buildings
 - Pollution gradually rose and would only get worse with the advent of modern industrialization in the late 1700s and early 1800s
- The extent of resource extraction also grew in all parts of the world in this era because of the growing demand for manufacturing
 - Wood was needed both for fuel and for the making of houses, furniture, ships
 - The growing demand of metals and minerals for currency, production of gunpowder weaponry, and manufacture of trade goods meant mining became more significant and environmentally damaging
 - The extraction of gold and silver from the Americas had an especially profound impact during these years
 - Larger quantities of cotton, silk, linen, and wool were needed due to the expansion of the textiles trade
 - Large-scale fishing and the hunting for whales for meat and oil (lamps) increased
 - The quest for furs shaped the course of European expansion into North America and Siberia, and reduced the numbers of dozens of animal species (seals, beavers, otters, sables)
 - The killing of walrus and elephants for ivory also ramped up

The Little Ice Age

- The Little Ice Age lasted from the late 1400s and early 1500s to the mid-1800s, and mainly affected the northern hemisphere
 - Lowered agricultural yields and shifted sea routes and hunting and fishing grounds
 - Enlarged the Sahara desert as cooling increased the aridity there
- Food shortage and other disruptions to agriculture, along with the general harshness of the climate, helped cause or worsen events, including the German Peasants' Revolt, the religious wars in seventeenth-century Europe, the Ottoman Empire's Celali revolts, and the rebellion that ended Ming rule in China
- The peak effects of the Little Ice Age is speculated to have been sparked (or made more extreme) by the massive die-off of indigenous Americans after the arrival of Afro-Eurasian diseases. The devastation of native communities led to rapid reforestation and a decline in pollution on such a scale that the world's climate was affected

Summary

Governance

- During the 1500s and 1600s, global might was concentrated in China and the Islamic World's gunpowder empires: Ottoman Turkey, Safavid Persia, and Mughal India
- The nations of Europe grew more powerful. By the early 1700s, they were overtaking the civilizations listed above in terms of military, scientific, and technological aptitude.
- The most dramatic development of the era was the European campaign to explore (and, where possible, colonize) the rest of the world. Numerous European states—Portugal, Spain, the Dutch Republic, England, and France, for example—created trading-post empires and maritime empires with a truly global reach.
- European colonization of the Americas, the African coast, and parts of Asia set the stage for a massive burst of imperial activity during the 1800s. It also sparked military competition among the European powers for global dominance, including the Seven Years' War (1756-1763), which raged not only in Europe but also in North America and India and can be considered one of history's first "world wars."
- Several states, including the Ottoman Empire, Mughal India, and China under the Manchus, created expansive land empires.
- In addition to multicultural and multiethnic land empires, nation-states in the contemporary sense of the word emerged. These were political units with relatively fixed borders, a sense of national unity, and populations that were largely (though never completely) homogeneous in terms of language and ethnicity.
- State consolidation in many regions led to greater political centralization and sophistication. Features of modern government—such as bureaucracies, treasuries, and state banks—became more commonplace. Rulers devised more reliable means to collect taxes and conscript soldiers.
- At times, state consolidation sparked rebellions and other episodes of resistance to centralized authority.
- State-building techniques included impressive displays of architecture and art as well as continued reliance on religious concepts to legitimize the authority of the regime.
- Most monarchies remained traditionally autocratic or absolutist, but some nations experimented with forms of government that were more representative, including parliamentary monarchy.
- The increased importance of gunpowder weaponry meant that from this time forward, military strength depended even more on technological aptitude than before.

Governance, 1450-1750	
Europe	<p>Absolutist vs. parliamentary nation-states (Louis XIV and divine right theory vs. English Bill of Rights)</p> <p>European age of exploration (Henry the Navigator, Christopher Columbus, Vasco da Gama, Ferdinand Magellan)</p> <p>From Franco-Habsburg rivalry (1500s-1600s) to Anglo-French rivalry (1600s-1700s)</p> <p>Protestant-Catholic religious wars (1500s-early 1600s) + Thirty Years' War (1618-1648)</p> <p>Seven Years' War (1756-1763)</p>
Middle East	<p>Gunpowder empires = Ottoman Empire (1299-1922) and Safavid Persia (1501-early 1700s)</p> <p>Ottoman-Safavid rivalry over trade and Sunni-Shiite disputes</p> <p>Ottoman conquest of Constantinople (1453) and campaigns of Suleiman the Magnificent (1520s)</p> <p>From Celali revolts (1590s-1610s) to Ottoman siege of Vienna (1683)</p> <p>"Circle of justice" and Ottoman legal reforms (secular and Sharia law)</p>
Africa	<p>Impact of European arrival (1410s+)</p> <p>Songhai (Askia Mohammed, 1400s-1500s) and military rivalry with Morocco</p> <p>Centralized kingdoms (Kongo, Shantu, Dahomey)</p> <p>Omani Arabs in East Africa (1650s+)</p> <p>Arrival in the 1600s of Dutch (Boer) colonists in South Africa (vs. Xhosa and Zulu)</p>

East and Central Asia	Impact of European arrival (1500s+) Ming dynasty (1368-1644) in China and Li Zicheng's revolt (1630s-1640s) Manchu conquest and Qing dynasty (1644-1912) in China Mandate of heaven Daimyo feudalism in Japan (late 1100s-early 1500s) Reunification of Japan (late 1500s) and Tokugawa shogunate (1603-1868)
South and Southeast Asia and Oceania	Impact of European arrival (1490s+) Gunpowder empire = Mughal India (1500s-mid-1800s) Sikh and Maratha states (late 1600s-mid-1800s) Joint-stock companies = British East India Company, Dutch India Company Spanish colonization of Manila (1571) and the Philippines
Americas	Impact of European arrival (1490s+) and colonies Conquistadors defeat Aztecs and Incas (early 1500s) Piracy in the Caribbean (1500s-1700s) Joint-stock companies = Hudson's Bay Company
Global and Interregional	Greater political centralization and new bureaucratic elites Global impact of European age of exploration = trading-post and maritime empires (1400s+) Dutch and English rivalry with Portugal and Spain over trade routes and colonies (1500s-1600s) Omani-European competition over East Africa and Indian Ocean basin (1650s+) Global impact of Seven Years' war, especially in Canada and India (1756-1763)

Cultural Developments and Interactions

- After the European encounter with the Americas, networks of communication and exchange moved beyond the level of transregional and became truly global. The Atlantic basin in particular became a gigantic cauldron of economic, cultural, religious, ethnic, political, and military interaction.
- Most major societies possessed well-defined artistic and literary traditions. Increased technological aptitude enabled the production of arts and crafts of high quality.
- The increased influence of the printing press led to the rapid spread of information and new ideas. By creating more materials to read—and more incentive to read—the printing press helped boost literacy rates.
- Art, literature, and drama became more accessible to popular audiences among wider segments of society—including the emerging middle class and, in some cases, the lower classes—not just the elite classes.
- Architecture and art continued to be used for political purposes, especially to show off the power and grandeur of various rulers and regimes.
- New and syncretic religions appeared during this era, including vodun (voodoo) in the Caribbean, the cult of saints in Latin America, and Sikhism in India.
- Within established religions, schisms appeared or widened. The Sunni-Shiite split in Islam grew more pronounced during this era, as did the influence of Sufism within Islam. Europe experienced a religious earthquake, the Protestant Reformation, that profoundly affected not just matters of faith but cultural life, military, and political affairs, and the way Europeans spread Christianity to other parts of the world.
- The movement of Europeans and Africans (mainly enslaved) altered the patterns of North and South American ethnicity, religion, language, art, and music.
- Buddhism and Christianity spread particularly far during these years, thanks to missionary activity, trade, and colonization.

Cultural Developments and Interactions, 1450-1750	
Europe	Renaissance continues and spreads through Europe (1300s-early 1600s) Baroque style (1600s) Enlightenment begins (1700s) Protestant Reformation (1500s) Architecture (St. Peter's, 1500s; Versailles, 1600s)

Middle East	Widening of the Sunni-Shiite split Miniature painting in Persia and Ottoman Turkey Carpet weaving Architecture (Suleiman Mosque, 1500s; Blue Mosque, 1600s; Great Plaza of Isfahan, 1600s)
Africa	Sculpture and carving (Benin and Oyo bronzes) Textile weaving and basketry Oral tradition (griots) Sundiata epic (1300s+) The Epic of Askia Mohammed (1500s+)
East and Central Asia	Porcelain Qing imperial paintings Journey to the West (1500s) Kabuki theater Ukiyo-e woodblock prints Architecture (Beijing's summer palace, 1700s)
South and Southeast Asia and Oceania	Sikhism (1500s) Miniature painting in Mughal India Indo-Persian cultural fusion Architecture (Taj Mahal, Red Fort, both 1600s)
Americas	Religious syncretism (vodun, Latin America cult of saints) Creole, mestizo, and other "mixed" traditions Florentine Codex and other Mesoamerican codices (1500s) Architecture (Mesoamerican pyramids; Machu Picchu and Incan sun temples in Andes)
Global and Interregional	Growing impact of the printing press Increased availability of culture to nonelite classes Cultural impact of Europe's age of exploration Global spread of Christianity

Technology and Innovation

- The level of scientific knowledge and technological achievement was especially high in civilizations such as China, Ottoman Turkey, Mughal India, and Safavid Persia.
- Europe made exceptional strides in terms of scientific knowledge and technological achievement. The Renaissance, Scientific Revolution, and Enlightenment all furthered the intellectual growth of Europe to the point that, during the late 1600s and 1700s, it overtook the civilizations listed above.
- The increased influence of the printing press led to the rapid spread of scientific knowledge, especially in Europe and North America.
- The global impact of gunpowder weaponry grew steadily throughout this era.
- Advances in maritime and navigational science and technology—including adoption of the magnetic compass and the crafting of sailing ships like the carrack, caravel, fluyt, and galleon—helped alter the balance of world power in Europe's favor.

Technology and Innovation, 1450-1750	
Europe	Impact of the Renaissance and printing press on growing scientific awareness Heliocentric theory (Copernicus and Galileo) Scientific Revolution (scientific method) and Newtonian physics Improvements in navigational and marine science and technology (magnetic compass, sailing ships) Innovations in gunpowder weaponry
Middle East	Innovations in gunpowder weaponry (janissary musketeers)

	Astronomical expertise
Africa	Importance of European technology and gunpowder expertise
East and Central Asia	Stagnation in China's use of gunpowder weaponry Limited influence of "Dutch learning" (European scientific knowledge) in Japan
South and Southeast Asia and Oceania	Innovations in gunpowder weaponry
Americas	Importation of European technology and gunpowder expertise
Global and Interregional	Shift in balance of scientific and technological expertise from China and the Middle East to Europe Growing impact of the printing press in spreading scientific and technological expertise Gunpowder revolution in Eurasian states

Economic Systems

- The incorporation of the Americas into existing networks of exchange led to the emergence of a truly global economic system, complete with the worldwide circulation of raw materials and finished products.
- The emergence of a "triangular" Atlantic trade system, combined with the Europeans' ability to circumnavigate the globe, disrupted and altered traditional trade routes, particularly land routes such as the Silk Road.
- Competition over trade routes, especially maritime ones, affected state relations in other parts of the world, including the Atlantic Ocean, the Caribbean Sea, and the Indian Ocean.
- Agriculture remained dominant as the mode of economic production and as the form of labor practice by the majority of people worldwide. Even so, trade and manufacturing became steadily more important during these years.
- The rise in global productivity and wealth rested on a foundation of coerced labor, which took many forms. The Atlantic and Arab slave trades were extensive. Serfdom was common in Europe (especially Russia) and other parts of the world. Plantation and cash-crop agriculture in the Americas was based on unfree labor.
- Mercantilism became the dominant economic principle of colonizing states that formed maritime or trading-post empires. Joint-stock companies and monopolies with royal charters financed and carried out much of this era's exploration and colonization. These included the Dutch East India Company, the Hudson's Bay Company, the Company of New France, and the British East India Company.
- During the 1500s and 1600s, Spanish and Portuguese extraction of precious metals, especially silver, from the Americas affected economies around the world. This huge and sudden influx of coinage into so many economies created a harmful glut, leading to severe inflation in places as diverse as China, Europe, and the Ottoman Empire.
- In several civilizations, primarily Europe, protoindustrial modes of production began to appear, especially during the 1700s. By the late 1700s, the concept of capitalism was emerging as well. Both of these trends would have a profound impact on economic life in the 1800s.
- Interregional trade was affected by the global cooling that led to the Little Ice Age.

Economic Systems, 1450-1750	
Europe	Mercantilism Joint-stock corporations (including the Dutch East India Company, Hudson Bay's Company, British East India Company) Investment disasters ("bubbles"): tulipmania, Mississippi Bubble, South Sea Bubble Silver glut and inflation Cottage industry and protoindustrialization
Middle East	Relative decline of the Silk Road

	Omani-European rivalry in Indian Ocean and East Africa Ottoman-Persian competition over Indian Ocean trade Carpets and textiles Silver glut and inflation
Africa	Arrival of European traders and trading-post empires Omani-European rivalry in Indian Ocean and East Africa Arab slave trade continues Atlantic slave trade begins and intensifies
East and Central Asia	Relative decline of the Silk Road Appearance of European traders Chinese and Japanese restrictions on European traders Porcelain and tea Silver glut and inflation
South and Southeast Asia and Oceania	Appearance of European traders and trading-post empires Omani-European rivalry in Indian Ocean Ottoman-Persian competition over Indian Ocean trade Cotton and spices
Americas	European piracy and privateering in Caribbean Rise of plantation and cash-crop agriculture Increased reliance on slavery and coerced labor Sugar, cotton, tobacco, coffee, silver
Global and Interregional	Global circulation of trade goods (finished products and raw materials) Piracy, privateering, and state competition over trade routes Triangular trade in the Atlantic Influx of New World silver into the world economy Increased agricultural production (plantation agriculture) Increased manufacturing and the emergence of protoindustrial production Increased resource extraction (mining, fishing, hunting)

Social Interactions and Organization

- Agriculture remained dominant as the form of labor practiced by the vast majority of people worldwide. Most people lived in rural settings.
- As the centralizing power of the state expanded, especially its power to gather taxes and conscript soldiers, pressure on peasant communities increased, occasionally leading to peasant revolts and rebellions.
- New forms of peasant labor, including plantation farming and cash-crop monoculture, arose to take their place alongside traditional methods.
- The rise in global productivity and wealth rested on a foundation of coerced labor, which took many forms. The Atlantic and Arab slave trades were extensive. Serfdom was common in Europe (especially Russia) and other parts of the world. Plantation and cash-crop agriculture in the Americas was based on unfree labor.
- Social diversification resulted from the increased importance of banking, commerce, trade, shopkeeping, artisanry, and manufacturing. Growth in these sectors led to the creation of middle and urban working classes. These were small to begin with but grew in numbers and in cultural and social influence.
- Urbanization continued. This trend was often related to an increase in social mobility.
- Elite classes in many regions faced new challenges either because of political centralization on the part of their monarchs or because of greater importance being placed on trade and money-based wealth rather than on land—which, for centuries, had been the source and measure of power and riches for traditional elites.
- In more societies, merit became important as a criterion for social advancement and even for entry into the elite classes.
- Diasporic communities and foreign enclaves continued to form in many towns and ports due to the expansion of interregional and global trade.

- Colonization, particularly in the Americas, created mixed populations, such as mulattos, mestizos, and creoles. New hierarchies emerged in Europe's New World colonies.
- Ethnic and religious minorities were treated differently in various parts of the world. In some cases, they enjoyed freedom and equal status. More often, though, they were persecuted, treated as second-class citizens, or restricted in various ways.
- Family and gender relations underwent restructuring. In Europe, for example, families tended to grow smaller.
- In most parts of the world, women continued to occupy a secondary status in terms of social roles, economic opportunities, and political influence. In parts of Europe, a limited awareness that the treatment of women was unjust began to develop.
- Individual women from small but important segments of society—from the aristocracy or emerging middle class, for example—gained education, became active in business, made scientific discoveries, and became artists and writers.
- Local women often played crucial roles during economic or political encounters between their own people and European colonizers and traders.

Social Interactions and Organization, 1450-1750	
Europe	<p>Serfdom (declining in Western Europe, increasing in Russia) German Peasants' War (early 1500s) + Russian serf and Cossack uprisings (1600s-1700s) Rise of the burghur and bourgeoisie (middle) classes Elite adjustments for European nobles (nobility of the sword vs. nobility of the robe; Russia's Table of Ranks) Protestant-Catholic religious strife Anti-Semitism Patriarchy continues, with slightly improved conditions for women of middle and upper class</p>
Middle East	<p>Elite adjustments (janissaries and devshirme civil servants) Devshirme (Ottoman slave-recruiting system) Celali revolts (1590s-1610s) Arab slave trade Jizya tax for subject nonbelievers (dhimmi) Mudarra ("moderation") policy and the millet (Ottoman system for religious minorities) Islam and patriarchy (veiling, seclusion, polygamy, the harem)</p>
Africa	<p>Arab slave trade in North and East Africa Growth of Atlantic slave trade (1400s-1800s; Middle Passage, triangular trade) Matrilineal social organization in certain areas Impact of Arab and Atlantic slave trades on family structure</p>
East and Central Asia	<p>Intensification of peasant labor (silk) Elite adjustments (mandarin bureaucrats in China; salaried samurai in Japan) Li Zicheng's peasant revolt and the fall of China's Ming dynasty (1630s-1640s) Serfdom and social stratification in Tokugawa Japan Neo-Confucianism and patriarchy (foot binding) Samurai patriarchy and geisha courtesans</p>
South and Southeast Asia and Oceania	<p>Intensification of peasant labor (cotton) Elite adjustments (zamindar landowners) Tolerance and tensions among India's Hindus, Muslims, and Sikhs (Akbar the Great vs. Aurangzeb) Hinduism and patriarchy (sati, seclusion) Islam and patriarchy (veiling, seclusion, and polygamy) Role of Southeast Asian women in early encounters between European traders and Asian populations</p>
Americas	<p>Encomienda system (1500s) Spanish adaptation of the mit'a system</p>

	Plantation monoculture (sugarcane, cotton, tobacco) Atlantic slave trade (1400s-1800s, Middle Passage, triangular trades) Indentured servitude in North America Creole and mixed populations (República de Indios and race-based hierarchies in Latin America) Role of women in encounters between European arrivals and native populations (Malinche, Pocahontas)
Global and Interregional	Increased agricultural production and greater tax and conscription burdens on peasants Urbanization and class diversification Growth of artisan (craftsman) and urban working classes Growth and ambiguous status of middle and merchant classes Political and economic adjustments for elite classes Coerced labor and chattel slavery become increasingly common Patriarchy continues

Humans and the Environment

- The European age of exploration brought the Americas into contact with Afro-Eurasia at the end of the 1400s. The transmission of foodstuff, animal species, and disease pathogens between these geographical areas is known as the Columbian Exchange.
- The introduction of Afro-Eurasian diseases (especially smallpox, measles, and the influenza) into the Americas caused a massive demographic crisis, killing at least one-half of the indigenous population and perhaps much more.
- The importation of corn (maize), potatoes, and manioc from the Americas dramatically altered the diets and agricultural practices of Europe, Africa, and eventually Asia. Tomatoes had an impact as well, and American-grown crops like tobacco and cacao (from which chocolate is made) were highly desired by Europeans. Populations rose significantly throughout Europe, Africa, and Asia as a result of these new foods.
- To the Americas, Europeans and Africans brought horses, pigs, and cattle. Afro-Eurasian crops transplanted to the Americas included okra, rice, citrus, bananas and other fruits, sugarcane, coffee, and cotton.
- The introduction of European modes of economic production into the Americas, especially plantation agriculture and the cultivation of cash crops like sugar and tobacco, radically altered North and South American ecosystems.
- Fishing, whaling, and the hunting of fur-bearing animals—activities with significant environmental impact—became increasingly important to the economies of European nations, especially as they intensified their efforts to explore and colonize larger parts of the world.
- Manufacturing and mining increased in importance, leading to greater resource extraction and a heavier environmental impact.
- The movement of peoples between Afro-Eurasia and the Americas, whether voluntary or involuntary, ranks as one of the most important migrations in history.
- After a gradual cooling during the 1300s and 1400s, the Little Ice Age hit its peak between the early 1500s and the early-to-mid-1800s.

Humans and the Environment, 1450-1750	
Europe	Arrival of maize (corn), potatoes, and other crops via the Columbian Exchange Fur hunting increases (especially in Siberia)
Middle East	Coffee spreads throughout region (1400s-1500s)
Africa	Arrival of maize (corn), manioc, and other crops via Columbian Exchange Enlargement of Sahara Desert due to Little Ice Age
East and Central Asia	Arrival of maize (corn), potatoes, and other crops via the Columbian Exchange

South and Southeast Asia and Oceania	Arrival of maize (corn), potatoes, chili peppers, and other crops via the Columbian Exchange
Americas	Arrival of horses, pigs, cattle, and other animals via the Columbian Exchange Arrival of sugarcane, cotton, okra, rice, coffee, and other crops via the Columbian Exchange Afro-Eurasian diseases (smallpox, measles, and influenza) kill at least 50% of indigenous Americans Plantation and monoculture agriculture (sugarcane, cotton, coffee, tobacco) Silver mining (Potosí) Fur hunting in North America
Global and Interregional	Little Ice Age reaches its peak (ca. 1500-mid-1800s) Environmental impact of mining, manufacturing, and urbanization increases in many areas Environmental impact of fishing and whaling increases, especially in the Atlantic Environmental impact of fur hunting increases

Unit 3: 1750-1900

Governance (1750-1900)

- The nation-state, a state-level community united by a common ethnic, linguistic, religious, and cultural heritage, emerged as the leading form of political organization (particularly in the West)
- Nations who began the process of modernization adopted greater popular representation
 - This trend began in the West during the late 1700s with the American and French Revolution
 - Other Western nations followed, driven in part by industrialization
 - Other parts of the world were slower to move away from traditional regimes
 - Japan and the Ottoman Empire developed parliamentary forms of monarchy in the early 1900s
 - Latin American nations developed parliamentary governments in theory, but many slipped into dictatorial or military rule
- The global balance of power shifted to Europe and the United States, and they increasingly determined world affairs
 - “New imperialism” of the mid-to-late 1800s gave Europe and North America unprecedented global dominance
 - Between 1815 and 1914, percent of the world’s habitable territory that the nations of the West controlled rose from 35% to approximately 85%
- Nationalism and competition over colonies made it increasingly likely that the Western nations would go to war
 - European alliance system formed in the late 1800
 - Level of aggression steadily rose until the outbreak of World War I in 1914

The Atlantic Revolutions and the Birth of Modern Politics

- The Atlantic Revolutions (1770s-1810s) ended European colonial rule over most of the Americas
 - Includes the American Revolution, the French Revolution, the Haitian Rebellion, and the Latin American wars of independence
 - Dealt a death blow to absolute monarchy in most of Europe, although not all goals were met
 - Encouraged an increasing number of people to fight for social and political systems that gave them more voice in government

The American Revolution and the Birth of the United States

Causes of the American Revolution

- Growing nationalism
- Increased resentment of Britain’s economic mastery
 - Taxes levied by Britain to pay for the army it maintained in North America angered colonists, especially because they didn’t have representation in Britain’s Parliament
 - Capitalism was catching on among colonial merchants, who believed that free trade—not permitted by Britain’s mercantilist policy (which required the colonies to trade only on British terms)—would create greater wealth
- Acceptance of Enlightenment philosophy on social contracts and civil liberties
 - Followed thinkers such as John Locke and Montesquieu
 - Jefferson’s Declaration of Independence (1776) is a classic Enlightenment text

The American Revolution (1775-1783)

- Revolution broke out in 1775 and poorly trained and poorly equipped American forces, led by Washington, struggled against Britain’s professional army and superior navy
- Tides turned in 1777
 - Popular support for the revolution grew, although Tories remained loyal to Britain
 - Americans utilized their home advantage
 - France decided to lend the Americans money and military aid (French fleet assisted against Britain’s Royal Navy)
 - French officers (and other Europeans) provided military training at Washington’s Valley Forge in 1777-1778

- By 1781, the British war effort was failing
- The war was effectively over when the Americans surrounded the main British force at Yorktown, but peace talks dragged on until 1783

The Birth of the United States

- The process of devising a form of government involved much disagreement a lasted until the Constitutional Convention of 1787 and the ratification of the United States Constitution in 1789
 - Resulting system was a democratic republic in which a federal government shared power with governments in each of the thirteen states
 - First attempt by a major state to base a political system on the philosophy of popular sovereignty and other rights-oriented concepts drawn from the Enlightenment
 - To ensure that political authority was not too concentrated, power at the federal level was shared among three branches (Executive, Legislative, and Judicial) according to a concept borrowed from Enlightenment thinker Montesquieu
- Democracy in early America was not all-inclusive
 - Elections were indirect and favored the upper and middle classes
 - Women, Native Americans, and men who did not fulfill certain property requirements could not vote
 - Free blacks could vote in some states, but lost many of their voting rights in the early 1800s
- The U.S. Constitution has remained one of the most successful political document in world history, largely because of the adaptability built into it
- Just as European Enlightenment ideals inspired the American Revolution, the revolution and the constitution that sprung from it inspired political actions in Europe during the 1780s and 1790s (notably in France)

The French Revolution and the Napoleonic Era

Causes of the French Revolution

Long-term Factors

- Yawning socioeconomic gap between ordinary citizens (Third Estate) and the elite, which included the Catholic clergy (First Estate) and the aristocracy (Second Estate)
 - Unfair tax system exempted the wealthy First and Second Estates
 - Wealthy and educated members of the middle class who were barred from social advancement (and forced to pay heavy taxes) because they belonged to the Third Estate grew increasingly frustrated
- France's kings were politically inept
- The state accumulated a long-term debt that piled up since the late 1600s, which was worsened in the 1770s by France's financial support for the American Revolution
- Enlightenment philosophy inspired a growing number of people with its powerful arguments in favor of fair government, popular sovereignty, social contracts, and civil liberties guaranteed by natural rights

Short-term Factors

- The immediate cause of the French Revolution was the impending bankruptcy of the government
 - Louis XVI (r. 1774-1792) could not solve France's financial crisis because he was saddled with debt, unable to tax the rich First and Second Estates, and burdened with a wife, Marie Antoinette, who spend lavishly
 - In 1787 and 1788, inflation, unemployment, and food shortages tormented the entire country
- In May 1789, Louis XVI summoned the Estates General, a national assembly of delegates from each estate, to meet him in Versailles
 - Delegates elected by the Third Estate were mainly middle-class lawyers and expected to negotiate seriously about changing the tax system and treating all classes more equitably
 - By June, it was clear that neither Louis XVI nor most delegates from the other Estates were prepared to compromise
 - Clash of wills set off ten years of revolution
- In late June, the delegates of the Third Estate, with liberal members of the First and Second Estates, formed the National Assembly, a new governmental body
 - Vowed not to leave Versailles until the king granted them a constitution

- Supported by the people of Paris and other cities, as well as the peasants in the countryside

The French Revolution (1789-1799)

- The storming of the Bastille in 1789 began the French Revolution
- During the first three years of the revolution, Louis XVI was allowed to remain king but with reduced powers
- Guided by Enlightenment ideals and the American Declaration of Independence, the assembly guaranteed civil liberties in the Declaration of the Rights of Man and the Citizen
 - Lafayette, a liberal noble who had fought at Washington's side during the American Revolution and now took advice directly from Thomas Jefferson, oversaw the writing of the document
 - Future assemblies were to be elected by popular vote
 - Aristocratic status and privileges, especially exemption from taxes, were revoked
 - The church and state were separated
 - Policy was guided by the motto "Liberty, Equality, and Fraternity"
- There were still issues in France, even though the king conceded
 - Rights proclaimed by the revolution only applied to white Catholic adult males (Jews, Protestants, blacks were exempt)
 - Slavery was not ended in France's colonies until 1794
 - The assembly failed to solve worsening economic problems
 - Louis XVI, encouraged by Marie Antoinette, secretly plotted counterrevolution, as did many former aristocrats
- The worst issue was that the victorious revolutionaries could not agree on how to change France
 - Liberal nobles and clergy, with much of the middle class, were satisfied with parliamentary monarchy and moderate change
 - The rural population, happy to have equal rights and to limit the power of the king, wanted economic relief but not deeper social change
 - Urban lower classes (sans-culottes) and certain middle-class idealists were more radical and wished to end the monarchy altogether, drive out or persecute former aristocrats (even liberal nobles), change society more thoroughly (such as abolishing Catholicism), and export their revolution to other countries by force
- From the spring of 1792 through the summer of 1794, the French Revolution took a sharply radical turn
- In April 1792, France went to war with Austria and Prussia
 - Other countries (including Britain) joined in, and France would be at war for the next quarter century
 - Economy worsened and early military failures caused mass hysteria
 - Remaining aristocrats and political moderates (even heroes from the early years, such as Lafayette) fell under suspicion, as did the royal family
 - Radical parties became more influential
- In the fall of 1792, a new constitution stripped the king of all powers and proclaimed the French Republic
 - Elections to new legislature brought radicals to power, the most important of whom were the Jacobins, led by Maximilien Robespierre, a fanatically idealistic lawyer
 - In January 1793, Louis XVI was executed for treason and Marie Antoinette followed in October
- The Jacobin created the Committee of Public Safety, an executive body who assumed dictatorial powers and attempted the radical transformation of French society
 - Expanded the war effort
 - Mobilized the economy for combat
 - Carried out modern Europe's first nationwide draft
- Civil wars erupted in the countryside as peasants rebelled against conscription and the radicals' efforts to do away with Catholicism
- Between the summer of 1793 and the summer of 1794, Robespierre and the Committee, supported by the urban sans-culottes, carried out a Reign of Terror
 - Searched for traitors and counterrevolutionary force
 - Largely ignored civil liberties
 - More than 300,000 people arrested without warrant and tried without jury or appeal
 - Between 30,000-50,000 people killed, many beheaded by guillotine
 - Ended when a coup within the committee executed Robespierre on July 1794

- The Directory, a more moderate regime, presided over the revolution for five more years
 - Stabilized the military situation
 - Attempted to heal the wounds left over from the Terror
 - Proved unpopular and was overthrown in 1799, ending the French Revolution

The Napoleonic Era

- Napoleon Bonaparte, a talented general, was among those who ousted the Directory
 - Claimed to be a many of revolutionary ideals, but in reality created a new dictatorship and crowned himself emperor in 1804
 - Created institutions such as the Bank of France
 - Devised the internationally influential Civil Law Code (Napoleonic Code) that was the foundation for modern law in both France and everywhere France's colonial influence extended
 - Continued the wars France had begun during the revolution from 1805-1811
 - Won military battles that made France the most powerful country in Europe
 - Only major nations not under his direct or indirect control were Britain and Russia
- Several factors brought about Napoleon's downfall
 - Inability to counter British naval power
 - Bloody guerrilla resistance to his authority in Spain
 - Overambitious invasion of Russia in 1812
- Napoleon was incarcerated until his death
 - Defeated and exiled in 1814
 - Escaped in 1815 and beaten again at the Battle of Waterloo
 - Peace was restored at the Congress of Vienna (1814-1815)
 - Died in captivity in 1821

Impact of the French Revolution

- Removed absolute monarchy in Europe, although kings and emperors continued to rule (including in France, where the royal family was restored)
- Inspired future uprisings
- Involved in the emergence of modern political ideas (left, right, conservatism, liberalism)
- Caused people to demand greater popular participation in government
- Forced nineteenth-century leaders to be more attentive to popular opinion and desires

Haitian Rebellion

Causes of the Haitian Rebellion

- Haiti was a sugar- and coffee-producing colony that relied heavily on slave labor imported from Africa
 - Half of Haiti was occupied by the French (who called it Saint-Domingue) while the other half was occupied by the Spanish (who called it Santo Domingo)
- After 1789, the French Revolution threw Saint-Domingue into turmoil, largely because the "rights of man and the citizen" were not extended to everyone living in the French colonies
 - Revolutionary freedoms went automatically to Frenchmen and Creoles but were not extended to free blacks and mulattos until May 1791
 - Half-million slaves of Saint-Domingue revolted in August because France's revolutionary government did not decide to end slavery (at that point)
 - Began the Haitian Revolution, which was the only large-scale slave revolt to succeed in the New World

Haitian Rebellion (1791-1804)

- By 1793, François-Dominique Toussaint L'Ouverture, a talented commander, came to lead the revolt
 - Known as the "black Washington"
 - Although the French had abolished slavery in 1794, L'Ouverture hoped to gain full independence and the liberation of slaves on the Spanish side of the island
- For several years, France debated the question of whether to let Haiti go free and establish friendly relations with it (as L'Ouverture had hoped) or to retake it by force

- In 1802, Napoleon sent a large force to end the rebellion
- L'Ouverture fell into French captivity and died in prison
- France lost 40,000 soldiers to yellow fever and went home in disgrace
- The independent nation of Haiti was born in 1804

Impact of the Haitian Rebellion

- Led to further uprisings in Latin America
- Convinced Napoleon that maintaining major colonies in the New World was strategically wasteful, which led him to sell the vast Louisiana territory at a bargain price in 1803

Latin American Wars of Independence

Causes of the Latin American Wars of Independence

- There were many underlying factors (long-term) that led to the wars of independence
 - Growing sense of nationalism
 - Local resentment of Spain's and Portugal's restrictive economic policies
 - Frustration from the criollo upper and middle classes at being barred from upward mobility by the rigid social hierarchy
- Anticolonial resentments were nothing new in Latin America
 - Pueblo War of the 1600s in New Mexico
 - Túpac Amaru II Rebellion (ca. 1780-1782) was a massive revolt against Spanish rule over the Andes
 - Led by a Quecha (or perhaps mestizo) or high social rank who adopted the name of the last Incan king
 - Over 100,000 natives and mestizos rose up, largely to protest unjust racial policies
 - Nearly captured the city of Cuzco
 - Ended with violent Spanish reprisals, including the execution of Túpac, his wife, and most of his family
- Napoleon toppled the the colonial order in Latin America between 1807-1809
 - Spanish kings were placed under house arrest
 - Portugal's royal family were forced to flee to Brazil
 - Rebellions sprang up throughout Central and South America

Latin American Wars of Independence (1810-1825)

- The most influential of the revolutionaries was Simón Bolívar (1783-1830)
 - Known as the Liberator
 - Member of Venezuela's criollo upper class
 - Inspired by Enlightenment ideals, frustrated by the inefficiency and injustice of Spanish rule, and personally ambitious
- In 1810, Bolívar took control of the independence movement sweeping across the northern parts of Spanish South America
 - Unlike many others of the creole elite (who rebelled against Spain for their own narrow interests), he realized that no revolt could succeed unless it attracted all classes
 - Promised to fight for the rights of mixed-race Latin Americans and the emancipation of slaves
 - Harnessed much of the anger that had driven the failed Túpac Amaru II Rebellion of the 1780s
 - Elaborated his principles in the 1815 Jamaica Letter, which turned a small and unsuccessful upper- and middle-class rebellion into a mass war of independence
- The military turning point of Bolívar's wars came in the years 1819-1821 when he gained control over present-day Venezuela and Colombia
 - Bolívar joined forces with José de San Martín, a general turned revolutionary and another freedom fighter
 - Between 1816-1820, San Martín freed southern areas such as Argentina, Chile, Uruguay, and Paraguay
 - Despite political differences (San Martín was more conservative), the two decided to cooperate, with Bolívar as the leader
- By 1825, the royalists had been cleared out of Bolivia, Ecuador, and Peru, and Spanish South America was free

- The Mexican War of Independence (1810-1823) was complicated by the inability of various social classes to cooperate
 - Began when the priest Miguel Hidalgo unfurled the flag of the Virgin of Guadalupe and called for freedom from Spain
 - Hidalgo was killed in 1811, but his fight was carried on by another priest, José María Morelos
 - Both fought for not just national independence but also for constitutional rule, equal rights for Indians and mestizos, and the liberation of slaves
 - Platform drew mass support from the lower classes but angered many upper-class Mexicans, even those who wanted independence
 - Morelos was killed in 1815 by conservative Mexicans, not the Spanish
 - In the end, Mexico's revolt was completed by the elite, not the lower classes
 - Agustín de Iturbide, a right-wing colonel, overthrew Spanish rule in 1821 and attempted to establish himself as a dictator, but was quickly ousted
 - A Mexican republic was proclaimed in 1823, the same year that the nations immediately to the south established the United Provinces of Central America
- Brazil became a free constitutional monarchy in 1822, under Pedro
 - In 1820, the king of Portugal went back to Europe to reclaim his throne, but left his son, Prince Pedro, to govern Brazil
 - The king gave this advice: "My son, if Brazil starts to demand independence, make sure you are the one to proclaim it. Then put the crown on your own head."
 - Pedro was supported by local elites who feared that the alternative to his rule would be more comprehensive and more disruptive slave revolt

Western Imperialism and Global Conflict

- Western colonial imperialism, beginning in the 1400s, became a normal policy
- In the 1800s and 1900s, it took a more aggressive and systematic character, referred to as the new imperialism
- Although this domination of the world brought Europe and America great power and wealth, it was inseparable from bloodshed, racial prejudice, and slavery

Causes and Motivations

- Industrialization played a role in enabling and motivating the new imperialism
 - Western economies became hungry for raw materials and overseas markets
 - Raw materials (timber, industrial and precious metal, coal, rubber, and various chemicals) could be wrested from less powerful societies by force
 - Industrial-era weaponry lent Western armies and navies military superiority
 - Western sea power depended on control over islands and ports around the world because ships powered by coal (and then petroleum) required repair base and refueling deposits
- Europe's rapid population growth also prompted imperialism
 - People migrated not just to the Americas but to settler colonies far from the homeland
 - Geological and scientific aptitude allowed for easier penetration of the African and Asian interior
 - Medical advances (antimalarial treatment quinine) made it possible for Westerners to establish themselves in tropical areas where illnesses like sleeping sickness, yellow fever, and malaria had prevented them from gaining a foothold
- A complex set of cultural factors motivated empire building
 - A sense of racial superiority, buttressed in many cases by the doctrine of social Darwinism, was widespread among white Europeans and Americans
 - When Japan emerged as an imperial power, social Darwinism and ideologies of racial exceptionalism became increasingly popular there due to the influential 1885 essay "Goodbye Asia," which shows how many Japanese were coming to believe that their rapid modernization made them inherently superior to other Asians
 - Many Westerners became convinced that they had a duty to educate and modernize the peoples of Africa and Asia (the white man's burden, or la mission civilisatrice)

- Although Euro-American missionaries, doctors, scientists, and colonial officials sometimes did much useful work, they did so as much out of condescension as out of goodwill, and they often trampled on or eradicated native cultural practices and beliefs

Forms of Imperialism

- Overseas empires and settler colonies were the best known
 - Britain's empire, on which "the sun never set," was by far the largest
 - France gradually accumulated the era's second largest empire
 - Spain, Portugal, and the Netherlands, which had been more active during the Columbian age of exploration, continued to hold on to certain overseas possessions
 - After 1870, Germany and Italy began to build overseas empires in an attempt to catch up with more established imperial powers
- Land-based empires expanded as well
 - Austria maintained one in eastern and southeastern Europe, colliding with the empire ruled by the Ottoman Turks
 - Russia conquered Siberia, much of Central Asia, and for a time, parts of North America
 - At the end of the century, Japan extended its imperial reach to the Asian mainland
- Economic imperialism, which typically involved pressuring weaker nations to offer favorable trade terms rather than outright colonization, was practiced as well
 - Prominent targets include Latin America and Qing China, and arguably Egypt during and after the construction of the Suez Canal

Native Elites

- Imperial powers aimed to economize on labor and to ensure loyalty by training and educating the native elites
 - Trained native elites Western-style to serve as official and bureaucrats
 - Filled the ranks of overseas forces with native troops (sepoys in India, askaris in Africa)
- Britain created an education system in India that aimed to create elites who were "Indian in blood and color, but English in taste, in opinion, in morals, and in intellect"
- The U.S. sponsored the pro-U.S. Federalista Party in the newly acquired Philippines because "these picked Filipinos will be of infinite value as the chief agents in securing their people's obedience"
- Compradors were native merchants (particularly in East and South Asia) who cooperated with Western colonists and corporations as commercial agents and middlemen

Geopolitical Tensions and Rising Conflict

- Wherever imperial expansion was pursued, a steady rise in global conflict followed
 - Campaigns of conquest were violent in their own right
 - In the late 1800s, with fewer desirable territories left to be claimed, Euro-American competition over empire became increasingly bitter
- Tensions were heightened further by specific geopolitical conflicts
 - The Eastern Question is about how to fill the power vacuum caused in the Balkan and the eastern Mediterranean by the Ottoman Empire's steady decline
 - The Great Game is the collision of British and Russian spheres of influence in Central Asia
 - The Scramble for Africa is the rush to subjugate the entire continent between the 1880s and 1910s
- Southeastern Europe (the Balkans) became one of the world's most unstable regions during the late 1800s and early 1900s
 - Imperial ambitions of Russia, Austria, Italy, and the Ottoman Empire all were centered there
 - Many states (Serbs) were newly independent and fiercely nationalistic
 - Labeled the "powderkeg of Europe" during the turn of the century as several short wars broke out there, even before World War I
- It became increasingly difficult for Western states to maintain their balance of power
 - Between Napoleon's defeat in 1815 and the outbreak of the Crimean War (1853-1856), the settlement devised at the Congress of Vienna (1814-1815) preserved peace among the European powers

- After midcentury, armed conflict became more common in Europe—including the Franco-Prussian War (1870-1871), which created the modern German state, and the wars of Italian unification
- While such wars were short and limited, they encouraged a growing spirit of belligerent patriotism (nicknamed jingoism by the British press)
- On the surface, there was relative stability during the Long Peace (1871-1914)
- Underneath, however, the potential for a major conflict grew every year, especially after 1890 when the German chancellor Otto von Bismarck, a cautious diplomat and a key architect of the European balance of power, was dismissed by Germany's rash and impatient emperor, Wilhelm II
- During the 1890s and early 1900, the European Alliance system divided the great powers into two armed camps
 - Germany and Austria were already aligned with Italy in the Triple Alliance that was formed in 1881 (although Italy would drop out in 1914)
 - In the mid-1890s, France, bitter about defeat in the Franco-Prussian War, allied with Russia, who viewed Austria as a threat in the Balkans
 - Geographically, France and Russia now had their rivals surrounded
 - Britain remained uncommitted for as long as possible because it viewed Russia as the enemy thanks to the Great Game in Central Asia and had little affection for France
 - After 1900, Britain grew increasingly alarmed by Germany's aggressive empire building (especially in Africa) and its rapid naval expansion, which threatened Britain's sea power (the root of Britain's global might)
 - In 1907, Britain informally partnered with the Franco-Russian alliance, forming the Triple Entente
 - From then on forward, any crisis between two countries could potentially involve all of Europe's major powers and significantly increase the likelihood of a major war

Political Developments by Region

Europe

- Between 1815 and 1848, most governments took an archconservative stance called reaction because they were convinced that even the slightest liberalism would lead to renewed political chaos
 - Attempted to minimize change or even undo what had transpired during the years of revolution
 - Dealt with the shock waves following the French Revolution and the progression of the Industrial Revolution
- Reaction was the guiding principle of the Congress of Vienna (1814-1815), which not only ended the Napoleonic wars but forged an informal agreement among Europe's major regimes to preserve order and prevent change
 - Royal families were restored whenever possible (including in France)
 - Civil liberties were restricted
 - Censorship was heavy
 - Police forces were common
 - Trade unions were illegal
 - Political parties were illegal in many countries
- Repression differed in countries with different government systems
 - In Britain, a parliamentary state, the 1832 Reform Act slightly expanded the vote and Parliament took note of the worst industrial-era working conditions
 - In France, another parliamentary state, the 1830 revolution further limited the power of the monarch
 - In Central and Eastern Europe, the level of repression was greater: if voting systems existed at all, they were limited
 - Russia not only remained an absolute monarchy but still continued the practice of serfdom
- Although Britain did not undergo actual revolution during the early 1800s (though it was attempted in Ireland), it faced popular discontent that was potentially revolutionary
 - The Chartist movement was named for the People's Charters it presented to parliament in 1838, 1842, 1848
 - It wanted political and economic improvements, especially more voting representation
 - Although they failed to get their demands met formally, the pressure they placed on the government helped lead to reform
- A key turning point came with the revolutions of 1848

- There were underlying causes to the revolutions
 - Popular impatience with reactionary rule
 - Socioeconomic stress caused by industrialization
 - Series of bad harvest (like the Irish Potato Famine) and that caused the decade to be known as the “hungry forties”
- Revolution began in France, where the king was deposed and Napoleon’s nephew appointed president
- Uprisings spread to much of the rest of Europe (excluding England and Russia), but were crushed by the summer of 1849
- Compelled Austria and German states like Prussia to grant constitutions
- Demonstrated the growing political importance of nationalism during the ethnic revolts against Austrian rule
 - Inspired Karl Marx and Friedrich Engels to write The Communist Manifesto
- During the second half of the century, most European states expanded political representation and legislated the improvement of working conditions, although whether they did so by means of reform or revolution varied
- Victorian Britain’s parliament made reforms through passing legislature
 - Gradually extended the vote to middle- and lower- class males by means of the Second (1867) and Third (1885) Reform Acts
 - Granted economic concessions and fairer labor laws to the lower classes
 - Wrestled with the questions of women’s suffrage and Irish nationalism
- France’s progress towards democracy was less simple and gentle
 - After 1848, all adult males could vote
 - In 1851, Louis Napoleon, the president, staged a coup and crowned himself Napoleon III
 - He was not an absolute dictator and helped modernize Paris and Industrialized the country, but his humiliating defeat during the Franco-Prussian War (1870-1871) caused his abdication
 - After a short but bloody revolution, a new democratic republic arose in 1871 and lasted until 1940
- Democracy did not solve all of France’s problems
 - Women remained without the vote
 - Corruption and financial scandals rocked France
 - The Dreyfus Affair (1894-1906), in which the army and government falsely blamed a Jewish soldier for the leaking of military secrets to Germany, divided the left (which maintained Dreyfus’s innocence) and the right (which was convinced of his guilt)
- Nationalism profoundly affected politics in Italy, Germany, and Austria
 - The unification of Italy as a parliamentary monarchy took place in the 1860s (although less than 5 percent of the population received the vote)
 - The unification of Germany was spearheaded by Prussia in a series of three short conflicts culminating in the Franco-Prussian War of 1870-1871
 - The new German emperor shared power with the Reichstag (legislature)
 - All adult males technically had the vote, although the electoral system was heavily stacked in favor of the upper classes
 - With Otto von Bismarck serving the emperor as chancellor (and also as Europe’s most skilled diplomat), Germany rapidly modernized thanks to a policy of state-directed industrialization
 - Despite his staunch conservatism, Bismarck craftily offered the lower classes substantial economic concessions (the most generous in Europe at the time) to keep them from becoming attracted to trade unions or socialism
 - In Austria, post-1848 liberalization led to the creation of a parliament in 1861
 - Various concessions were made to the empire’s many minority populations, whose nationalist aspirations were rising
 - The Ausgleich (“compromise”) of 1867 granted equal status to Austria’s largest minority, the Hungarians, and the state was renamed the Austro-Hungarian Empire
 - In total, the empire had eleven official languages, although German and Hungarian remain the most important
 - Anti-Semitism became a major part of political life
- Even the autocratic Russia was forced to change along with the rest of Europe

- Shaken by his country's embarrassing loss in the Crimean War (1853-1856), the moderately liberal Alexander II modernized Russia with a series of "great reforms," chief of which was his 1861 emancipation of the serfs
- Alexander was assassinated by radical terrorists who believed that he had not gone far enough, and the conservative tsars who succeeded him undid most of his work
- Nicholas II, who was met with a terrible defeat during the Russo-Japanese War (1904-1905), almost lost his throne during the 1905 revolution
- He was compelled to share power with a new and popularly elected legislature, the Duma—but once the danger passes, Nicholas weakened the Duma and avoided cooperating with them
- Anti-Semitic persecution escalated in late tsarist Russia, and pogroms (anti-Jewish raids) became distressingly common

The Middle East and Central Asia

- This was a time of decline for the Middle East as the gunpowder empires faded away
 - Safavid Persia disappeared in the early 1700s
 - Technically governed by the Qajar dynasty between 1794 and 1925
 - Dominated by foreign powers in the 1800s without being formally colonized and Qajar rulers were kept in place
 - Russia and Britain divided the country into northern and southern spheres of influence and kept that arrangement until after World War II
 - The Ottoman Empire survived into the early 1900s, but not without hardships
 - Lost a number of wars to Austria and Russia during the 1700s
 - Lost territory at an alarming rate in the 1800s
 - Came to be derided as the "sick man of Europe"
- The chief internal trouble that plagued the Ottoman Empire was that the sultans and reformers who wished to modernize were met with resistance from Islamic traditionalists or influential elites with a vested interest in preserving old ways
 - The once-innovative janissaries blocked any attempt to improve the military, to the point of assassinating the sultan in 1807
- Reformers had better success between the 1820s and the 1870s, although not enough in the long run
 - Janissary power was broken in the 1820s, and the army and the navy were upgraded and westernized
 - The Tanzimat reforms (1839-1876) were a series of changes from the government
 - Promoted religious tolerance and equality before the law for non-Muslims
 - Introduced Western science and technology into the education system
 - Boosted industry and built railroads and telegraphs
 - Liberalized and secularized the law code and legal system
 - Sultan Abdul Hamid II also proclaimed the constitution of 1876 and agreed to share power with an elected legislature
- Unfortunately, both the constitution and the Tanzimat reforms were derailed
 - In 1878, the sultan suspended the constitution for twenty years, and the Tanzimat effort fizzled
 - Abdul Hamid was caught between traditionalists who opposed any changes at all and a growing number of modernizing politicians and military officers (Young Turks) who wanted more change than he was willing to deliver
 - By the early 1900s, the Young Turks would play a decisive role in ending his rule
 - The Tanzimat effort (as well as any Ottoman domestic policy in general) was handicapped further by a cascade of rebellions and wars that threatened the empire with disintegration
 - The Greek War of Independence (1821-1832) inspired future nationalist uprisings among other Balkan Christians
 - It also stoked a decades-long anti-Turkish prejudice in Europe by persuading Britain and Russia to intervene out of sympathy for the Greeks
 - At the same time, the rebellion of Muhammad Ali (who transformed Egypt into an autonomous principality in 1805) along with the French colonization of Algeria (taken from the Turks in 1830

and brutally pacified by the end of the 1840s) demonstrated the Ottoman state's structural vulnerability

- Ali created a Western-style military and industrialized the production of Egyptian cotton, but also governed autocratically as khedive (hereditary prince) and subjected cotton growers and textile workers to oppressive labor conditions until his death in 1839
- The Ottomans' external problems worsened after midcentury
 - Russia's sudden annexation of Ottoman provinces on the Danube provoked the Crimean War (1853-1856), in which Britain and France stepped in to aid the Turks against Russia
 - Balkan nationalism intensified, shown by the Balkan Crisis of 1876-1878
 - Bulgarians, Serbs, and others revolted against economically harsh policies
 - Ottoman troops committed terrible anti-Christian atrocities, undermining the Tanzimat reforms' modernizing spirit and triggering widespread anti-Turkish revulsion in Europe
 - Russia warred against the Ottomans on the rebels' behalf and imposed a punitive treaty
 - European powers, not wishing the Ottomans to be fatally destabilized, negotiated a more lenient treaty
 - Rebel nations went free
 - Ottoman control over North Africa weakened
 - Egypt was out of Ottoman control thanks to Muhammed Ali's rebellion and Algeria was already lost to the French
 - Tunisia then fell to the French, Morocco to the French and Spanish, and Libya to Italy
- One of the Ottoman reformers' greatest failures was their inability to develop a form of patriotism that included all subjects, regardless of ethnicity or religion
 - Ideology of "Ottomanism" meant to forge this common sense of citizenship did not inspire Muslims and was viewed by non_muslims with suspicion
 - In the late 1800s, a more aggressive form of Turkish nationalism took wider hold, even among some reforms
 - The persecution of minorities, especially Armenian Christians, became more common
- As the new century began, the pro-Western Young Turks, who had coalesced during the late 1800s around an agenda of rapid modernization, rose to power
 - Led by army officer Enver Pasha
 - Disposed Abdul Hamid II in 1908-1909, installed a figurehead sultan, and restored the constitution of 1876
 - Pursued a program of industrialization, secularization, and socioeconomic reform
 - Continued to lose territory in North Africa and the Balkans
 - Forged close ties with Germany
 - Supported the losing side in World War I, which was the final step in the empire's ultimate demise
- During the 1800s, Russia waged long wars of imperial conquest in the Islamic Central Asia (home to the Silk Road khanates)
 - The Russians had a variety of motivations, most of which was tied to the land
 - Gained natural resources (Central Asia is a great cotton-producing center)
 - Secured their open southern frontier (a long-standing strategic concern)
 - Furthered their dream (never realized) of winning warm water ports on the Indian Ocean
 - Russia's ambitions in this region brought it into diplomatic conflict with the British, who feared any possible interference with their lines of communication with India, and the resulting Great Game caused bitter Anglo-Russian rivalry until the early 1900s

Africa

- Paradoxically, Africa, which had been victimized by foreign colonists and slave traders for hundreds of years, remained comparatively free of direct outside influence until well into the 1800s
 - The Ottoman Empire controlled North Africa
 - Omani Arabs ruled most of the East African shores and Swahili ports (after displacing the Portuguese)
 - European presence on the continent was restricted to select spots on the coast

- Some African countries were cooperative enough that foreigners found it useful to work with them rather than fight them
 - Benin, Dahomey, Kongo, and the Ashanti (Asante) kingdom played a role in the Atlantic slave trade
 - They took prisoners from enemy people and sold them to Euro-American slavers in exchange for gold and guns
 - The Atlantic slave trade continued to ravage Africa until it was made illegal and eventually shut down
 - The East African slave trade ended as well during the late 1800s
- Many African countries were strong enough in the late 1700s and early 1800s to resist foreign domination
 - Barbary states of Islamic North Africa
 - Present-day Morocco, Algeria, Tunisia, and Libya
 - Technically ruled by the Ottomans but became increasingly autonomous
 - Piratical corsairs from these states threatened European and American shipping and enslaved captive
 - Raids embroiled the United States in the Barbary Wars and partly provoked the French colonization of Algeria, starting in 1830
 - The Ashante (Asante) kingdom
 - West Africa's Gold Coast, or present-day Ghana
 - Engaged in a dramatic military buildup during the late 1700s, financed by its participation in the Atlantic slave trade
 - Threatened European outposts and trade routes along the Gold Coast
 - Resisted Euro-American attempts to destroy the slave trade
 - Starting in 1823, Britain found itself locked in a long series of wars with the Ashanti, who kept up their fight for independence until 1902
 - Sokoto Caliphate
 - Present-day Nigeria
 - Islamic state founded during the Fulani revolt of 1809
 - Resisted the British until 1903, similar to the Ashante
 - Zulu kingdom
 - Existed on the edge of Dutch and British possessions in South Africa
 - Before 1800, they were organized into small, relatively peaceful clans
 - From 1816 to 1826, Shaka, a new chieftain, united them into a single warlike tribe and led a rapid expansion that caused a large wave of tribal migration throughout southern Africa
 - Clashed with the Dutch Boers and British settlers, but were pacified after only several conflicts (including the Zulu War of 1879)
 - Zanzibar
 - Produced spices, sugar, and cloves for the Indian Ocean trade network
 - Served as a key hub for the East African slave trade
 - Ruled by the Arab sultanate of Oman after 1698, became the Omani capital in 1840, and was promoted to the status of sultanate in 1861
 - Controlled the Zanj, a large portion of the East African coast
 - Ethiopia
 - Remained Coptic Christian in predominantly Muslim East Africa
 - Existed largely in isolation between the mid-1600s, when it expelled the Portuguese, and the mid-1800s, when Theodore II, a pro-Western but mentally erratic king, began a process of military modernization
 - That policy, continued by succeeding kings, allowed Ethiopia to ward off European invasion
 - 1896 victory over Italian forces at Adowa was one of the most embarrassing setbacks suffered by a nineteenth-century European power
- As the century progressed, nearly every part of Africa lost its freedom to European states
 - Coastal areas were the first to fall
 - South Africa was first colonized by Dutch Boers (Afrikaners) in the mid-1600s, but the British also became involved
 - Influx of new settlers after the Napoleonic Wars, when the British assumed control over the region

- British settlement set off the Xhosa cattle-killing movement (1856-1857), an example of a millenarian rebellion or a religiously inspired episode of resistance
 - In 1856, a female prophet foretold that if the Xhosa killed their own livestock, the spirits will expel the British from their lands
 - Cattle were already falling ill from a sickness probably brought to Africa by European cattle
 - Xhosa began killing their cattle in early 1857, leading to a vast famine
- Boers were displaced by the British and made a Great Trek to the north during the 1830s
- Founded their own states on the border of British South Africa
- Boers and British periodically clashed with each other and more regularly with the local Xhosa and Zulu until the capitulation of the latter in the Zulu War of 1879
- Discovery of South African gold mines and diamond fields heightened military tensions and led to the exploitation of African laborers
- Far to the north, the French colonization of Algeria was carried out during the 1830s and 1840s with scorch-earth devastation and frightful violence against local civilians
 - Sufi scholar Abd al-Qadir led the resistance and became internationally respected, even after his defeat, for the dignity and bravery with which his forces fought
 - The French became particularly attached to Algeria and viewed it as their most important possession (similar to the way the British viewed India)
- Egypt was ruled by the khedives (Muhammed Ali's descendants) until it fell increasingly under European influence after the 1850s
 - The construction of the Suez Canal (1854-1869), financed by the French-dominated Suez Canal Company and overseen by the French engineer Ferdinand de Lesseps, gave France a huge economic leverage over the khedive
 - That leverage passed in the 1870s and 1880s to Britain, which purchased shares in the canal and then stepped in militarily to save the khedive from an 1881 revolt
 - That same year, the British established the Anglo-Egyptian Administration, a protectorate that left the khedive on the throne but placed real control in British hands
- The Scramble for Africa began after 1880 and lasted until the eve of World War I
 - Only about 10% of African territory fell under European control before 1880
 - Within three decades, all of Africa (excluding Ethiopia and Liberia) had been brought under Europe's sway
 - Westerners could fully press into the interior due to advances in knowledge
 - Geographic knowledge gained by explorers (late 1700s-mid-1800s)
 - Industrial-era weaponry
 - Effective treatments for tropical diseases
 - Various parts of Africa were vulnerable to European takeover
 - Civil and intertribal conflict between civilizations
 - African states that benefited from the slave trade found themselves economically weakened when the commerce came to an end
 - Europeans were motivated by a combination of factors
 - Greed for gold, diamonds, ivory, rubber, and palm oil
 - Belief in their own racial superiority, reinforced by the doctrine of Social Darwinism
 - White man's burden conviction that they had to "civilize" their "dark continent"
 - Century's-long antislavery campaigns led to the belief that taking military action to intervene there was morally justified
 - The Berlin Conference (1884-1885) was a pivotal moment in the Scramble for Africa
 - Convened by the German statesman Otto von Bismarck to diffuse diplomatic tensions stirred up by Europe's headlong rush to carve up Africa
 - States agreed on boundaries and the guidelines for further expansion
 - Long-term harm was that the lines drawn on the map reflected only European desires, and bore no relation to the traditional territorial demarcations used by Africans themselves

- Many African groups were divided by European-drawn borders or forced by those borderlines into close proximity with their enemies
- Europe's colonial policies varied widely in Africa
- Britain controlled several colonies in the west (Gold Coast, Nigeria) and a nearly unbroken chain of possessions that ran from South Africa to Egypt ("from Cape to Cairo")
 - Governed with a blend of exploitative selfishness, racist sentiment, and well-meaning condescension
 - Trained native elites and troops in the Western style
 - Brought with them new science, medicine, and industrial technology
- Similar things could be said about France's governing style, which acted mainly in accordance with its mission civilisatrice (after the initial brutality in Algeria)
 - France dominated the island of Madagascar, much of the Saharan north, and vast portions of the west
 - French West Africa and French Equatorial Africa were among the largest colonies on the continent
 - French victory over the Wassoulou Empire founded by Samory Touré (r. 1878-1898) in the region of modern Guinea, Sierra Leone, and Côte d'Ivoire during the Mandingo Wars was crucial in establishing French power here
 - Years later, Touré's grandson would become the first president of independent Guinea
- By contrast, Portuguese rule in its colonies Angola and Mozambique was quite harsh, but the Belgians and the Germans treated their subject even more poorly
- In the 1870s, Leopold II, the Belgian king, established a private company (later bequeathed to the Belgian nation) for the economic development of Congo
 - Claim to the colony was recognized at the Berlin Conference of 1884-1885
 - Forced Congolese laborers to meet production quotas in Belgian-owned rubber plantations
 - Allowed overseers to chop off the right hands of harvesters who fell short, and sometimes massacring them as punishment
 - Original population fell from 20 million to 8.5 million by 1911
- Germany moved aggressively into Tanganyika, near Zanzibar in the east, and several small areas in the west, but the colonies were unprofitable leftovers and the Germans faced several costly uprisings
 - Killed over a quarter million to suppress the Maji Maji Revolt (1905-1907) in German East Africa
 - Rebels believed that drinking blessed water would keep them safe from European bullets
 - Herero Wars (1904-1907) involved the use of concentration camps against civilians and killed nearly 80% of Southwest Africa's Herero natives
- The Scramble for Africa backfired on the Europeans by rousing their combative passions and contributing to the diplomatic tensions that led to World War I
 - In 1896, France and Britain almost came to blows because of the Fashoda Incident, in which French troops moving eastward into the Nile valley encountered British forces who regarded the region as theirs
 - German interference with French and Spanish plan for northwestern Africa led to a Morocco Crisis in 1906 and another in 1911
 - Germany's public support of Dutch Afrikaners in their Boer War (1899-1902) against Britain also was destabilizing
 - Although the British had a more powerful army, the Boers were skilled sharpshooters fighting on their home territory
 - The war grew vicious, with the British using concentration camps to keep 120,000 civilians (over 20,000 of whom died) from supporting Boer guerrillas
 - Anglo-German relations, which were already strained by the two nations' naval race, worsened, which had profound implications for the European alliance system that took shape

East Asia

- Both China and Japan were largely isolated during the late 1700s and early 1800s before being confronted with Western imperial pressures in the mid-1800s

China

- Qianlong emperor (r. 1763-1795) is remembered as the Qing dynasty's last truly capable ruler

- Qing China in the late 1700s still enjoyed immense wealth, artistic and intellectual grandeur, and firm political and military sway over the states in its tributary system
- However, even during his reign and more so afterward, Confucian-based social stratification remained rigid
- Cost of defending China's northern and western frontiers, combined with too-rapid population growth (300 million in 1799 to 400 million a century later), burdened the economy
- Popular discontent erupted in violent uprisings like the White Lotus Rebellion (1796-1804)
- Government grew even more corrupt and incompetent after the Qianlong emperor's death
- The Qing badly mishandled relations with the West
 - In the late 1700s and early 1800s, Europeans and Americans were allowed to trade with China only in a handful of designated cities (most famously Canton)
 - While the Chinese sold silk, porcelain, and increasingly large quantities of tea to Western nations, they accepted on silver in exchange and refused to allow any more than a tiny selection of Western goods to be sold in their country
 - Lopsided balance of trade angered Westerners
 - When the Macartney mission petitioned the Qianlong emperor in 1793 for permission to open a British embassy and sell more goods in China, the emperor replied dismissively that "your country has nothing we need"
 - This reflected an imprudent sense of superiority; the Qing continued to believe that China was the Middle Kingdom and that all outsiders were barbarians
 - They failed to recognize that they had already fallen behind the West when it came to science and technology and could not hope to match the stronger navies, better weapons, and more effective armies that would be pitted against them in the 1800s
- In the meantime, the British (followed by other Western nations, including the U.S.) embarked on a campaign of economic imperialism by flooding China with a highly potent variety of opium from British India
 - Opium trade overwhelmingly reversed the economic balance of power, and silver bullion now flowed out of China at an alarming rate
 - Opium addiction became so widespread during the early 1800s that on any given day, millions of farmers and workers were too incapacitated to work
 - In 1839, the Qing trade commissioner Lin Zexu protested to the British, begging Queen Victoria herself to end the trade
 - Confiscated a huge quantity of opium from British warehouses in Canton and cast it into the ocean
 - Incensed the British merchants by dealing a stunning financial blow
 - Sparked the First Opium War (1839-1842)
- Western powers were able to force many "unequal treaties" on nineteenth-century China
 - The British easily won the First Opium War, which ended with the Treaty of Nanking
 - Opened more ports to foreign trade
 - Lowered tariffs on British goods
 - Surrendered Hong Kong to Britain
 - Further trade conflicts in the 1850s and 1860s, including a Franco-British assault on Beijing, resulted in more unequal treaties
 - Legalized the opium trade
 - Opened additional ports
 - Allowed Americans and Europeans to set up foreign concessions (large coastal districts were Western, not Chinese, law prevailed)
 - By 1898, foreign vessels were allowed to sail as far up Chinese rivers as they pleased
 - China was also compelled to readmit Western missionaries (both Protestant and Catholic) who had been banned since the early 1700s
 - Undermined traditional Chinese culture
 - Brought the benefits of modern medical treatment
 - Worked to eliminate practices like female foot binding
- Internal crises dogged the Qing at the same time, including the Taiping Rebellion (1850-1864)

- Claimed between 20 million to 30 million lives, making it possibly the second deadliest war in history, next to World War II
- Uprising was led by Hong Xiuquan, a Cantonese clerk partly educated by Protestant missionaries
 - Shocked at failing his civil service exam
 - Experienced visions that convinced him he was Jesus Christ's younger brother, destined to establish a taiping ("heavenly kingdom of supreme peace") in China
 - Appealed to millions of ordinary Chinese who resented the Qing's high taxes and oppressive rule
 - Organized an effective modern army
 - Committed suicide in 1864
- The rebels controlled a third of China at their peak before Qing forces (assisted by foreign military units) recovered by the early 1860s
- The rebellion collapsed after Hong committed suicide
- Reacting to the Taiping chaos, elements within the Qing government attempted a reform campaign called the self-strengthening movement, starting the 1860s
 - Pursued sporadically over the next few decades
 - Limited impact because it confined itself to economic and military modernization without meaningful social change
 - Opposed by the leading figure in Chinese politics, the dowager empress Cixi
 - Governed as a regent for her nephew, the Guangxu emperor, beginning in 1878, and controlled him even after he grew into adulthood
 - Conservative, oppressive, and resisted all change
 - Placed her nephew under arrest and executed his reformist advisors when he launched a short-lived "Hundred Days' Reform" in 1898
- China experienced internal decay, economic decline, and continued humiliation on the diplomatic front
 - Outlying possessions and parts of China's tributary system gained autonomy or fell into foreign hands
 - France seized Indochina after a short conflict with China in 1883
 - Japan thrashed China in the Sino-Japanese War (1894-1895) and occupied Korea and Taiwan
 - In 1899, the United States' Open Door Policy arranged equal access to Chinese markets for all Western nations, further increasing foreign intrusion
- The Yihetuan revolt ("Militia United in Righteousness") followed in the summer of 1900
 - Nicknamed the Boxer Rebellion because many of the rebels were martial artists
 - Reflected Chinese anger at foreign influence that was worsened by severe drought and high unemployment in late 1899
 - Like the Maji Maji rebels in German East Africa, many of China's Boxer rebels believed that certain rituals would prevent Western bullets from harming them
 - Qing authorities originally tried to put the rebels down, but they were later encouraged when Cixi realized she could unleash their rage against Western occupiers
 - Months of violence and destruction threatened foreign concessions
 - Western forces only managed to quash the uprising in the fall of 1901
 - In revenge, Western powers burned a number of Chinese temples and forced the Qing to pay heavy reparations
- Cixi recognized the need for change and formed a committee to consider writing a constitution, but both she and Guangxu died in 1908
- Henry Puyi was left to take up the reform effort, but the revolution destroyed the Qing regime in 1911-1912, leading to the rise of the Chinese Republic

Japan

- The Tokugawa shogunate tried in the late 1700s and early 1800s to enjoy the fruits of urbanization and protoindustrialization,
 - Kept in place its dictatorial rule and its rigid social stratification, which favored the samurai elite
 - Banned Christianity since the 1600s
 - Only allowed a trickle of foreign trade through the port of Nagasaki

- Japan's isolation changed with the appearance of American gunships captained by Commodore Mathew Perry in 1853
 - Asked the Japanese to open up to trade, with the threat of force behind his friendly words
 - Shogun agreed and other Western fleets appeared with similar demands
- The Meiji Restoration of 1868, named after the new emperor (r. 1868-1912) began Japan's modern age
 - People had feared that Japan would end up like China
 - In 1867-1868, a coalition of samurai clans, angered by the shogun's unwillingness to stand up to foreign intimidation, abolished his office and restored the emperor—a symbolic figure since the 1200s—to a position of full authority
 - In a revolution from above, the Meiji emperor rapidly industrialized Japan's economy and thoroughly modernized political and social life
 - Japan emerged as an imperial power and became the non-Western world's most successful adaptation to the industrial era
- The Meiji emperor swept away the feudal social hierarchy of the Tokugawa era
 - In the 1870s, samurai lost their hereditary privileges, including immunity from taxation, the annual subsidies paid to them from the government, and their right to carry swords in public
 - Access to political positions depended increasingly on merit and civil service examinations
 - Feudal prejudice against trade faded away as industrialization increased the size and influence of the merchant and middle classes
 - Lower classes gained access to public education and were allowed to serve in the military after centuries of not being allowed to handle weapons of any kind
 - Constitution of 1890 created the Diet (elected parliament)
 - Civil Code of 1898 updated Japan's legal system
- To build popular allegiance, the Meiji emperor and his successors turned to Japan's indigenous faith, creating an Office of Shinto worship in 1872
 - All priests became state employees
 - Emphasized the veneration of the emperor as a descendant of the gods
 - Used to justify a sense of Japanese racial superiority and blind obedience to the government by the 1930s and 1940s
- Liberalization only went so far to better living conditions, however
 - Taxes increased for farmers
 - Working conditions for the industrial lower classes resembled the ghastly ones that had characterized Europe's early Industrial Revolution
 - Only 5% of the population could vote for the Diet because of property qualifications and other restrictions
 - The emperor still exercised a great deal of power over the Diet
 - Civil code made little room for the rights of women, who were largely confined to a secondary status
- The Meiji regime excelled at westernization, economic efficiency, and militarization
 - New tax system of 1872 funded a national educational system
 - Imported Western science and technical know-how at an astonishing rate
 - Elite and Middle classes adopted Western dress and manners, the Western calendar, and the metric system
 - Navy and army adopted industrial-era technology and Western tactics and organizational methods from Britain and Germany
- Because Japan was a resource-poor country and needed raw materials to feed its industrial growth, it began to expand in the 1870s. Nationalist sentiment also swelled as the century wore on
 - Took the Ryukyu Islands (including Okinawa, the most cherished of Japan's possessions) from China in 1879
 - Joined the Western powers in forcing China to grant it foreign concessions
 - Success in the Sino-Japanese War (1894-1895) allowed Japan to occupy Taiwan and Korea
 - The Russo-Japanese War (1904-1905) was the first large-scale conflict of the modern era in which a non-Western state defeated an European power
 - Russia's imperial and railroad-building ambitions in eastern Siberia, Mongolia, and Manchuria collided with Japan's plan for expansion

- The tsar pushed ahead instead of negotiating spheres of influence with the Japanese
- The Japanese won because they were fighting close to home and equipped just as well as the Russians were
- Russians had to supply their war via the Trans-Siberian Railway, several thousand miles long
- Victory gave them the Kurile Islands and southern Sakhalin and strengthened their position in Korea and mainland China

South Asia, Southeast Asia, and Oceania

India

- In eighteenth century India, the centralizing authority of the once-mighty Mughal Empire fractured
 - During the late 1600s, the Islamic militancy of Aurangzeb provoked the creation of a Sikh state in the Punjab and the breakaway of the Hindu Maratha Empire
 - Muslim states like Mysore also won their independence
 - The Maratha princes, who belonged to the warrior caste and demonstrated a willingness to innovate with gunpowder weaponry, were formidable warriors
- Another threat was the steadily growing European presence in South Asia
 - The Portuguese and Dutch were the first arrivals before the French and the British emerged as the main competitors for influence over India
 - Britain's victory over France during the Seven Years' War (1756-1763)—particularly its 1757 defeat of France's Mughal allies at the battle of Plassey in Bengal—ensured British superiority on the continent
 - France's colonial presence was confined to the southeastern port of Pondicherry
- Until the mid-1800s, the British East India Company carried out the colonization of India
 - In 1800, it controlled only a small part of the country
 - Bombay (now Mumbai, the gateway port of the west coast)
 - Madras (a textile-producing center on the southeast shore)
 - Calcutta (in the Bengal northeast)
 - Cotton industry was one initial interest, although the company also traded in tea, spices, and opium
 - During the early 1800s, it expanded through a combination of diplomacy, warfare, and the training of native elites
 - Many Mughal rulers surrendered bureaucratic authority in exchange for being allowed to keep their thrones
 - Company armies defeated the Mysore sultanate, the Maratha princes, and the Sikhs
 - British authority extended into the interior, along the vital Ganges River valley, and up to the northwest frontier
 - The British colonizers had a positive effect on the religion in India
 - Although done mainly to keep order, the English reduced the level of religious strife between India's Muslims and Hindus
 - British authorities officially discouraged the conversion of Indians to Christianity and strove to respect local religious and cultural practices
 - They also combated customs they felt were inhumane
 - Sati (Hindu funeral rite of burning widows with their dead husbands)
 - Thuggee (ritual assassination in the name of the Hindu goddess Kali)
 - Harsh treatment of the untouchables in the caste system
 - The company relied as much as possible on native personnel in order to save on humanpower
 - They turned to native officials and zamindar landowners for administration and tax gathering, which led to trouble in the late 1700s when many zamindars overtaxed their countrymen and seized land from peasants who could not pay
 - When the resulting famines killed one-third of the rural population under British control, the company reformed its tax-gathering system
 - The French began the practice of training sepoy (Indian soldiers trained and equipped in Western style) in the mid-1700s, and it was used on a huge scale by the British
 - A surprisingly small number of their own officers and soldiers were stationed in India
 - After their missteps in the 1700s, the British came to administer India more efficiently

- Ruled with the combination of self-interest and well-meaning but condescending “white man’s burden” thinking that typified their approach to imperialism
- Made no secret about their feelings of racial superiority or their hunger for profits
- Displaced native artisanry and cottage industry with British economic interests
- Built schools, railroads, telegraphs and improved the food-distribution network to prevent famines for their own benefit, not for the native Indians
- A key change in Britain’s handling of India came in the years 1857-1858 with the traumatic Indian Revolt
 - Underlying resentment of British rule was inflamed by growing sepoy anger at changes to their terms of service made by the company to save money
 - Existing tension exploded into open violence due to false rumors that new cartridges issued to sepoy riflemen had been greased with cow and pig fat, deliberately to undermine Hindu and Muslim religious practices
 - Initial disturbances grew into a massive wave of nationwide revolt
 - Sepoy units in Delhi proclaimed the aged Mughal sultan the new emperor of India
 - Savage massacres of British civilians, especially at Cawnpore (where the butchered remains of women and children were cast into a dry well to rot) incensed the British, who responded with devastating reprisals and mass executions
 - Although the sepoy gravely threatened British rule in India with their Western training and anticolonial zeal, they had no clear plan or single leader, and the Muslim and Hindu rebels often failed to cooperate
 - In 1858, the British, with native troops who remained loyal, put down the rebellion and formally ended the Mughal dynasty
 - Several hundred thousand people, most of them India, perished
 - Rani of Jhansi, the last rebel leader, is remembered in India as a female freedom fighters in the style of Joan of Arc
- After the Indian Revolt, the British crown took over from the British East India Company as India’s colonizing authority
 - Under direct rule, India became the British Empire’s proverbial “jewel in the crown”
 - By the late 1800s, one-quarter of the wealth generated by the empire came from there, making it an indispensable asset
 - At the same time, Britain’s strategy of educating Indian elites began to backfire
 - Many were exposed to liberal or radical ideas and concluded that the British, with their long tradition of civil rights, were treating their non-white subjects hypocritically
 - Many became attracted to national-liberation movements, including the Indian National Congress, which formed in 1885

Southeast Asia

- Because Southeast Asia was rich in rubber, petroleum, and metals like copper, tin, chrome, and aluminum ore (bauxite), it also came under Western dominance
 - The Dutch East Indies (modern-day Indonesia), had been administered by the Dutch East Indies Company since the 1600s, although the Dutch government itself stepped in after 1799 when the company went bankrupt
 - In 1819, the British established the outpost of Singapore at the tip of the Malay Peninsula as a strategically placed naval base and trading center, and it became one of Britain’s most prized possessions in Asia
 - In 1826, nearby Burma also fell to Britain
 - The French gradually detached Indochina (Vietnam, Cambodia, Laos) from China’s tributary system and colonized it in the 1880s and 1890s
 - Although the French emphasized religious conversion more than the British (their native elites were almost exclusively Catholic), the French imperial model was otherwise similar to Britain’s
- Siam (modern-day Thailand) was the one mainland state in Southeast Asia to avoid European colonization in the 1800s, due to good leadership and good luck
 - King Mongkut (r. 1851-1868) saw industrialization and Western-style reform as the key to continued freedom, just like the Meiji emperor in Japan

- Siam's geographic setting also served as a convenient buffer zone between British-controlled Burma and French Indochina
- U.S annexation of the Philippines was the last major acquisition in Southeast Asia
 - The Philippines was a Spanish colony since the early 1500s but was forfeited to the United States in 1898 after the Spanish-American war
 - During the 1880s and 1890s, the Filipino Propaganda Movement tried to persuade Spanish authorities to enact reforms
 - The Katipunan movement national-liberation society struggled more directly against Spanish rule
 - Most Filipinos initially welcomed the Americans as liberators after Spain was defeated
 - However, the United States feared that the Philippines would fall into Japanese hands (and realized that the islands would make a superb naval base) and proclaimed a policy of "benevolent assimilation" and took possession of them in 1899
 - The English poet Rudyard Kipling wrote "White Man's Burden," the era's most famous literary justification of imperialism, to commemorate the Americans' victory over the Spanish and to encourage them to take the Philippines for their own.
 - This led to a Philippine-American War of occupation in which a guerrilla force led by the Katipunan rebel Emilio Aguinaldo resisted the U.S. takeover until 1902
 - Over 200,000 Filipinos died during this conflict

Oceania

- Thanks to explorers like Britain's James Cook, the Pacific became increasingly familiar to Europeans and increasingly subject to their colonial authority
 - Cooks charted and claimed Australia's east coast in 1770
 - The nearby islands of New Zealand, home to the Polynesian Maori, came under English control as well
- Britain took formal control of eastern Australia in 1788 and extended its authority to the entire island in 1830
 - Transformed an outpost of roughly a thousand soldiers and colonial officials into a settler colony whose English-speaking population grew to 1.2 million by the 1860s
 - Many of the new arrivals were English and Irish convicts punished with transportation (a sentence that, in the 1700s, sent prisoners more commonly to New England and the Caribbean), but miners and sheep farmers came here in large numbers as well
 - Settlers overwhelmed Australia's roughly 300,000 Aborigines, dispossessing them (often with violence)
 - In New Zealand, the Maori gained access to gunpowder weapons during the "musket wars" of the early 1700s
 - It took another round of combat, the Land Wars of 1845-1872, for the British to bring them fully under control
- The United States expanded its Pacific presence by purchasing the Russian colony of Alaska in 1867
- The United States also extended its reach to the Hawaiian kingdom
 - The Hawaiian kingdom was founded in 1795 by Kamehameha I, who used Western weaponry to conquer the islands and force them into a European-style absolute monarchy
 - Hawaii evolved into a constitutional monarchy and a noteworthy producer of fruits and sugar
 - Many immigrants from China and Japan arrived to work in these industries
 - It was attacked several times by France and other powers, leading it to seek American protection in the 1840s
 - Although the United States recognized Hawaii as an independent nation, it gained much influence over Hawaiian affairs in the late 1800s
 - In 1893, when Queen Liliuokalani proposed to amend the constitution in ways that were contrary to U.S. interests, she was overthrown
 - With the monarchy ended, the United States annexed Hawaii in 1898, just prior to its occupation of the Philippines
- The late 1800s also saw the arrival of the French and Germans as the colonizers of Tahiti, Samoa, the Marshalls, the Marianas, and other islands

The Americas

United States

- Some comparative notes and a few points about the United States' effect on global affairs should be made
 - Inspiring freedom
 - Became an an example during the 1800s for democratic government and respect for civil liberties (despite racial and gender inequality)
 - Inspired those in other countries who wanted to bring about similar change
 - Sphere of influence
 - The Monroe Doctrine (1823), in which the U.S. government warned Europe against intervening in the western hemisphere's political affairs, was the first step in creating a sphere of influence
 - Quickly became the dominant power in the Americas
 - Practiced economic imperialism in much of Latin America
 - Gained ownership or protection over Caribbean (and Philippine) territories after the Spanish-American War
 - Expansion
 - Began a period of rapid growth with the Louisiana Purchase (1803) and continued with the Mexican-American War (1846-1848), numerous Indian wars, the 1867 purchase of Alaska, and the 1890s annexation of the Hawaiian kingdom
 - Ideology of Manifest Destiny arose in the 1840s to promote the belief that America was naturally entitled to expand
 - Native American policy
 - Handling of Native Americans vacillated between assimilationist attempts to "civilize" them and military campaigns of expulsion or pacification (Indian wars)
 - The 1811 battle of Tippecanoe was a huge setback for the Shawnee chief Tecumseh's rebellion of 1810-1813
 - Andrew Jackson's Indian Removal Act of 1830 pushed many tribes west of the Mississippi
 - Treaties typically arranged for Native American tribes to be placed on reservations with some degree of autonomy, but even when the U.S. government negotiated in good faith, farmers, ranchers, and miners often broke the peace, leading to more forced resettlement
 - The Ghost Dance resistance led to the 1890 massacre of the Sioux at Wounded Knee
 - Precipitated by U.S. desires for the gold discovered in the Black Hills territory sacred to the Sioux
 - Paiute visionary Wovoka—ironically a preacher of peace—popularized the ritual among many western Native Americans
 - Became a rallying point for the Sioux, many of whom were killed by U.S. forces at Wounded Knee
 - Even "civilizing" along American lines was not enough to save the Cherokee Nation from abuse
 - Formed in the late 1700s as a confederation of related tribes in Georgia and its environs
 - Early adopters of new technology and farming techniques from the Americans
 - Devised their own written script, Sequoyah's alphabet
 - Developed a sophisticated political system that was later adapted to U.S. constitutional norms (including the right to own slaves, which the Cherokee did)
 - In 1820, the U.S. government asked the Cherokee to move west to Arkansas and Oklahoma on a voluntary basis, but this became mandatory with the passage of the Indian Removal Act
 - Thousands die of starvation and disease on the Trail of Tears that led to their new home
 - The Cherokee Nation continued to exist as a sovereign entity on the periphery of the United States until 1906, when the U.S. government dismantled it
 - Slavery
 - The persistence of slavery in the American South was a key factor in allowing the Atlantic slave trade to continue for so long
 - It was the underlying cause of the U.S. Civil War (1861-1865)

- Prior to the Civil War, several slave revolts were attempted, most famously by Nat Turner in 1831 and the abolitionist John Brown at Harpers Ferry in 1859
- Industrial and commercial growth
 - Surpassed Europe as an industrial power during the last two-thirds of the 1800s
 - Created many of the era's key innovations
 - New York joined London as one of the world's most important hubs of banking and commerce
- Immigration
 - Drew huge quantities of immigrants (17 million from the 1830s-1890s) from Europe and Asia due to the political freedom and economic opportunity
 - Anti-immigration sentiment was common

Latin America

- Even though Latin American won their independence, it did not necessarily bring about fair democracy in those nations
- Simón Bolívar drafted constitutions for more than a dozen nations after the wars of independence
 - Influenced by the Napoleonic law code and the ideals of the American and French revolutions
 - Did not by themselves bring about good government, social justice, or healthy economies
 - Before his death in 1830, Bolívar mourned that “we have achieved our independence... at the expense of everything else”
- Democracy was frequently subverted by political strongmen known as caudillos, who ruled by means of personal charisma, military force, or oppression
- Mexico's president Benito Juárez was one important exception to the caudillo rule
 - Descended from Zapotec natives
 - Determined supporter of land reform, separation of church and state, and equal treatment for all races
 - Member of the Liberal Party and served as president multiple times between 1858 and 1872
 - First election took place during an armed conflict with Mexico's Conservatives—the Reform War (1857-1861)
 - Led the war of resistance against France's 1864 to 1867 attempt to install Maximilian of Austria as Mexico's emperor
- The general Porfirio Díaz, Juárez's one-time ally, reverted to the caudillo mode
 - Secured his hold over the presidency from 1876 to 1911 until the Mexican Revolution (1910-1920) forced him out of office
- The persistence of racial inequality was also problematic in Latin America
 - Although Constitutions theoretically did away with rigid colonial-era hierarchies, Indians, blacks, and those of mixed race still experienced much prejudice
 - As in the United States and Canada, Indian Wars were common throughout Latin America, particularly in Mexico's Yucatán Peninsula (where a Mayan rebellion raged from 1847 to 1901), the Argentinean pampas, and Brazil's Amazon basin
 - The Atlantic slave trade continued to bring Africans against their will to Latin American and the Caribbean
 - Slavery remained legal in Cuba and Brazil until the 1880s
- Moreover, Latin American contended with economic backwardness because centuries of colonial rule had geared economies toward an overreliance on resource extraction and plantation monoculture
 - Resource extraction included guano for fertilizer, Mexican copper and other precious metals
 - Plantation monoculture included sugar, coffee, fruits, rubber, and beef from Argentina and Uruguay
 - Damaged the environment and hindered industrialization until late in the 1800s
 - Only countries like Mexico and Argentina had a certain measure of industrialization in the late 1800s
 - Fostered social inequality due to depending on slaves or poorly paid peasants or migrant laborers
 - Rubber harvesting in the Amazons, especially in Peru's Putumayo region, was revealed to be nearly as abusive as in the Belgian Congo
 - Profits went overwhelmingly to the elite classes and their foreign-investor partners, leaving a wide gap between the poor and the rich
- Foreign influence over Latin America remained heavy even after independence

- The United States seized vast amounts of territory from Mexico during the Texas rebellion of the 1830s and the Mexican-American War (1846-1848)
- France, under Napoleon III, sponsored the ill-fated attempt to install the Habsburg prince Maximilian as emperor of Mexico (1864-1867)
- British and American economic imperialism—exemplified by the United Fruit Company—became more rampant
- Spain maintained a presence in Cuba and Puerto Rico, which received harsh treatment
- A national-liberation movement led by the Cuban poet José Martí sparked a war of independence during which opponents of Spanish rule were placed into concentration camps, the modern world's first such prisons (soon to be borrowed by the British during the Boer war and the Germans during their campaign against the Hereros of Southwest Africa)
- Events in Cuba led directly to the Spanish-American War (1898), which ended Spain's influence in the Caribbean but handed dominance over to America, which annexed Puerto Rico and established a protectorate in Cuba
- The United States went on to build the Panama Canal in the early 1900s

Cultural Developments and Interactions (1750-1900)

- In Europe and America during these years, the pace of cultural change sped up
 - In contrast to long-lasting movements like the Renaissance and the Enlightenment, trends and styles in the 1800s and 1900s changed constantly
 - Such rapid evolution was a hallmark of modern Western culture
 - Greater access to culture, the formation of modern political philosophies, and a more scientific and secular worldview
- There was also a diffusion of culture between the Western and non-Western world
 - The non-Western world began to adopt artistic and literary forms of the West (print culture and writing styles) as well as architecture
 - Painting, sculpture, and decor from Asia, Africa, and the Middle East also had an influence on Western culture

Art and Culture in the Modern Era

The West

- In the Western world, cultural modernization is considered to have begun with the Enlightenment of the 1700s
 - American revolutionary Thomas Paine referred to it as the Age of Reason
 - Enlightenment thinkers put faith in the power of human logic and in the recent discoveries of the Scientific Revolution
 - Pondered how to make society and government more efficient and humane
 - Generally opposed tyranny (arbitrary exercise of monarchical power)
 - Favored greater respect for individual rights and freedom of opinion and religion
 - Although some Enlightenment thinkers remained devoutly Christian, others adopted vaguer religious stances like deism (belief in a divine being but not the literal truth of a specific doctrine) or atheism
 - Women also shaped Enlightenment culture
 - Organized the salons at which philosophical debate took place
 - Participated directly as authors, activists, and political actors (Mary Wollstonecraft of England and Russia's Catherine the Great)
 - Enlightenment circles and salons appeared throughout the Western world during the 1700s and inspired the American and French Revolutions
- From the late 1700s into the 1800s, the principle cultural movement in the West was romanticism
 - Backlash against the rational Enlightenment
 - Emphasized emotion, individuality, and the imagination
 - English poet Samuel Taylor Coleridge said that romantics considered the "creative faculty" to be superior to the "calculating faculty"

- Around the 1840s, romanticism yielded its place of prominence to realism, although it did not die away yet
 - Realists were concerned with everyday life, social problems, and the psychology of their characters
- Both romanticism and realism reacted strongly to the process of industrialization in Europe and America
 - Romantics idealized nature and viewed industrialization as a blight upon it
 - William Blake poetically contrasted England's "green and pleasant land" with the "dark Satanic mills" of industry
 - Authors like Victor Hugo and Charles Dickens disapprovingly portrayed the social miseries of the industrial era
 - Realist painters and writers regularly addressed themes of poverty and inequality
- Modernist artists and writers turned away from realism in the 1870s onwards
 - Broke the rules of traditional culture
 - Experimented with a dazzling array of new styles; impressionism, postimpressionism, cubism, and abstractism
 - Powerfully influenced by Asia and African Art
 - Movement included Vincent van Gogh and a young Pablo Picasso
- Western forms of art and writing often blended with indigenous styles in other parts of the world whether because of voluntary adoption or because they were imposed by colonial masters as they trained native elites according to Western norms

Middle East

- Ottoman authors adopted European styles like romanticism and realism, especially during the Tanzimat reforms
- At the same time, partly as an opposition to westernizing trends, a resurgence of Arabic culture—which had long been overshadowed by Turkish and Persian art and literature—made itself felt in the region

Africa

- Griot storytelling and other forms of poetic and epic recitation remained popular, and oral tradition was still dominant
- Foreign colonists and Christian missionaries to Africa imported Western culture on a larger scale as imperialism increased
- Western artists that were tired of realism were energized by Africa's nonrepresentational art, which inspired innovative modernist styles (primitivism, abstraction) in Europe and America

East Asia

- East Asia continued its tradition of cultural grandeur
- However, westernizing tendencies throughout the region were increasingly evident
- Cao Xueqin's *Dream of the Red Chamber* appeared during the late 1700s
 - Remains one of Chinese literature's greatest novels
 - Narrates the tragedy of two young lovers caught up in the decline of a wealthy and powerful clan
- In Japan, the ukiyo-e style of woodblock printing reach its highest peak of development during the early 1800s
 - Artists like Hokusai and Hiroshige influenced impressionist and postimpressionist painting in Europe

South and Southeast Asia

- South and Southeast Asia experienced an even higher level of westernization due to the influx of missionaries and colonial authorities
- In India, Mughal culture did not fade completely but yielded much of its preeminence to the "Company style"
 - Art and architecture conditioned by admixtures were brought to the subcontinent by the British East India Company
 - Cultural fusion could be seen in monuments like the Gateway to India arch, which was built in Bombay (Mumbai) to celebrate British imperial control over India
- Catholicism and the French language were imported into Indochina during the late 1800s
- Siam (modern-day Thailand) westernized thoroughly as a way to avoid foreign conquest and colonization, much like Japan under the Meiji emperor

Political Thought: New Philosophies and Ideologies

The Enlightenment

- In eighteenth century Europe and America, the Enlightenment prompted rational inquiry into the nature of politics and society
 - By questioning social hierarchies and traditional hierarchy, Enlightenment thinkers paved the way for massive political change
 - There were concepts that became cornerstones of Enlightenment thought, owing largely to John Locke
 - Popular sovereignty
 - Natural rights
 - Social contract (mutual obligations owed to each other by governments and their people)
 - Separation of church and state
 - Enlightenment documents include the Declaration of Independence, France's Declaration of the Rights of Man and the Citizen, and Bolívar's Jamaica letter

Enlightenment Thinkers

- John Locke (1632-1704)
 - English philosopher
 - Argued that a government's power should depend on the consent of the governed
 - Favored freedom of religion and opinion and the protection of private property
- Baron Charles de Montesquieu
 - French Author of The Spirit of Laws (1748), which proposed the separation of powers (executive, legislative, and judicial) to avoid tyranny
- Voltaire
 - Versatile playwright, novelist, and philosopher from France
 - Champion of freedom of expression
 - Fierce enemy of organized religion, which he viewed as corrupt and hypocritical
- Jean-Jacques Rousseau
 - Swiss-born French author
 - Felt strongly that ordinary people deserved political power
 - Expressed that sentiment in his 1762 book The Social Contract, a forceful continuation of Locke's thinking on the subject
- America's founding fathers
 - Includes Thomas Jefferson, George Washington, Benjamin Franklin, Thomas Paine, and others who led the American revolution and designed the U.S. Constitution
 - First to establish an entire political system on Enlightenment principles

New Ideologies: Reacting to Revolutions and Industrialization

- Most modern forms of political thought were born in the West, either during the Atlantic and Industrial Revolutions or in reaction to them
 - The use of "left" and "right" as political terms emerged during the early days of the French Revolution when radical members of the National Assembly sat on the left-hand side of the building and conservative opponents of the revolution took places on the right
- Political Conservatism regarded the changes brought about by the Atlantic revolutions as completely undesirable or as having taken place too quickly and with much too violence
 - Feared the social and political effects of industrialization
 - Reaction was the most uncompromising form of conservatism
 - Typified by Austria's Klemens von Metternich at the Congress of Vienna
 - A more moderate form of conservatism argued for gradual reform rather than sudden change
 - Associated with a thinker like Anglo-Irish philosopher Edmund Burke
- Political Liberalism favored the extension of political privileges and individual freedoms, at least to the middle class (not always to the lower classes or to women)
 - Tended to favor the free-market capitalism preached by Adam Smith and other classical economists
 - Most famous liberal philosopher in this century was John Stuart Mill of England

- Liberal optimism about industrialization and capitalism was not uniformly shared by members of the industrial working class or by certain thinkers who came to see capitalism as unfair or exploitative
 - After the 1848 revolutions in Europe, it became clear that pure capitalism, in its dog-eat-dog form, could not remain as it was without causing severe socioeconomic stress
 - Liberals and reformers (along with conservatives who felt there was no choice) worked to keep capitalism in place by gradually eliminating the worst of its abuses and sharing the benefits more fairly
 - Many members of the working class turned to trade-union activism to gain concessions like pensions, better hours, safer working conditions, and higher wages
- Other alternative political philosophies emerged as well
- Anarchism rejected all forms of government
- Socialism believed that economic competition is inherently unfair and eventually lead to justice and inequality
 - Utopian socialists of the early 1800s believed that governments and business owners should forgo maximum profits to pay workers better and care for them properly
 - Many of their demands and suggestions became standard policy during the late 1800s and early 1900s
 - Welsh businessman Robert Owen was the most practical of these utopian socialists and founded a number of factory-based communities along these cooperativist lines in both the British Isles and the United States
- In the country-side, a prominent non-Marxist form of socialism was agrarian socialism
 - Viewed downtrodden peasants as a potentially revolutionary force and saw their communally organized villages as possible models for the ideal society of the future
 - Became especially influential in Eastern Europe
 - Russia's agrarian socialists, the Socialist Revolutionary Party, were major contenders for power during the revolutions of 1917
- Communism was a more radical form of socialism
 - Originated by German philosophers Karl Marx and Friedrich Engels
 - Most famously outlined in *The Communist Manifesto* (1848) and *Das Kapital* (1867-1894)
 - Argued that all historical development was driven by a class struggle between the upper class (which controls capital) and the lower class (which is forced to labor for the upper class)
 - Predicted that the age of industrial capitalism, which its struggle between the bourgeoisie and the working-class proletariat, was the final stage of human history before the realization of socialism and then communism
 - Described communism as an economic state of perfect justice, equality, and prosperity
 - Believed that revolution would be needed to achieve socialism and advocated force as potentially necessary to overthrow capitalism
- The boldness with which Marx proclaimed the impossibility of fixing capitalism and the inevitability of socialist revolution made communism appealing to many
 - During the late 1800s, many who agreed with Marx's critique of capitalism began to question whether violent revolution was desirable or even necessary as a way to achieve Marxism's goal
 - Revisionists began to seek legal ways to bring about socialism (trade-union activism, parliamentary politics)
 - Founded social democratic parties, which gained large followings in countries like France and Germany before World War I and which sometimes opposed communists who remained more radical
 - Quarrel between Russia's Mensheviks (communists who favored gradual change and working within the system) and Lenin's Bolsheviks (communists who favored faster change and revolutionary action) was typical of this split

Nationalist Strains of Thought

- The late 1700s and early 1800s witnessed the advent of nationalism—a feeling of shared identity defined by ethnicity, language, traditions, and territory—as a powerful political force
- Although patriotism had not been absent from Western political life in earlier eras, it became more prominent in this era due to a few reasons
 - The nation-state rose to become a dominant form of political organization

- The enlightenment ideal of the social contract fostered the growing sentiment that the individual was owed certain things in return by the nation—making it worth belonging to and feeling pride in
- Nationalism also burned with great intensity among groups that did not have a nation of their own but were divided or ruled by others
 - Affected the Germans and the Italians, each of whom would unify during the 1800s
 - Influenced the Eastern European and Balkan peoples who lived under Astro-Hungarian or Ottoman rule
 - Also includes the Irish and the Poles
- As the era progressed, nationalism became more aggressive instead of just manifesting itself as patriotism and no more
 - Encouraged militarism
 - Could be seen as a contributing factor to Europe’s armed conflicts of the late 1800s (especially the wars of Italian and German unification) and overseas campaigns of imperial conquest
 - Aroused feelings of ethnic and racial superiority, which were further reinforced by pseudoscientific notions regarding racial differences and the interactions of peoples
 - Social Darwinism was based on the false premise that white races had progressed further along the evolutionary scale than nonwhite ones
 - Misguided interpretation of Darwin’s insight that, in nature, the better-adapted are more able to compete for scarce resources
 - Used to justify numerous forms of inequality, including ethnic prejudice and colonial domination
 - Regarded women as the provably “weaker sex” and felt that lower-class poverty was a “natural” product of human competition
 - English intellectual Herbert Spencer, who coined the phrase “survival of the fittest” was among those to popularized the application of Darwin’s thinking to human relations (something Darwin himself strenuously opposed)
- By the late 1800s, nationalist tendencies were spreading to non-Western parts of the world
 - The modernizing Young Turks in the Ottoman Empire were ardent nationalists that promoted Ottomanism as a shared imperial identity during the mid-to-late 1800s
 - Hoped to create a sense of unity among all citizens, regardless of religion or ethnicity
 - Failed to take hold as the empire suffered more rebellions and territorial losses in the late 1800s and early 1900s
 - Many (but not all) turned to a narrower form of Turkish nationalism, that took the form of prejudice against non-Muslim minorities (with a particular harshness toward Armenian Christians), both before and especially during World War I
 - Where foreign colonists ruled, nationalist sentiments often produced national-liberation movements that sought to protest imperialism’s abuses or overturn it altogether
 - Before his death in battle, the poet-philosopher José Martí used his eloquence to awaken Cuba’s nationalist movement against Spain and to launch its 1895-1898 war of independence
 - The Katipunan, the Filipino national-liberation society, fought against Spanish colonization in the 1890s, only to face U.S. occupiers after Spain relinquished control over the Philippines in 1898
 - In India, the greater colonial centralization after the 1850s helped create a stronger sense of “India” as a single country (as opposed to a quilt-work collection of many different peoples with different languages and traditions) that led to the Indian National Congress, which formed in 1885 (mainly on the initiative of British-educated elites) to demand more rights for natives in British India and eventually end colonial rule there
 - The Boxer Rebellion can be seen as a national-liberationist backlash against the West’s growing domination of Chinese coastal territories
 - The Maji Maji Revolt against German colonizers demonstrated the same trend in Africa
 - After 1868, Japan was the closest to adopting Western-style nationalism (complete with a social Darwinist outlook) out of all the non-Western countries
 - Many Japanese became convinced that they were not just more technologically advanced than their fellow Asians but innately superior to them
 - Military victories against Korean, China, and Russia further supported their conclusion

- The influential 1885 essay "Goodbye Asia" foreshadowed the "master race" thinking Japan later adopted by proclaiming that "We do not have time to wait for the enlightenment of our neighbors... It is better for us to leave the ranks of Asian nations and cast our lot with the civilized nations of the West... [We are] no different from the righteous man living in a town known for foolishness and lawlessness."

Technology and Innovation (1750-1900)

- The industrial era ushered in an age of invention that originated in Europe and North America (and primarily benefited those regions), but also spread to other parts of the world as well
- Scientific knowledge likewise expanded enormously by building on the foundations created in the 1600s and 1700s by the Scientific Revolution and the Enlightenment
- For the nations of the West, economic prosperity, military might, and imperial power were tightly intertwined with this growing scientific and technological superiority

Technology in the Industrial Era

- With rare exceptions, power until the 1700s was produced exclusively by wind, water, or muscle
- Scottish engineer James Watt patented a steam engine in the 1780s, changing the status quo
 - Both cost-effective and sufficiently strong enough to pump out coal and iron mines and drive new machines in the textile industry
 - Unlocked the broader potential of machine power and factory production
 - Gave rise to the Industrial Revolution in the late 1700s and early 1800s
- Machines and processes based on coal and iron dominated the early industrial years
- During the Second Industrial Revolution of the mid-to-late 1800s, newer building blocks of industrial technology emerged
 - Bessemer process (1850s) enabled the cost-effective production of steel, which was stronger and more reliably workable than iron
 - Electricity rose as a feasible power source from the 1830s onward
 - Petroleum entered commercial use after 1859
 - However, oil from marine mammals (seals, whales) continued to be highly valued for industrial and lighting purposes, causing environment stress throughout the 1800s and early 1900s
 - Palm oil was another lucrative alternative, especially from West Africa, where it was produced by means of plantation monoculture
 - Chemical industries advanced
 - The process of vulcanization, which prevented rubber from melting when hot or growing brittle when cold, was perfected between the 1830s and 1880s
- Technological innovation transformed the field of communications
 - Telegraph (1837)
 - Telephone (1870s)
 - Wireless radio (1895-1901)
- Transportation was also similarly revolutionized in a way that made travel and long-distance shipping of trade goods and farm produce easier
 - Steamboat (1807) led to rapid transatlantic voyaging by the 1850s
 - Railroads (1820s) put ground travel on par with water travel for speed and cost-effectiveness for the first time in history
 - Internal combustion engine (1860s-1880s) led to the automobile
 - Airplane (1903)
- Many aspects of everyday life were affected by industrial-era technology
 - First workable light bulbs (1879), especially Thomas Edison's version, are held up as a symbol of this trend
 - Canning and refrigeration changed the patterns of food consumption
 - Concrete-and-steel construction enabled the building of high-rise structures in major cities as well as other engineering projects (Suez and Panama Canal)

- Skyscrapers were pioneered in Chicago in the 1880s
- Systems of public transport (buses, subways) appeared late in the century
- Warfare industrialized as well, with modern rifles, better artillery, the machine gun, and steam- and petroleum-driven warships
- Tractor helped cause an agricultural boom in the countryside

Scientific Advancements

- Christian missionaries (Catholic, Protestant, European, North American) proved immensely important as transmitters of Western scientific, medical, and technological knowledge to Africa, India, China, Southeast Asia, and other places
- Medical expertise improved tremendously
 - Knowledge of germ theory helped prevent the spread of common diseases, especially those that spread easily due to poverty and urban overcrowding
 - Vaccinations, pioneered in the 1790s to combat smallpox, became more common in the 1800s
 - Nursing techniques—especially as developed in wartime by Clara Barton of the United States and Florence Nightingale of Great Britain—and surgical processes became steadily more modern
 - Methods of antiseptic sterilization and anesthesia were adopted more widely
 - Childbirth became less risky, at least for women of means, and infant mortality decreased
 - Treatments for tropical diseases (most notably quinine for malaria) became more readily available
- The earth and life sciences were both enriched by key insights
 - In the 1830s, the Scottish geologist Charles Lyell used meticulous fieldwork to prove two fundamental points about the earth
 - The earth was not a fixed creation altered by periodic catastrophes but a planet constantly changing due to the action of geological forces
 - The earth was millions of years old at the least
 - The system of Linnaean taxonomy allowed botanists and zoologists to categorize living creatures more precisely
 - Although the basic idea behind evolution occurred to many scholars at the time, the difficulty lay in devising a convincing model for how it operated
 - Mounting evidence from the fossil record caused a growing number of scientists to embrace the theory of evolution in the late 1700s and early 1800s
 - English naturalist Charles Darwin explained the process of evolution with his theory of natural selection
 - In *On the Origin of Species* (1859), Darwin argued that evolution is a random process in which physical changes that increase an animal's chance for survival are passed on to that animal's offspring
 - In *The Descent of Man* (1871), he applied the principles of natural selection to human beings and postulated that humans and apes shared a common evolutionary line
 - Alfred Russel Wallace of England also hit upon the notion of natural selection independently and simultaneously but had the bad luck of publishing his findings after Darwin did
- Around the turn of the twentieth century, the field of physics, dominated since the early 1700s by Newtonian system of thought, changed forever
 - Albert Einstein developed the theory of relativity in the 1890s and early 1900s
 - Established the speed of light as a maximum velocity in the known universe
 - Demonstrated that, when considered on an astronomical scale, the mathematics behind Newtonian physics began to break down in paradoxical ways
 - The new field of atomic science, including quantum physics, likewise tested the limits of Newtonian physics on the microscopic level
- Psychology was another field in its relative infancy as this era ended
 - Although many scholars and doctors contributed, Austrian physician Sigmund Freud was the most influential
 - Developed his fundamental principles of psychoanalysis—including his understanding of the personality as influenced by the unconscious mind and divided into three components (id, ego, superego)—by 1900

- Published his most important book, *The Interpretation of Dreams* (1900)
- Attained his greatest fame the years following World War I

Secularism and Religion in a Scientific Age

- A scientific, secular worldview became increasingly paramount in the Western world
 - Separation of church and state became the norm in a growing number of states
 - Less risk and scandal was attached to openly professing unconventional beliefs like deism or atheism
 - Religion became less convincing to many as a justification for keeping certain rulers in power or maintaining social or gender-based hierarchies
- Numerous discoveries in the late 1700s and early 1800s accelerated the rise of secularism relative to religion in the West
 - Archeological and linguistic research in the Middle East and Asia revealed that certain cultures and ancient languages predated even the oldest described in the Judeo-Christian bible
 - The research included the decoding of hieroglyphs by means of the Rosetta Stone, unearthed by Napoleon's armies in Egypt
 - Other ancient languages include Sanskrit
 - The use of fossils to prove the extinction of species, combined with the findings of geologist Charles Lyell, indicated that the planet was many millions of years old
 - The type of fossils include dinosaurs, which was a category defined in the 1840s
 - These discoveries were evolutionary and unsettling because many still believed that the Earth was roughly 10,000 or so years old, based on the time accounted for in the Bible
 - Charles Darwin outlined his theories of evolution and natural selection in *On the Origin of Species* (1871) and added human beings in the mix in *The Descent of Man* (1871), which also did much to erode faith in traditional religion
- Western feelings about the century's scientific and technological developments were mixed
 - Scientific and technological progress and the rising economic prosperity that accompanied it infused Western culture with excitement and confidence
 - For the most part, especially among the general public, this sense of optimism continued until the eve of World War I
 - On the other hand, particularly among intellectuals and artists, this was a time of growing uncertainty and anxiety
 - Quantum physics and the theory of relativity opened up new and mathematically unsettling questions in the field of physics
 - The psychoanalytic theories of Sigmund Freud, which demonstrated how poorly most individuals understood even the workings of their own minds, made many people uneasy
 - These feelings of distress would grow even stronger during and after World War I
 - A crisis of faith shook the Western mind-set during the late 1800s and early 1900s
 - Scientific insights like Darwin's made it harder to take literal belief in the Christian Bible
 - German philosopher Friedrich Nietzsche famously proclaimed that "God is dead" and argued that all systems of morality were valueless in the materialistic modern age
 - Matthew Arnold's 1867 poem "Dover Beach," compared the outgoing tide to the "Sea of Faith," which was "once, too, at the full" but is now "retreating" with a "melancholy, long, withdrawing roar"—leaving humanity stranded "on a darkling plain, swept with confused alarms of struggle and flight"
- In some parts of the non-Western world, religious or cultural traditionalism remained strong, sometimes pitting itself against modernization and industrialization
 - Included Conservative Catholic clergy in Latin America, Islamic fundamentalists in the Ottoman Empire, and hard-line Confucians in Qing China
 - Included Wahhabism, a puritanical form of Islam that emerged in the 1700s and has strongly influenced political leaders in Saudi Arabia ever since

Economic Systems (1750-1900)

- The Industrial Revolution included a series of changes in Europe and North America that turned their economies from being principally agricultural to relying more on manufacturing
 - Industrialization, or the mass production of goods by means of machine power, became a key part of Western economies in the late 1700s and early 1800s
 - Trade and commerce skyrocketed
 - Masses of people moved from rural areas to the city
 - Capitalism became the dominant economic system
- By 1900, the United States and most of Europe had industrialized and urbanized, while many other parts of the world were starting to follow suit

Industrial Revolution in the West

Background to Industrialization

- The Industrial Revolution is considered to have begun in England in the 1770s and 1780s with the successful application of the steam engine to two sectors of the economy: mining and textiles
- Many things combined to spark industrialization in Britain
 - Protoindustrial practices had been in place since the 1600s
 - Machines (flying shuttle, spinning jenny), which sped up the manufacture of cotton, were invented as early as 1733 and 1764
 - There was a pool of available labor
 - England was already relatively urbanized
 - The Enclosure Acts, which fenced off large pieces of farmland that had once been common property in favor of the wealthy landowners, impoverished many farmers and forced them to relocate to the cities
 - The depletion of forests increased dependency on coal
 - Timber was used both for fuel and to build ships for the Royal Navy
 - Efficient coal mining required machine power, especially to pump water out of mine shafts
 - Britain's location in the Atlantic, its excellent system of roads and canals, its large supplies of iron and coal, and its strong tradition of trade and commerce (which allowed investors to accumulate capital) also worked out in its favor
- One global effect of early industrialization involves the 1793 invention of the cotton gin by American Eli Whitney, which was the final step in mechanizing the textile industry
 - It phenomenally boosted international demand for raw cotton, especially in England
 - In addition to Egypt and India, a key source of cotton was the U.S. South, where the crop was grown and harvested by slaves
 - Slavery in the U.S. had been growing less profitable by this time and might have died away relatively easily, but many historians agree that the cotton gin's invention revived and prolonged it for decades

Steam Power and Beyond: The Industrial Era Begins and Matures

- In 1782, the Scottish inventor James Watt patented a steam engine that was both powerful and cost-effective, starting the first stage of the Industrial Revolution
 - Needed power source greater and more reliable than wind, water, or muscle to drive new machines in factories and mines
 - Integrated into textile and coal-mining industries
- The next stage of the Industrial revolution, which lasted roughly until the middle of the 1800s, involved the universal application of steam power—and, more slowly, electricity—to all areas of economic activity
 - The modernization of transport, thanks to steamships (1807) and railroads (the 1820s)
 - The modernization of communications, beginning with the telegraph (1837)
 - The factory system, which systemized, mechanized, and increased the scale of production
 - The concept of interchangeable parts, pioneered by two Americans, the inventor Eli Whitney and the gunsmith Samuel Colt

- Although the Industrial Revolution is generally said to have ended in the mid-1800s, the industrial era continued over the rest of the century in the Second Industrial Revolution
 - The Bessemer process (1850s) made steel production cheaper and easier
 - Concrete-and-steel construction enabled the high-rise building in urban cores and key engineering projects like the Suez and Panama canals
 - Electricity and petroleum became more widely used
 - Chemical industries were born and rubber also became more widely used
 - The internal combustion engine led to vehicles like the automobile
 - The telephone and radio were both invented, as well as airplanes
 - Warfare was also affected, leading to engine-driven warships, rifles instead of muskets, accurate and fast-firing artillery, and machine guns
- Industrialization caused something of a “food revolution” in the 1800s
 - Mechanization (including the tractor) and guano-based fertilizer boosted agricultural yield
 - Innovations in canning and refrigeration, as well as industrial-era transportation, allowed this growing quantity of foodstuffs to be shipped and sold far from their farms of origin
- Industrialization occurred at different rates, even in the West
 - Occurred first and most thoroughly in Western Europe (especially Britain, the Low Countries, France, and Germany) as well as in the United States
 - Southern and Eastern Europe lagged behind
 - Britain led the world in industrial production for most of the 1800s, as measured by indices like railroad building and output of iron, steel, coal, and textiles
 - By the end of the century, Germany and the United States were catching up to, then surpassing, Britain
- As industrialization spread, two models took hold
 - Free-market industrialization
 - Laissez-faire principle that government involvement in and regulation of industrialization should be kept in a minimum
 - Arose in Britain and was dominant in most of Western Europe and North America
 - State-sponsored industrialization
 - Governments either directed industrialization from above, or engaged in state capitalism where they set nation-wide industrial priorities and contracted with certain favored private forms to achieve those goals
 - Both Germany and Japan used the state capitalism approach successfully
 - Elements of it were visible in Egypt under Muhammad Ali

The Social Impact of Industrialization

- During the early industrial era, as machines came to play a larger role in economic production, workers used to traditional forms of labor sometimes reacted with technophobia
 - The Luddites were English textile artisans who, during the 1810s, rioted and wrecked power looms and other industrial devices they felt were destroying their livelihood
 - Name is still used to describe anyone who reacted to new technology with reflexive fear
 - A similar revolt by weavers erupted in the Prussian province of Silesia in 1844
- The Industrial Revolution transformed Western society and its hierarchies
 - The economic clout of the traditional aristocracy, with wealth based primarily on land, was diminished
 - The middle class benefited the most, especially the bankers, merchants, and factory owners (the bourgeoisie)
 - The lower classes suffered the most during the industrial era’s birth pangs (1780s-1840s)
- The Industrial Revolution impacted the working class in many ways
 - Astronomically expanded the size of the working class
 - While their labor allowed the Industrial Revolution to move forward, they were badly treated until the second half of the 1800s
 - Received low wages
 - Lived in squalid and crowded housing
 - Worked long shifts (fourteen hours a day, six days a week, was not unusual)

- Coped with unsafe working conditions (risk of fire, dangerous machines, exposure to poisonous or harmful substances)
- Had no pensions safety laws, or insurance
- Child labor was common
- In the countryside, industrialization caused new social divisions
 - More land came to be owned by well-off farmers and homesteaders who were essentially middle class
 - Poor agricultural laborers formed the rural working class
- Only after the 1840s did industrialization bring meaningful improvements for larger numbers of Americans and Europeans
 - The 1848 revolutions were caused partly by the socioeconomic stress of early industrialization
 - Various laws and measures began to give relief to the working class
 - However, truly fair treatment and full political equality were still distant goals, achieved only after much hard effort and mainly in the following century
 - During the second half of the 1800s, the overall standard of living rose as many features of modern life became available (at least in major cities)
 - Bus service
 - Streetlights (gas, then electric)
 - Citywide sewage systems, indoor plumbing, and team heating
 - Icebox refrigeration and canned food
 - Medical advances (vaccination, antiseptic surgery, anesthesia)
- Related social trends are massive population growth and urbanization
 - Europe's population grew from an estimated total of 175-187 million in 1800 to 266 million in 1850 and 423 million in 1900
 - European cities that existed grew larger: London reached the 1 million mark in 1800 and so did Paris in the 1830s
 - Many new cities sprang up (Liverpool, Manchester)
 - By the mid-1800s, England and Wales were urban societies, meaning the 50%+ of the population lived in cities
 - At the same time, the level of urbanization reached 25% in France and the German states
- Although urbanization is generally associated with social advancement, it had its seamier side during the industrial era
 - Cities were typically polluted and crowded
 - Low classes lived in slums or shantytowns where sewage was primitive or nonexistent
 - Diseases (cholera, tuberculosis, typhoid) ran rampant in such conditions
 - Crime was pervasive
- While industrialization went hand in hand with capitalism, the government also became more involved in regulating them
 - Fairer labor laws and social welfare measures passed, mainly by liberals and reformers, in the mid-to-late 1800s
 - Political parties dedicated specifically to workers' needs and interests (Labour in Britain, France's Radicals, Germany's Social Democratic Party) were formed
 - The trade union movement was considered a more radical option by the standards of the day
 - In the early 1800s, unions were illegal in Europe and the United States, and workers risked injury and arrest if they joined unions or went on strike
 - Union movement gave them a way to struggle for political rights and better treatment in the workplace
 - Higher wages and pensions
 - Five-day workweek and shorter hours
 - Safety regulations and employee insurance
 - In the late 1800s and early 1900s, unions earned legal status in most countries and gained greater economic and political strength

Capitalism and Commerce

Capitalism and Classical Economists

- Free-market capitalism, or laissez-faire (“let it alone”) capitalism, encouraged free trade and political liberalism (at least for the middle classes)
 - In the long term, as with industrialization, capitalism led to the creation of great wealth in the Western world
 - On the other hand, it was based on competition, and, left unregulated, could be cruel to those on the losing end—such as the working class in the early 1800s
- Classical economists who favored capitalism argued that the laws of supply and demand—the “invisible hand,” to use Adam Smith’s metaphor—should operate freely, with minimal government intervention
 - Adam Smith’s book, *The Wealth of Nations*, appeared in 1776 and expressed his brand of economic thinking just as the Industrial Revolution began
 - It should be noted that the state-directed capitalism pursued by economic powerhouses like Germany and Japan yielded its own successes and had its own weaknesses
- Although Smith himself insisted that governments should take measures to fight extreme poverty, other classical economists maintained that little could be done for the poor
 - Thomas Malthus of England wrote in his influential *Essay of Population* (1799) that poverty was one of the inevitable consequences of population growth
 - David Ricardo’s “iron law of wages” was just as pessimistic: employers, he said, will naturally pay workers no more than what is needed for them to survive; to force them to pay higher wages would force them to fire workers, who would then starve
 - These theories caused economics to be labeled the “dismal science”
 - Middle- and upper-class industrialists used such theories to justify oppressive labor practices for a long time
- In the mid-1800s, the English liberal thinker and economic theorist John Stuart Mill continued to favor free-market capitalism with some caveats
 - Observed the abuses of early industrialization, and was sensitive to political disturbances like the 1848 revolutions
 - Came to favor at least some government regulation of capitalist and industrial practices
- By this time, alternative visions to capitalism were emerging in reaction to the severe socioeconomic strains caused by it, including various forms of socialism like communism

Commerce and Banking

Financial Instruments

- To protect and expand the growing wealth of merchants and investors, new financial instruments appeared or became more sophisticated
- Governments formed central banks to house national reserves of precious metals to back their currencies and to determine economic policy
 - The Bank of England had existed since the 1690s
 - It was in the 1800s, starting with Napoleon’s establishment of the Bank of France, that most other Western nations followed suit
- Limited liability corporations grew in number and size
 - Allowed investors to pool their resources
 - Further minimized their risk by separating their personal assets (which could not be touched in case of disaster or bankruptcy) from the assets they invested in the corporation
- Stock exchanges emerged to regularize the buying and selling of corporate shares
 - The century’s most dominant were the London Stock Exchange, founded in 1801 after decades of less formal trading, and the New York Stock Exchange, established in 1817
- In the 1800s, insurance also became more common as a way to protect personal property, corporate assets, and even one’s life and health
 - Lloyd’s of London, perhaps the world’s most famous insurance company, took shape in the 1770s and formally incorporated during the 1800s

The Gold Standard

- A key economic debate during the 1800s involved the question of whether or not governments should adopt the gold standard: the practice of tying the value of a country's currency (and its rate of exchange with other currencies) to gold rather than the more traditional silver
 - Britain moved in this direction in the 1810s
 - Other countries stayed with silver or attempted bimetallism (working with both silver and gold until late in the century)
- A major shift occurred after the Franco-Prussian War (1870-1871), when the newly united Germany moved from silver to gold, vastly debasing the value of silver
 - Other European nations made the transition as well
 - Sudden drop in silver's value negatively affected mining enterprises, railroad building, and a myriad of industrial efforts worldwide
 - Caused the Panic of 1873 and the Long Depression (1873-mid-1890s)
- The United States adopted the gold standard in 1900 after a bitter debate
 - Featured on of the most famous speeches in American history, the "cross of gold" address
 - Democratic presidential candidate and silver advocate William Jennings Bryan said "you shall not crucify mankind upon a cross of gold"
- The Wizard of Oz, which appeared in book form in 1900, is though by many to have been an allegory of the gold-standard crisis
 - The yellow brick road and the name Oz (the abbreviation for "ounce") may have signified gold
 - In the book (as opposed to the movie), Dorothy returns to Kansas thanks to her silver slippers

Transnational Businesses

- Transnational businesses came to dominate the economic landscape, especially with the spread of the West's new imperialism
- Some of the joint-stock companies from earlier centuries survived into the 1800s, while others folded beforehand
 - Hudson Bay's Company was one of the joint-stock companies that survived
 - The Dutch East India Company and the British East India Company was dismantled after the Indian Rebellion of the 1850s
- New companies emerged to fund railroads and other major building projects in far-off regions
- France's Suez Canal Company was opened in 1858 to oversee construction of the Suez Canal; after the canal's completion in 1869, it remained in Egypt to oversee its operation
 - While France owned the majority of shares, their influence waned in 1873, when Egypt sold its shares to Britain
 - France lost the canal altogether in 1888, when Egypt's ruler placed the canal under Britain's protection in exchange for military aid against internal rebellion
- Hong Kong and Shanghai Banking Company (HSBC) was one successful transnational that is still thriving today
 - Opened in 1865 by British merchants who received special privileges for consolidating Britain's commercial interests in Hong Kong (a British colony after the Opium Wars) and Shanghai (where Britain enjoy economic concessions)
 - Assumed responsibility for issuing banknotes (official currency) in British possessions like Hong Kong and Singapore and did the same even in independent states like Thailand
 - Quickly established branches throughout Asia, and its widespread presence gave Britain informal economic influence over much of the continent
- The United Fruit Company was a U.S. corporation formed in 1899 that exercised influence over Latin America
 - Started in Costa Rica and spread throughout Central America, Ecuador, Colombia, and the Caribbean
 - Monopolized the cash-crop monoculture of many fruits, with an emphasis on bananas
 - Involved itself in large infrastructure projects such as railroad building and the expansion of shipping
 - Used mutually profitable relationships with local businesses and political elites to gain a tremendous amount of sway over Latin American economies and governments
 - Actions considered to be economic imperialism
 - Derisive slang term "banana republic," which describes monoculture-based economies in the tropics, first arose to describe the nations that fell under United Fruit's influence

- One of today's largest transnationals, the British-Dutch food conglomerate Unilever, grew out of companies formed in the 1870s and 1880s
 - Included the Dutch margarine producers and soap-making Lever brothers from England
 - Heavily involved in the monoculture harvesting of palm oil from West Africa and the Belgian Congo
 - Incorporated itself in 1929 with the merger of Lever Brothers and Margarin Unit

Industrialization and Capitalism in Global Perspective

- The effects of both industrialization and capitalism were felt worldwide, thanks to the expansion of global capitalism and the growing imperial influence of Western nations
 - Western economic growth depended heavily on both the acquisition of raw materials from non-Western regions and the transformation of those non-Western regions into new consumer markets for Western manufactured goods
 - Even in parts of the world that Europe and America did not conquer or colonize, industrialization and industrial-era capitalism had a profound effect
- In Africa, Asia, and Latin America, Western industrialists—often on behalf of transnational businesses—struck deals with local elites to extract cash crops or natural resources
 - Extraction of gold, diamonds, ivory, rubber, and palm oil from Africa
 - Extraction of rubber, tin, aluminum ore (bauxite), oil, and cotton from Southeast Asia, Indonesia, and India by the Dutch, French, and British
 - Relations with Latin American nations and Qing China were more indirectly exploitative, because they were technically free but dealt with on economically unequal terms
- Such practices retarded the development of a healthy, diverse economy
 - Foreign payments ended up in the pockets of the upper class rather than adding to national well-being
 - Native workers in non-Western nations were exploited, and they typically labored under harsh or (semi)coerced conditions
- In the long term, most non-Western parts of the world came to imitate industrial methods of production
 - Western colonizing powers exported industrial practices to their imperial possessions or created industrial-era infrastructure in the form of railroads, canals, and telegraphs
- Britain brought industry to India, with varying motives and results
 - Wanted to make their own lives in India more comfortable and to maximize profit—and because they thought it would be better for the native Indians
 - Created roads and railways, which reduced the number of famines by improving food distribution
 - Developed a telegraph network and a postal service
 - Profits generated by Indian raw materials went to Britain rather than benefit the local economy
 - Size and efficiency of British enterprises tended to drive local ones out of business (textile trade, shipbuilding, ironworking)
- Political leaders in free nations also spread industrialization to the non-Western world because they saw it as a way to gain wealth and power
 - Here, industrialization was typically imposed by a rule from above, or was encouraged by elites
 - In Latin America, mining for copper and guano (desirable for the manufacture of fertilizer), along with the cash-crop monoculture of fruits, coffee, and rubber, were generally carried out by local elites in conjunction with transnational businesses like the United Fruit Company
 - Near the end of the 1800s, countries like Mexico and Argentina were starting to industrialize more sectors of their own economies
- In the Middle East and China, industrializing initiatives came overwhelmingly from above
 - Muhammad Ali, the breakaway ruler of Egypt, modernized the textile trade and imported Western doctors and engineers
 - The Ottoman Empire's Tanzimat reforms involved an attempt to import industrial methods, but this effort depended on the determination of the regime, which gave up on it prematurely due to the opposition by Islamic traditionalists
 - In Qing China, the self-strengthening movement of the late 1800s brought about only limited industrialization and also aroused the wrath of tradition-minded foes, who undermined its effectiveness
- The one place in the non-Western world to fully industrialize was Japan after the Meiji Restoration of 1868

- The impetus for change came from above, although with much greater success than in China or the Ottoman Empire
- Younger members of the upper class were sent to visit or study in Europe and America to learn engineering, economics, and military science
- Created a ministry of industry in 1870 as well as state banks to finance Japan's industrial campaign
- Constructed new railroads, steamships, ports, and canals
- Zaibatsu (huge corporations), sponsored largely by the state, carried out large-scale industrial efforts
- The government also encouraged private enterprise, spurring the growth of the middle class
- At the same time, Japan's lower classes experienced many of the same travails that Europe's workers had gone through in the early 1800s
 - Sweatshop environments, low wages, and unsafe labor practices prevailed, especially in textile mills and coal mines
 - In one mine near Nagasaki, workers toiled in temperatures of up to 130 degrees Fahrenheit and were shot if they tried to escape
 - Unions of any type were forbidden

Social Interactions and Organization (1750-1900)

- Changes in social organization resulted from a combination of political transformation and economic industrialization
 - On the political front, revolutions strove to make government more representative and more responsive to people's needs, and in a number of cases they succeeded
 - Industrialization and urbanization transformed class structures
- While systems of coerced and semicoerced labor did not disappear, the most extreme forms of slavery were gradually done away with
- Whether they were based on class or other identities, hierarchies and caste systems tended to break down or weaken, and if they remained in place, they heightened social discontent
- Migration took place on a epic scale, notably the mass movements from Europe and China to the Americas

The Transformation of Social Classes

Class Diversification in Europe

- One of the modern era's hallmark is class diversification
 - Enlightenment philosophy and the Atlantic revolutions—followed in the 1800s by the gradual expansion of political representation—called into question the fairness and efficiency of old social hierarchies
 - Industrialization and urbanization exerted their own influence on social relations
- In most of the Western world, traditional aristocrats, with their status based on land and hereditary noble status, saw their political power and social clout weaken
 - In France, due to the French Revolution, noble privileges were formally abolished
- Urbanization and increased agricultural efficiency meant that the rural populations decreased, and new social divisions appeared in the countryside
 - More land came to be owned by well-off farmers and homesteaders who were essentially middle class
 - Poor agricultural laborers, renters, and sharecroppers formed the rural working class
- The mammoth expansion of the industrial working class (proletariat) made up for the lower proportion of rural folk among the lower classes
 - Included factory workers, miners, and wage laborers of any kind, skilled or unskilled, in urban and industrial settings
 - Shouldered the burden of early industrialization without enjoying many of its benefits until several decades in the progress
 - Spend most of the century fighting for greater political representation, better working conditions, and the right to form unions
- The middle class expanded and diversified, and rose in prosperity and prominence
 - Included landowners, well-off farmers, master artisans and craftsmen, professionals such as doctors and lawyers, and many others

- Most influential members were the bourgeoisie (bankers, merchants, factory owners) who increasingly controlled the means of generating wealth and drew profits from industrial and commercial growth
 - Stood out for its industriousness, its commitment to education and literacy, and its general liberal outlook, which favored the expansion of political rights and economic opportunity (at least for itself)
 - Middle-class liberalism sometimes sympathized with issues such as slavery and women's rights, but surprisingly often did not
- In Europe, there were variations and exceptions to this pattern
 - Aristocratic privilege lessened at a faster or slower pace depending on the country
 - Societies remained more agrarian and had smaller middle classes the farther east and south they were, especially in Russia

Social Classes in Non-Western Societies

- In non-Western parts of the world, class diversification came more slowly
- In Latin America, middle-class ambitions motivated the wars of independence of the early 1800s, and the frustrations of the lower-class (especially those of mixed, black, or indigenous backgrounds) turned those wars into mass movements
 - Even though Spanish and Portuguese colonial hierarchies were overthrown and new constitutions written, inequality persisted
 - Indians, blacks, and those of mixed races still suffered prejudice
 - The economic gap between a small, wealthy landowning and business elite, on one hand, and the lower-class masses, on the other, grew wider
- In the Ottoman-dominated Middle East, the Tanzimat reforms of the mid-1800s ushered in a degree of liberalization and secularism
 - Emphasized greater religious toleration for non-Muslim millets
 - Change was limited and the reforming impulse died away after the 1870s
- Africa, the region least touched by industrialization, underwent the least class diversification
 - As the continent fell steadily under colonial domination, social dynamics there were shaped more by foreign imperial powers
 - Most enacted racially segregationist policies of varying severity
- Social stratification in Qing China remained rigid
 - Heavy taxes levied on the impoverished masses was a prime reason for uprisings like the White Lotus Rebellion (1796-1804) and the Taiping Rebellion (1850-1864)
 - Another social crisis was widespread opium addiction, which one Qing official described as "a disease which will dry up our bones, a worm that gnaws at our hearts, and a ruin to our families and persons"
- As in Africa, South Asia experienced racially segregationist policies at the hands of Western imperial powers
 - In some cases, imperial rule brought about a measure of social modernization as colonizing powers like Britain in India and France in Indochina imported industrial practices and educated native elites according to Western norms
 - In India, the British authorities also strove to undermine the most abusive aspects of the Hindu caste system and to reduce Hindu-Muslim strife
- The non-Western part of the world that came closest to following the Western model of social diversification was Japan after the mid-1800s
 - Prior to the Meiji Restoration of 1868, the Tokugawa shogunate did its best to preserve its samurai-dominated system of social stratification, with low social mobility for the lower orders
 - Partial modernization during the late 1700s and early 1800s undermined the power and land-based wealth of the aristocracy by encouraging urbanization and lending more influence to the merchant class (which technically occupied one of the lowest spots in the Japanese caste system despite its growing socioeconomic importance)
 - During the 1870s, the Meiji emperor abolished the samurai status and hereditary privileges (including the exclusive right to wear swords)
 - The old prejudice against trade and artisanship died away, and an increasingly westernized middle class appeared in Meiji Japan
 - As in Europe, the farming population decreased relative to a new industrial working class

- Also as in Europe, working-class conditions during Japan's early industrialization remained harsh
- Commoners of all types received better, nationally funded educations and were now eligible to serve in the military, whereas during the Tokugawa years they had been forbidden to handle weapons under any circumstances

Labor and Migration

- Manufacturing (factory work) and resource extraction (mining) were made increasingly important by industrialization
- Cash-crop monoculture was also prominent
- Even free laborers experienced oppressive conditions until the advent of labor laws and trade unions

Indentured Servitude and Serfdom

- In Asia, an oppressive form of indentured servitude arose during the late 1700s and 1800s, popularly known as coolie labor
 - To pay off debts or because they were deceived into thinking that good jobs awaited them, a number of Asian workers—particularly from India and China—signed labor contracts
 - The contracts placed them under the near-complete control of their employers
 - They were often shipped abroad great distances to the Pacific islands, to the Americas, or to the Caribbean, where they were exploited as cheap labor on plantations, in mines, and on construction projects
 - They planted and harvested sugar, collected guano and rubber in South America, and worked on some of America's and Canada's western railroads
- In parts of Central and Eastern Europe, the system of serfdom lasted until about 1800
 - It was mostly done away with thanks to Enlightenment-era reform (as in Austria) or the influence of the French Revolution and Napoleon's conquests (as in Prussia and other German states)
- Russian serfdom not only continued but remained central to economic and social life
 - Even with the number of serf uprisings growing yearly during the early 1800s, noble landowners were reluctant to surrender what was a near-limitless supply of cheap labor
 - In the mid-1850s, Russia's defeat in the Crimean War made it clear that serfdom was holding back economic and industrial modernization—to the point of jeopardizing Russia's military security—and the system was discarded
 - Alexander II presided over the emancipation of Russia's serfs in 1861
- Other forms of coerced labor prevailed as well
 - In many non-Western parts of the world, corvée labor was still practiced, notably in the building of the Suez Canal in Egypt between 1859 to 1869
 - Prison labor was also common, such as in Russia, where serf rebels and political dissidents were sentenced to hard labor in Siberia

African Slave Trades

- Ending the East African and Atlantic slave trades proved complicated and required long international efforts
- The East African slave trade was run largely by Arabs
 - Flourished throughout most of the 1800s, fueled by a growing demand for East African cloves and sugar
 - By the 1870s and 1880s, just before the slave trade ended, over 40% of the population in the East African plantation zone were enslaved
- Abolition here took decades and came about as a result of popular outrage in the West, military action on the part of Western governments, and missionary activity
 - David Livingstone, a Scottish explorer and humanitarian, was a key figure
 - A major step in the progress was the closing of the great slave market in the center of Zanzibar
- Western nations benefited more directly from the Atlantic slave trade, and they took longer to abolish it
 - During the late 1700s and early 1800s, mining, sugar cultivation, and plantation agriculture in Latin America and the Caribbean depended heavily on African slave labor
 - Slaves were also used in the southern United States as domestic servants and agricultural laborers, especially for cotton production, made internationally important by the Industrial Revolution

- Over 12 million Africans were victimized by the Atlantic slave trade between the mid-1400s and the late 1800s
- Approximately 2 million were transported during the nineteenth century, with most going to Brazil, Cuba, and the Caribbean and a comparatively small number smuggled into the United States
- The Atlantic slave trade declined in scale during the 1800s but also lasted a long time
 - Its gradual demise resulted partly from practical economic considerations: as the century progressed, it became more difficult and more expensive to obtain slaves
 - The Haitian Revolution (1791-1804) set a monumental precedent for possible slave rebellions in the future
 - Growing political, religious, and ethical revulsion for slavery arose among Western populations in the wake of the Enlightenment and the Atlantic revolutions
 - In the 1790s to the 1810s, countries like revolutionary France, the Netherlands, and Denmark made slavery illegal
- A major turning point came in 1807 when Britain's Parliament declared the slave trade illegal in all parts of the empire (slavery itself would not be banned there until 1833-1834)
 - During the peace talks that settled the Napoleonic wars, Britain convinced nearly all of Europe and the Americas to outlaw the slave trade
 - Spain and Portugal refused, and Russia continued its system of serfdom
 - In the Americas, the longest holdouts were Cuba and Brazil, which did not end slavery until 1883 and 1888
 - The United States, split between the slaveholding South and the nonslave North, agreed to outlaw the international slave trade but not slavery itself
 - The painful debate and failed compromises over where and how to permit slavery in the United States—especially as the country expanded—formed the root cause of the U.S. Civil War (1861-1865)
- With slavery surviving so long in the Americas, the Atlantic slave trade, illegal though it was, continued into the second half of the century
 - A number of West African states that enriched themselves by cooperating with the Atlantic slave trade helped keep it going
 - Foreign pressure against the slave trade included not just official legislation but also the efforts of abolition movements, especially in Britain and northern United States
 - Canada served as a safe haven for slaves escaping from the southern United States
 - European and American missionaries campaigned against slavery, both in West and East Africa
 - Starting in the early 1800s, Britain dispatched the Royal Navy to blockade the West African shoreline, hunt down slave ships, and bombard the coastal forts of West African kingdoms that supported the slave trade
 - Less enthusiastically, France and the United States joined in these expeditions
- Both slave trades took an immense toll on Africa
 - Obvious effects included human suffering, population loss, and the disruption of traditional trade networks
 - Local collaboration with foreign slavers stirred up wars and long-term animosities among African peoples
- Although there were obvious benefits to ending slavery, there were also unforeseen consequences
 - African states that had profited from slavery encountered a financial slump, which led them to be more vulnerable to foreign takeover
 - However well intentioned, antislavery interventions gave the British, French, and other Europeans a pretext for involving themselves in Africa's affairs and thinking of military action there as legitimate
 - This helped pave the way for conquering almost all of Africa near the end of the century

Migration and Immigrant Communities

- Nineteenth-century migration was driven by many different reasons, but it was mostly a combination of overcrowding at home and economic opportunity abroad
 - Involuntary relocation of slaves across the Atlantic or coolie laborers across the Pacific
 - Political persecution or violent unrest at home
 - Western imperialism led colonial officials, settlers, and other seeking opportunity or adventure to travel far from home to new places

- Industrial-era modes of transport, such as railroads and steamships, made migration more feasible as they grew more commonplace and more affordable
- Most famously, huge numbers of Europeans and Asians relocated to the Americas during the 1800s
 - The United States' reputation as a land of freedom and economic opportunity drew and estimated 17 million immigrants between the 1830s and 1890s
 - Canada, Argentina, and Chile also took in many immigrants
- There were three examples of mass emigration to North America that illustrate the variety of factors that caused it
 - The Irish potato famine of the 1840s precipitated the movement of hundreds of thousands of Irish to the United States
 - In the Russian Empire, persecution of religious minorities—including anti-Jewish pogroms and the harassment of non-Orthodox Christians like Mennonites—led to a massive outmigration of Jews to the United States and elsewhere and of many Ukrainians to central Canada
 - In China, the economic ruin and violence caused by the Taiping Rebellion convinced large numbers of Chinese to move to North and South America, often as coolie laborers in mines, on plantations, and on railroads
- Migration throughout Southeast Asia and the Indian Ocean basin was common as well
 - Chinese merchants and laborers spread through Malaysia
 - Large numbers of Indians traveled to East and South Africa because of commercial ties
 - Australia also received a huge number of immigrants from Asia
- In some cases, the migrations were temporary or seasonal
 - Migrants relocated for work and either returned home or sent wages back to their families
 - This type of work tended to involve agriculture or resource extraction
 - It was typically the men who migrated and women who assumed new burdens and leadership roles at home and in the family
- This era also had a number of diasporic communities
 - Asians in Australia
 - Japanese agricultural laborers throughout the Pacific (especially in Hawaii and on the Americas' western coasts)
 - Chinese railway workers and guano harvesters in the Americas
 - Lebanese merchants in the Americas
 - Italians throughout North America and also Argentina
 - Irish in North America
 - Chinese diaspora throughout Southeast Asia
 - Large presence of Indians in East Africa and South Africa and even as far away as the Caribbean
- Anti-immigration sentiment was common on both a popular and official level, and arose because of ethnic and religious prejudice and the alarmist tendency to view new arrivals as potential economic competitors
 - Jews and nonwhites were rarely well received in their new societies, but neither were groups like the Irish and the Italian
 - Countries hosting large numbers of immigrants typically imposed quota systems, limiting the quantity of people they would let in per year from a given country
 - In the United States, feverish racial fears about a rising "yellow peril," combined with concerns about jobs for white Americans, motivated the Chinese Exclusion Act of 1882, which suspended Chinese immigration for ten years (and was then renewed in the 1900s)
 - The White Australia Policy involved a number of laws, including the Immigration Restriction Act of 1901, which gave every possible advantage to white immigrants from Britain as opposed to potential arrivals from China, the Pacific islands, and continental Europe, all seeking jobs in Australian mines or sugar plantations

Gender and Family Issues

Women's Rights Movements Emerge in Europe and North America

- In the West, a greater awareness of the unequal treatment of women were stimulated largely by the theories of Enlightenment philosophy as well as by the active role played by women in the American Revolution and the French Revolution

- In her 1792 treatise, *A Vindication of the Rights of Women*, English author Mary Wollstonecraft insisted that women, like men, possessed reason and were therefore entitled to equal rights
- During the French Revolution, the playwright Olympe de Gouges argued in her “Declaration of the Rights of Women and the Citizeness” that women should have the same rights granted to men by the Declaration of the Rights of Man and the Citizen—the government dismissed her proposal, and she died during the Reign of Terror
- Larger women’s rights movements emerged in the 1830s in Europe and North America
 - First focused on reforming laws to allow women to own property and file for divorce
 - Initial effort did not reap quick results as women did not gain full property rights in Britain until 1870, Germany until 1900, and France until 1907
 - Some female activists were seeking better access to higher education as well as equal pay
 - First professions open to women (beyond domestic servitude) were teaching and nursing
 - Women also led the way in campaigning against slavery and in favor of aid for orphans and the poor
- By the mid-1800s, women began to seek political rights, most notably suffrage, or the right to vote
 - European and North American suffragette movements were led by women of middle and upper classes
 - The most vocal women’s movement was Britain’s, led by Emmeline Pankhurst
 - Major figures in the U.S. movement were Susan B. Anthony and Elizabeth Cady Stanton
 - Not only did American and Canadian women call for the right to vote at the 1848 Seneca Falls Convention—which based its “Declaration of Sentiments” on the U.S. Declaration of Independence—they agitated for better working conditions for women and for child welfare and temperance
 - Almost no countries gave women the vote until late in World War I or afterward
 - Norway, Finland, Australia, New Zealand, and a handful of U.S. states were exceptions
- During the late 1800s and early 1900s, women engaged in activities even more radical than the struggle for votes
 - Campaign for birth control and reproductive rights, which featured the American nurse Margaret Sanger, proved extremely difficult
 - In Russia and other countries, where few chances for within-the-system political action existed, many female activists turned to the far left in order to advance feminist agendas

Women and Industrialization

- Industrialization shifted the workplace away from the farm—where both men and women worked—to mines, factories, and other places away from home
 - A domestic sphere separate from the workplace was created
 - In Europe and the United States, women of the lower classes were generally compelled to take up work, most frequently in textile factories
 - Women made up 50% of the workforce in textile factories until 1870
 - These women bore the double burden of serving as their families’ primary homemakers and caregivers
- A cult of domesticity dominated Western culture during the mid-to-late 1800s
 - It stressed that a woman’s place was in the home and a man’s in the workplace
 - It was popular especially among the middle and upper classes
 - Certain occupations were open to women, such as child care (governesses), teaching, domestic household work (servants and maids), and nursing
- After the mid-1800s, the number of working women in Europe and North America declined
 - Women of the middle and upper classes rarely worked to begin with
 - As wages for industrial workers rose, making such jobs more desirable to men, and as new laws restricted the number of hours women and children could work, the number of lower-class working women fell

Non-Western Developments

- The move toward women’s equality tended to be slower in non-Western societies
 - In some places, the educational level of women rose, as did the extent of property rights
 - Industrialization compelled lower-class women to enter the workplace in occupations such as agricultural labor, domestic service, and nursing
- In the Middle East, there were two counteracting forces that determined women’s rights

- One effect of the Tanzimat reforms was to give women greater access to education by founding public schools for them
- More women, though still a small number, began to enter public life in the late 1800s
- Strict forms of Islamic traditionalism, including Wahhabism from Arabia, opposed modernization in general
- Veiling remained common
- As Africa came increasingly under colonial rule, many families were broken up and the rift between the two genders widened
 - Husbands worked in mines or on plantations or served in native military units
 - Wives stayed in villages to grow food and care for children
 - When Western employers and colonial officials gave out jobs and introduced new property laws, they tended to favor male heads of the household
 - Women were left with fewer economic opportunities
 - In many ways, it undercut matrilineal authority in those parts of Africa where it had prevailed
- In Qing China, Confucian traditionalism continued to place women in a secondary social position
 - Foot binding continued, although this was increasingly opposed by foreign missionaries as well as by the Taiping rebels of the mid-1800s
- In Japan, women remained largely confined to a secondary status
 - The Meiji Restoration ended the regime's strict social stratification, but even the 1890 Constitution made little room of the rights of women
 - Industrialization created jobs for lower-class women, but these were low-paying, low-prestige jobs
- The Hindu caste system, complete with its traditional patriarchalism, remained in place in South Asia
 - In British India, colonial authorities combatted many of its excesses, including the sati ritual
 - Islam also affected the place of women in South Asia
- Most Latin American nations based their legal system on the Napoleonic civil code, which did not concern itself with women's rights
 - Industrialization was limited in Latin America, so nonagricultural working opportunities were limited
 - Over time, in countries such as Argentina, Uruguay, and Chile made it possible for women to gain educations
 - In Chile, they could earn degrees in high-status professions such as law and medicine

Humans and the Environment (1750-1900)

- Human beings consistently began to influence their environment more than they were influenced by it
- Industrialization and technological advancement exponentially increased human impact on the environment
- The Little Ice Age, which had persisted since around 1500 (with steady cooling even before that), finally ended during the mid-1800s

Industrialization and the Environment

- Population growth and urbanization, each going hand in hand with industrialization, placed greater strains on the environment
 - Higher concentration of human beings led to greater resource consumption and worsening environmental stress
 - Mass deforestation arose as forests were cleared to make room for farms, factories, and settlements
 - Timber also became a much-needed commodity for fuel, construction, and the manufacture of paper
- Technology multiplied the earth-shaping capacity of industrialized societies, allowing them to leave deeper and more noticeable marks on the environment
 - Road networks and railroads quickly expanded over large distances
 - New and growing cities, along with the ever-larger buildings that appeared in them—such as factories and skyscrapers—spread across more of the landscape
 - Large-scale agricultural enterprises, in the form of plantations and other sizable farming units, encouraged major manipulations of the environment
- The construction of dams and canals were perhaps the most visible earth-shaping endeavors of this era
 - Erie Canal (1825) in the United States

- Suez Canal (1869), which linked the Mediterranean with the Indian Ocean basin via the Red Sea
- Panama Canal (1914), a project pursued by several nations since the late 1800s, was completed by the United States and revolutionized global shipping by connecting the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans
- Cash-crop monoculture intensified, both in colonies governed by Western nations and in countries where Western nations and corporations invested heavily
 - As the textile industries expanded during this era, so too did the growing and harvesting of cotton in the U.S. South, Egypt, Central Asia, and India
 - Other monocultural crops included palm oil (West Africa), silk (China), coffee (Latin America, Africa, South Asia), tea (China, India), fruit (Africa, Latin America), and rubber (Africa, Southeast Asia, and South America until a blight ended the industry there)
 - Plantation monoculture also led itself to coerced and semicoerced labor practices, including the worst forms of slavery
- Another environmental impact was the escalation of mining and fossil-fuel extraction
 - Industrializing nations developed a voracious appetite for coal and iron
 - Gold and diamonds were precious for their luxury purposes but also because of their industrial uses—they were avidly sought wherever possible, from Africa to Arctic regions like the Yukon, Alaska, and northeastern Siberia
 - In the late 1800s, the quest for petroleum as a manufacturing lubricant and as a source of energy began, with deposits discovered initially in the Americas, in the Middle East, and also in parts of Southeast Asia
- The pollution of air and water reached unprecedented levels
 - There were few laws to combat pollution
 - Scientists have traced the first stages of human-caused climate change to the carbon-based fossil-fuel emissions of the early industrial era
- The endangerment or extinction of species became more common as overhunting and the destruction of habitats increased
 - The dodo bird was indigenous to the island of Mauritius (east of Madagascar in the Indian Ocean) before it came to the attention of Dutch travelers in the late 1500s and became extinct by the mid-1600s due to foreign overhunting
 - The population of fur-bearing creatures like sables, otters, and fur seals dwindled dangerously, as did North America's once-massive herds of bison
 - Whales and seals hunted for oil, as well as walrus hunted for ivory, hovered perilously close to extinction
 - Notorious extinctions of the era included the great auk, the Carolina parakeet, the passenger pigeon, and the Steller's sea cow
- Imperialism and industrialization both spurred extraordinarily large waves of migration
 - Brought with them industrial-era economic practices that burdened local ecosystems far more heavily than the preindustrial modes of practices pursued by indigenous people
 - Brought new species from far away
 - Sheep were imported to Australia, where they now vastly outnumber the humans living there
 - Strawberries and apples, also alien to Australia before the 1700s, regularly grow there today

Disease in the Modern Era

- Experiments with vaccination during the late 1700s proved effective in the treatment and prevention of smallpox, one of the deadliest killers in medical history
 - Practice spread during the 1800s and 1900s
 - Slowly but eventually led to the eradication of many diseases
- Proper understanding of germ theory and medical sterilization was achieved during the mid-to-late 1800s
 - Handling and processing of food profited thanks to scientists like Louis Pasteur
 - Deaths of women during childbirth and infant mortality decreased where modern medical knowledge was available
 - These contributed directly to population growth
- By the mid-1800s, Europeans and Americans grew adept at developing cures (or at least symptom-relieving treatments) for tropical diseases

- Includes malaria, yellow fever, and sleeping sickness
- Enabled the exploration and colonization of previously difficult-to-access parts of Africa and Asia
- Disease was not entirely conquered
 - Certain illnesses proved resistant to vaccines or adaptable to them
 - Where treatment was lacking or too expensive to afford, diseases continued to kill large numbers of people
 - Industrial-era living conditions—which included overcrowding, air pollution, and unprotected water supplies—worsened the severity of certain diseases
 - Smallpox, where untreated, remained deadly
 - Most infamous of the industrial-era maladies were cholera and tuberculosis

Summary

Governance

- With every passing decade, the nation-state emerged as the leading form of political organization in more parts of the world.
- Modern political and economic ideologies—including conservatism, liberalism, nationalism, and socialism—emerged.
- The hallmark of political modernism is greater popular representation, as subjects challenged national and imperial regimes in reformist and revolutionary ways, This trend first got underway in the West, beginning in the late 1700s with the American and French Revolutions.
- Other parts of the world were slower to move away from traditional autocracies or monarchies. A few, such as Japan and the Ottoman Empire, developed parliamentary monarchies by around 1900. Latin American nations developed parliamentary monarchy in theory, but many slipped into dictatorial or military rule.
- The technological, economic, and military rise of the West—Europe and the United States—altered the balance of global power. World affairs were increasingly determined by foreign-policy and military developments in Europe, especially in the 1800s.
- The United States broke away from English rule during the late 1700s. In the 1800s, it achieved dominance over the North American continent and became a world power.
- The Spanish and Portuguese colonies of Latin America freed themselves from European rule during the early 1800s, another alteration of the global balance of power.
- In North Africa and the eastern Mediterranean, the gradual collapse of the Ottoman Empire presented Europe and the Middle East with a troubling and destabilizing diplomatic issue known as the Eastern Question.
- European and U.S. imperialism—the “new imperialism” of the mid-to-late 1800s—gave the nations of the West unprecedented global dominance. In 1815, the nations of the West controlled roughly 35% of the world’s habitable territory. By 1914, that figure had risen to approximately 85%.
- The one non-Western nation that developed a modern colonial empire in the late 1800s and early 1900s was Japan.
- By the end of the 1800s, diplomatic tensions, nationalism, and competition over colonies made it increasingly likely that the nations of Europe would go to war. An alliance system formed, and the level of aggression steadily rose until the outbreak of World War I in 1914.

Governance, 1750-1900	
Europe	French Revolution (1789-1799, Declaration of the Rights of Man and the Citizen) and Napoleonic Wars (1799-1815) Congress of Vienna (1814-1815) and reactionary politics (1815-1848) Revolutions of 1848 Reform and widening of political representation (1848-1914) Women’s suffrage movements Anti-Semitism Wars of Italian and German unification (Franco-Prussian War) Geopolitical conflict (from balance of power to European alliance system; competition over empire)

Middle East	<p>Tanzimat reforms and Ottoman constitution of 1876 (vs. janissaries and Islamic traditionalism) From Ottomanism (Young Turks) to Turkish nationalism Balkan nationalism (Greek War of Independence, Balkan Crisis of 1876-1878) French colonization of Algeria (1830s-1840s) Muhammed Ali's revolt (1805) in Egypt and construction of Suez Canal (1850s-1860s) Geopolitical conflict (Eastern Question, Great Game) Millenarian revolts (the Mahdi)</p>
Africa	<p>Continuation and decline of the Atlantic and East African slave trades African states (Wassoulou Empire, Sokoto Caliphate, Zulu and Ashanti kingdoms) vs. European imperialism (Berlin Conference, South Africa, Belgian Congo, Herero Wars) Geopolitical conflict (Scramble for Africa, Boer War) Millenarian revolts (Xhosa cattle killing, the Mahdi, Maji Maji) Training of native elites and native troops by imperial powers</p>
East and Central Asia	<p>Qing China's positive balance of trade vs. technological stagnation Opium Wars and "unequal" treaties (foreign concessions) Self-strengthening movement vs. Qing conservatism Taiping Rebellion (1850-1864) and Boxer Rebellion (1900) Tokugawa isolationism vs. Perry's "opening" of Japan (1853) Meiji Restoration (1863) and industrial modernization of Japan Geopolitical conflict (foreign concessions, Open Door policy, Russo-Japanese War) Millenarian revolts (Taiping Rebellion)</p>
South and Southeast Asia and Oceania	<p>Fracturing of the Mughal Empire (Marathas, Sikhs) British East India Company and Indian Revolt (1857-1858) Colonization in Southeast Asia (Dutch East Indies, Singapore, French Indochina, U.S. annexation of Philippines) Colonization of Australia (Aboriginals) and New Zealand (Maori) U.S. annexation of Hawaiian kingdom Geopolitical conflict (Battle of Plassey, Anglo-Russian Great Game) Training of native elites and native troops by imperial powers (sepoys) National-liberation impulses (Indian National Congress, from Filipino Propaganda Movement to Emilio Aguinaldo)</p>
Americas	<p>American Revolution (1775-1783, Declaration of Independence) U.S. expansion (Louisiana Purchase, "manifest destiny," Mexican-American and Spanish-American wars, Hawaiian kingdom) U.S. suppression of Native Americans (Tecumseh, Cherokee Nation and Trail of Tears, Indian wars, Wounded Knee, reservation system) Slavery in the Americas (Maroon societies, U.S. Civil War, Brazil) Haitian Rebellion (1791-1804, François Toussaint L'Ouverture) Latin American wars of independence (1810-1825, Simón Bolívar's Jamaica Letter) Failure of constitutional rule in Latin America (caudillos) Economic imperialism in Latin America Geopolitical conflict (Monroe Doctrine, Spanish-American War) Millenarian revolts (Ghost Dance and Wounded Knee) National-liberation impulses (Tupac Amaru II in Peru, Mayan Caste War, José Martí in Cuba)</p>
Global and Interregional	<p>Increased prominence of the nation-state Global impact of "new" imperialism (white man's burden, la mission civilisatrice, social Darwinism) and economic imperialism Nationalist impulses Indigenous revolts and national-liberation movements (including millenarian revolts)</p>

Cultural Developments and Interactions

- In eighteenth-century Europe and America, the Enlightenment prompted rational inquiry into the nature of politics and society. By questioning social hierarchies and traditional forms of monarchy, it paved the way for massive political changes, including key revolutions.
- Access to public education became an increasingly normal part of life in North America and most parts of Europe. Literacy rates rose as a result. The same became true for many other parts of the world during the late 1800s.
- Modern political and economic ideologies—including conservatism, liberalism, nationalism, and socialism—emerged.
- Nationalism became a powerful political and cultural force in Europe and then elsewhere. By the end of the 1800s, nationalist and national-liberation movements became prevalent in non-Western parts of the world dominated by foreign colonial rule.
- Ideologies of racial superiority, in some cases based on pseudoscientific concepts like social Darwinism, arose in many quarters.
- The non-Western world began to adopt many of the artistic, architectural, and literary forms of the West. Conversely, styles from Asia, Africa, and the Middle East had an influence on Western culture, particularly in painting, sculpture, and decor.
- In Europe and the Americas, the pace of cultural change sped up. By the end of the 1800s, new artistic and literary trends were emerging at a rapid rate. Increasingly, these were about breaking rules and defying older conventions.

Cultural Developments and Interactions, 1750-1900	
Europe	<p>Enlightenment (1700s; Locke, Montesquieu, Voltaire, Rousseau)</p> <p>Romanticism, realism, and modernism (late 1700s-early 1900s)</p> <p>Conservatism (and reaction) vs. liberalism</p> <p>Capitalism (Adam Smith) vs. socialism and communism (Karl Marx)</p> <p>Nationalism + social Darwinism</p> <p>Secularization of culture + Western crisis of faith</p>
Middle East	<p>Cultural Westernization in Ottoman Empire during Tanzimat reforms (mid-1800s)</p> <p>From Ottomanism to Turkish nationalism</p> <p>Islamic traditionalism</p> <p>Revival of Arab culture</p>
Africa	<p>Oral tradition and griot storytelling</p> <p>Nonrepresentational art and impact on Western modernism</p> <p>Influence of Christian missionaries</p> <p>National-liberation impulses (Maji Maji revolt)</p>
East and Central Asia	<p>Dream of the Red Chamber (late 1700s)</p> <p>Influence of Christian missionaries in China</p> <p>Ukiyo-e woodblock painting (Hokusai, early-to-mid 1800s)</p> <p>“Goodbye Asia” and Japanese ideologies of nationalist-racial superiority (late 1800s)</p> <p>National-liberation impulses (Boxer Rebellion)</p>
South and Southeast Asia and Oceania	<p>“Company” style in India (Gateway to India arch)</p> <p>Influence of Christian missionaries</p> <p>National-liberation impulses (Indian National Congress, Filipino Katipunan)</p>
Americas	<p>Enlightenment (1700s; founding figures)</p> <p>Romanticism, realism, and modernism (late 1700s-early 1900s)</p> <p>Conservatism (and reaction) vs. liberalism</p> <p>Capitalism vs. socialism and communism</p> <p>Nationalism + social Darwinism</p>

	National-liberation impulses (José Martí) Secularization of culture + Western crisis of faith
Global and Interregional	Rising literacy rates Increased westernization of non-Western cultures (colonial education systems) Nationalism and national-liberation impulses

Technology and Innovation

- In eighteenth-century Europe and America, the Enlightenment built on the recent insights of the Scientific Revolution and jump-started an unceasing wave of scientific discovery and technological innovation that gained ever greater momentum in the 1800s.
- Starting in the West, a scientific, secular worldview became increasingly paramount, thanks initially to the Scientific Revolution and Enlightenment and then additionally to the technological and scientific advancements of the industrial era.
- Technological change was profound, rapid, and thorough in those parts of the world affected by industrialization. National economies and personal lives alike were influenced by constant and increasingly affordable innovations and inventions.
- Innovations in steam-driven machine power were central to the Industrial Revolution and the early industrial era. Key sectors of development during these first years included mining (iron and coal) and textile production (cotton).
- The later industrial era (or Second Industrial Revolution) witnessed the emergence of newer technologies associated with steel, electricity, petroleum, rubber, and chemicals.
- Transportation and communications were revolutionized during the industrial era, starting with the steamboat, the locomotive, and the telegraph during the first part of the century and moving on to the internal combustion engine, the radio, the telephone, and just after 1900, the airplane.
- Modern medical knowledge and techniques emerged in the West.

Technology and Innovation, 1750-1900	
Europe	Impact of the Scientific Revolution and Enlightenment Steam engine and machine power Mining and Metallurgy (coal, iron, steel) Electricity and petroleum as new power sources Communications technology (telegraph, radio, telephone) Transportation (steamboats, rail, internal combustion) Vaccination + germ theory + treatments for tropical disease Geological theories Linnaean taxonomy Evolution and natural selection (Charles Darwin) Relativity (Albert Einstein) and early atomic physics Psychology (Sigmund Freud)
Middle East	Partial importation of industrial-era science and technology
Africa	Minimal (and colonial) importation of industrial-era science and technology
East and Central Asia	Partial importation of industrial-era science and technology
South and Southeast Asia and Oceania	Colonial importation of industrial-era science and technology
Americas	Full-scale development and/or importation of industrial-era science and technology in North America Partial to a high degree of importation of industrial-era science and technology in Central and South America

Global and Interregional	Varying and uneven adaptations to industrial-era science and technology
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Economic Systems

- Economic life was transformed by industrialization, which displaced agriculture as the most influential sector of the economy. New patterns of global trade emerged as well.
- Industrialization began in England and spread to several parts of Europe during the late 1700s and early 1800s—the era of the Industrial Revolution. During the late 1800s, a period often referred to as the Second Industrial Revolution, industrial practices matured and spread further, expanding to include steel, electricity, chemical industries, and petroleum. Gradually and to varying extents, industrialization spread to other parts of the world.
- The non-Western world adopted industrialization in different ways. Sometimes European imperial powers introduced it to their colonies. In other cases, non-Western rulers imposed industrialization from above or attempted to do so.
- In many non-Western parts of the world, native manufacturers and cottage industries were crowded out by colonial and foreign industrial interests as well as other aspects of Western economic imperialism.
- Capitalism became the dominant mode of economic organization in the industrial-era West. Over time, its influence became global.
- Reactions to the stresses of early industrialization and to the more exploitative aspects of early capitalism included trade-union activism, utopian socialism, Marxism, and anarchy.
- Commerce and banking—the foundations of a money-based economy, as opposed to a land-based one—grew in importance. Banks, stock markets, and other modern financial instruments became more solidly established.
- Limited-liability corporations and transnational companies became increasingly central to modern economic life.

Economic Systems, 1750-1900	
Europe	<p>From protoindustrialization to Industrial Revolution (ca. 1780s-1840s; steam engine, coal, iron, textiles)</p> <p>Second Industrial Revolution (late 1800s; steel, electronics, chemicals, petroleum)</p> <p>Factory system</p> <p>Free-market vs. state-sponsored industrialization</p> <p>Industrial-era communications and transport</p> <p>Free-market capitalism (classical economists = Adam Smith, John Stuart Mill) vs. state capitalism</p> <p>Trade-unionist and socialist (Karl Marx) reactions to capitalism</p> <p>Limited-liability corporations and other financial instruments (central banks, stock exchanges, gold standard)</p> <p>Panic of 1873 and Long Depression (1870s-1890s)</p> <p>Rise of middle and industrial working class</p>
Middle East	<p>State-sponsored and limited industry (Muhammed Ali in Egypt, Tanzimat reforms in Ottoman Turkey)</p> <p>Construction of Suez Canal (transnational company = Suez Canal Company)</p> <p>Resources (cotton, petroleum)</p>
Africa	<p>Economic imperialism by Western powers</p> <p>Continued reliance on African coerced labor by Western economies</p> <p>Construction of railroads by Western powers (+ Suez Canal)</p> <p>Transnational company = early components of Unilever</p> <p>Resources (gold, diamonds, rubber, ivory, palm oil)</p>
East and Central Asia	<p>Economic imperialism by Western powers in China (Opium Wars, foreign concessions and treaty ports)</p> <p>Transnational companies = Hong Kong and Shanghai Banking Company</p> <p>State-sponsored and limited industrialization in China (self-strengthening movement)</p>

	State-sponsored and full industrialization in Japan (Meiji Reformation of 1868, zaibatsu)
South and Southeast Asia and Oceania	Economic imperialism by Western powers Construction of railroads, telegraphs, and infrastructure by Western powers British industrialization of Indian cotton trade Transnational company = British East India Company Resources (cotton, coffee, metal, rubber, petroleum)
Americas	Industrial Revolution (ca. 1780s-1840s) and Second Industrial Revolution (late 1800s) in the United States Factory system Free-market capitalism in the United States Limited-liability corporations and other financial instruments (central banks, stock exchanges, gold standard) Rise of middle and industrial working classes (trade unionism) State-sponsored industrialization and limited industrialization in Latin America (late 1800s) Economic imperialism in Latin America (transnational company = United Fruit Company) Resources (metals, petroleum, guano, rubber, fruit, coffee, sugar)
Global and Interregional	Widespread protoindustrialization International impact of industrialization (importation by colonial powers, state-sponsored imperialism) Economic imperialism by Western powers (raw materials, consumer markets, transnational corporations, "banana republics") Population growth and urbanization Oceanic whaling and sealing in search of oil

Social Interactions and Organization

- Politics in Europe and the West became gradually more representative, although women could not yet vote. Even in less representative states, bureaucracies and parliament became increasingly important relative to the will of individual monarchs.
- Hierarchies and caste systems tended to break down or weaken, and if they remained in place, they heightened social discontent. Revolutions and rebellions broke out more frequently.
- Industrialization transformed class structures. Traditional aristocrats, with their status based on land and family prestige, faded. The proportion of peasants and farmers shrank. The middle class (bourgeoisie) expanded, gained wealth, and diversified. A new lower class, the industrial working class (proletariat), was born.
- Industrialization led to urbanization. Cities grew in size, and more of them were established.
- For any society, the first few decades of industrialization were typically painful for the lower classes. Working conditions were poor, and wages low. Over time, industrialization raised the average prosperity of a society's population, and even the lower classes benefited after some time.
- Coerced and semicoerced forms of labor persisted. Along with slavery, indentured servitude (common in places like India and China) and migrant labor (technically free but poorly paid) were common. Africa was the primary victim of slave trading. The East African and Atlantic slave trade continued well into the 1800s, as did Russian serfdom.
- There was a tremendous migration of peoples, both permanent and seasonal. Massive waves of emigrants moved from Europe and China to the Americas during the 1800s and early 1900s. The United States was the preferred destination, but Canada, Argentina, and Chile took in many immigrants as well, as did Australia. Anti-immigration sentiment was common, both on a popular and official level.
- Diasporic communities and foreign enclaves remained common, thanks to expanding commercial ties or overcrowding at home.
- Although in most societies the status of women remained secondary, this period saw great changes in gender relations. In the West, a keener awareness of the unequal treatment of women began to spread. This was stimulated largely by the Enlightenment philosophy as well as by the active role played by women in the American and French Revolutions.

- The Industrial Revolution altered the conditions under which families worked. It shifted the workplace away from the farm, where both men and women worked, to mines, factories, and similar places, creating separate domestic and working spheres.
- In Europe and North America, lower-class women entered industrial workplaces during the early 1800s but left again after the mid-1800s when wages for industrial workers rose (making such jobs more desirable to men) and new laws restricted the number of hours that women and children could work. A cult of domesticity, stressing that a woman's place was in the home and a man's was in the workplace, dominated Western society, especially among the middle and upper classes, during the mid-to-late 1800s.
- Vigorous women's movements appeared in Europe, Canada, and the United States. They agitated for suffrage, equal opportunities, and other causes. A handful of places—but no major nations—granted women the right to vote by World War I.
- The move toward women's equality tended to be slower in non-Western societies. In some, however, the educational level of women rose as did the extent of property rights. As in the West, women worked, especially in certain occupations, such as agricultural labor, domestic servitude, and nursing. As non-Western parts of the world industrialized, lower-class women tended to enter the workplace.

Social Interactions and Organization, 1750-1900	
Europe	<p>Class diversification (impact of revolutions and industrialization; growth of industrial working class, rise of middle class)</p> <p>Serfdom in Russia (uprisings, emancipation)</p> <p>Siberian exile and prison labor</p> <p>Migration to the Americas (Irish Potato Famine, anti-Jewish pogroms)</p> <p>Emergence of modern feminism and suffragette movements (Mary Wollstonecraft, Olympe de Gouges, Emmeline Pankhurst)</p> <p>Industrialization and women (domestic sphere, cult of domesticity)</p>
Middle East	<p>Millets</p> <p>Tanzimat reforms and limited social liberalization</p> <p>Corvée labor (Suez Canal)</p> <p>Veiling of women</p>
Africa	<p>Racially segregationist policies in Western-controlled colonies (native elites)</p> <p>East African slave trade</p> <p>Atlantic slave trade</p> <p>Indian migration to East and South Africa</p> <p>Imperialism's impact on women's roles</p>
East and Central Asia	<p>Social stratification and increased tensions in Qing China (opium addiction, Taiping Rebellion)</p> <p>Social stratification in Tokugawa Japan</p> <p>Meiji restoration in Japan: rise of merchants, samurai privilege abolished</p> <p>Indentured servitude (coolie labor)</p> <p>Chinese migration throughout Southeast Asia</p> <p>Missionary efforts against Chinese foot binding</p>
South and Southeast Asia and Oceania	<p>Racially segregationist policies in Western-controlled colonies (native elites)</p> <p>British undermining of Hindu caste system</p> <p>Indentured servitude (coolie labor)</p> <p>Transportation to Australia</p> <p>Indian migration throughout Southeast Asia, East Asia, and South Africa</p> <p>Chinese migration throughout Southeast Asia</p> <p>Reaction to migration (White Australia Policy)</p> <p>British struggle against sati; veiling of women</p>
Americas	<p>Class diversification (impact of revolutions and industrialization; growth of industrial working class, rise of middle class)</p> <p>Trade unions and labor movement</p>

	Continued reliance on African slavery Migration from Europe and Asia (Chinese Exclusion Act) Emergence of modern feminism and suffragette movements (Susan B. Anthony, Seneca Falls Convention) Industrialization and women (domestic sphere, cult of domesticity)
Global and Interregional	Urbanization Expansion of resource extraction and cash-crop monoculture as forms of labor Persistence, then gradual fading, of slave systems Seasonal and permanent migration (Europe and Asia to the Americas, Chinese and Indians in the Indian Ocean basin) Anti-immigrant sentiment

Humans and the Environment

- Industrialization vastly increased humanity's impact on the environment. Rising levels of pollution were one result. Carbon-based and fossil-fuel emissions began an upward pike that has increased ever since, all the way to present-day.
- The hunger of industrializing economies for natural resources (metals, minerals, guano for fertilizer, petroleum, rubber, foodstuffs, and cotton) led to extractive practices that hugely strained the environment. Mining and cash-crop monoculture tremendously damaged ecosystems.
- Industrialization permitted major earth-shaping engineering projects such as the Erie Canal and the Suez Canal (and, in the early 1900s, the Panama Canal)
- Human-caused extinction or endangerment of animal species became increasingly common.
- Diseases such as tuberculosis and cholera spread easily amid the overcrowded living conditions created by industrialization and rapid urbanization.
- The development of effective treatments for tropical diseases such as malaria enabled imperial powers like Europe and America to penetrate deeper and more efficiently into Africa and Asia
- A global wave of migration caused millions of people to travel vast distances—most famously from Europe and Asia to the Americas but in other directions and to other places as well.
- The Little Ice Age came to an end during the early-to-mid 1800s.

Humans and the Environment, 1750-1900	
Europe	Industrial-era pollution (carbon-based and fossil-fuel emissions) Industrial-era resource extraction (mining) Earth shaping (major canal systems, road and rail networks) Vaccination (late 1700s) and germ theory (mid-1800s) Severity of cholera and tuberculosis worsened by industrial-era living conditions Resources (coals, metals, timber)
Middle East	Earth shaping (Suez Canal) Resources (cotton, petroleum)
Africa	Industrial-era resource extraction by colonial powers (mining and cash-crop monoculture) Treatments for tropical diseases like malaria allow Western penetration of African interior Resources (gold, diamonds, ivory, rubber, fruit, palm oil) Species endangerment (elephants)
East and Central Asia	Industrial-era resource extraction by colonial powers (mining and cash crop monoculture) Treatments for diseases like malaria allow Western penetration of tropical interior Resources (cotton, rubber, spices, coffee, metals, petroleum)
South and Southeast Asia and Oceania	Industrial-era crop resource extraction by colonial powers (mining and cash-crop monoculture) Treatments for diseases like malaria allow Western penetration of tropical interior Resources (cotton, rubber, spices, coffee, metals, and petroleum)

Americas	Industrial-era pollution (carbon-based and fossil fuel emissions) Industrial-era resource extraction (mining and cash-crop monoculture) Earth shaping (Erie and Panama Canals, road and rail networks) Species extinction and endangerment (passenger pigeon, bison) Treatments for diseases like malaria allow Western penetration of tropical interior Resources (coal, metals, petroleum, timber, meat, fruit, sugar, coffee, rubber, guano)
Global and Interregional	Little Ice Age ends (mid-1800s) Permanent and seasonal migrations (Eurasia to the Americas; regional movement within the Indian Ocean basin) Species extinction and endangerment (whales, fur seals, walrus)

Unit 4: 1900 to the Present

Governance (1900-1945)

- During the first half of the 1900s, two total world wars reshaped global affairs
 - Weakened Europe's position of global dominance after 1914 and dismantling it altogether after 1945
 - Required near-complete mobilization of human and economic resources
- During the interwar years, there was a seemingly inexorable rise of dictatorships that threatened the future of democracy
 - Included totalitarian regimes like Soviet Russia and Nazi Germany
- New weapons and tactics made warfare steadily more destructive
 - Increased its impact on civilian populations
 - Gave rise to new categories of violence, such as genocide
- There were a number of underlying sources of conflict during the first half of the 1900s
 - Aggressive expansion of empires by Europe and Japan
 - Anglo-German geopolitical rivalry
 - Ethnic tensions and racial hatred
 - Nationalism
 - Competition for resources
 - International economic stress caused by the Great Depression

World War I and the Paris Peace Conference

- World War I began in the summer of 1914 and lasted until the fall of 1918

Background and Combat

- The long-term causes involved a potent cocktail of nationalism, competition over empire, and an unstable European alliance system
 - The European alliance system involved France and Russia, informally aligned with Britain against Germany and Austria, which was weakly tied to Italy
- The assassination of Franz Ferdinand, heir to the Austrian throne, was the crisis that drew all the continent's powers into conflict
 - Sarajevo, the capital of Bosnia, was a Balkan province under Austrian authority, but it had a large Serb population and was coveted by the intensely nationalistic state of Serbia
 - On June 28, 1914, Bosnian Serbs affiliated with the Black Hand, a terror group supported informally by influential parties in Serbia, carried out the assassination
 - The Austrian government was genuinely outraged by decided cynically to use the event as a pretext to humiliate its troublesome neighbor—even though its own police concluded that Serbia's government was not to blame
 - During the July crisis, Austria issued a list of humiliating demands and threatened war if Serbia did not accept
 - Russia, Austria's rival in the Balkans, supported Serbia, but Germany persuaded Austria not to back down—the infamous blank check—even if Russia intervened militarily
- When Austria declared war on Serbia on July 18, the alliance system went into motion
 - Russia and Germany mobilised in the east
 - Because Germany's strategy for avoiding a long two-front war—the Schlieffen Plan—required lightning speed, the Germans moved quickly against France and neutral Belgium
 - Britain supported its French and Russian partners
 - Except for Italy, which remained neutral for the moment, Europe's major powers were all at war by August 4
- Germany opened with the daring Schlieffen Plan
 - 75% of its army was sent into France, with the aim of taking Paris in six weeks
 - To catch France off guard in 1914, the Germans moved their main attack force through neutral Belgium, an illegal action that killed numerous civilians and enabled Allied propaganda to convincingly depict the Central Powers as villains and aggressors

- The Germans drove into northern France and came within reach of Paris
- During the first week of September, the Allies' determined stand at the First Battle of the Marne foiled the Schlieffen Plan and dashed any hope of a quick end to the war
- The other 25%, with Austrian help, would defend against Russia, on which the Germans intended to focus after France's defeat
- The war proved so surprisingly long principally because of the tactical stalemate that resulted when evenly matched sides deployed the latest in industrial-era technology against each other
 - The forces they had defeated in Asia and Africa during their years of imperial conquest were comparatively backward
 - Modern artillery, rifles, and machine guns made the battlefield so deadly that traditional tactics, which had climaxed in mass charges against the enemy, were no longer feasible
- With military technology disproportionately favoring the defensive, trench warfare, one of history's most horrific styles of combat, resulted in three years of bloody deadlock
 - This happened especially on the Western Front, the 500-mile chain of trenches, bunkers, and barbed wire that stretched from the English Channel to the Swiss border
 - Until late in the war, combat operations such as the Verdun Offensive and the Battle of the Somme, both in 1916, brought about no useful outcome and virtually no movement, despite costing hundreds of thousands of casualties
 - This futility, combined with the horrors of poison gas and the ever-present miseries of mud, filth, and vermin, made the trench-warfare experience maddeningly terrible, as attested to in the Erich Maria Remarque novel *All Quiet on the Western Front*
 - Trench warfare was also the norm in the south, where the Italians clashed with their Austrian foes
 - Combat on the longer and less entrenched Eastern Front was more fluid but still catastrophically deadly
 - The Russians sustained crushing defeats at Germany's hands and found themselves cut off from their allies when Ottoman Turkey sided with the Central powers, denying Russia access to the Mediterranean
 - It wasn't until 1917 and 1918 did improved tactics and new weaponry start to end the painful stalemate of trench warfare
 - Improved tactics included the use of precisely targeted artillery to pin down enemy forces in their trenches while one's own troops changed across "no man's land"
 - New weaponry included tanks and airplanes
- Fighting spread far beyond Europe and into the colonies
 - Britain and France moved against Germany's possessions in Africa
 - Japan and Australia seized Germany's Pacific colonies
- The most important non-European theater was the Middle East
 - In 1915, the British, with large numbers of Indian, Australian, and New Zealand troops, tried to knock the Ottomans out of the war by landing at Gallipoli
 - This months-long campaign proved an utter disaster, resulting in an embarrassing retreat and 50% casualties
 - More successful were British support for the Arab revolt against Ottoman power and the Russian thrust through Ottoman defenses on the Caucasus frontier
 - On the Russo-Turkish front in 1915, the Ottoman state perpetrated the Armenian massacres, where they systematically killed between 500K and 1.5 million people in an act of genocide
- Although the Anglo-German naval race of the 1890s and early 1900s had been an underlying cause of the war, few surface battles took place
 - Allied fleets blockaded the Central powers, constricting their economies and starving thousands
 - Germany mastered submarine (or U-boat) warfare to intercept the transatlantic movement of Allied supplies and troops in response
 - In 1914 and 1915, although Germany showed how much damage U-boats could do, it also faced the diplomatic risks of destroying neutral ships or killing civilians from neutral countries
 - In May 1915, Germany's sinking of the *Lusitania*, a British ship carrying more than a hundred American passengers, nearly brought an angry United States into the war
 - For the next year and a half, Germany sharply curtailed its U-boat campaign—but with great reluctance

- Exhaustion and turning points characterized 1917
- Frustrated by the stalemate at sea, the German navy resumed unrestricted submarine warfare, hoping to starve Britain out of the war
 - This reduced Britain to a six-week food supply by the spring but also provoked the U.S. entry into the war in April
- At the same time, Russia was collapsing and the tsarist regime fell in the spring
 - While the new government tried to continue the war, Russia's army suffered mass desertions and several defeats
 - Communists seized power in the October Revolution and pulled Russia out of the war, freeing large numbers of German troops for service on the Western front, where the balance of power was razor thin
- In the spring of 1918, the Germans staked everything on the Spring Offensive, an all-out assault on Paris
 - The Germans were faced with the arrival of hundreds of thousands of Americans and a severe disadvantage in tanks and airplanes
 - Halted at the Second Battle of the Marne, the Germans were forced into full retreat by August
- Strikes and mutinies in the fall compelled the Ottomans, the Austro-Hungarians, and the Germans to cease fighting in October and November
 - World War I ended on November 11, 1918

Home Front and Mobilization

- The home front became a crucial part of every combatant nation's war effort as entire economies were geared for war
 - Procurement of raw materials (steel, coal, petroleum, rubber, cloth), agricultural production, and the manufacture of military necessities (uniforms, weapons) was centralized
 - Rationing of food, fuel, and consumer goods became increasingly strict—painfully so by late 1916 and early 1917 when all European belligerents were suffering terrible material shortages
- Another home-front effect of the war was the restriction of civil liberties, even in the democracies
 - All combatants censored the press and the mail
 - Special laws allowed anyone suspected of espionage or treason to be arrested and tried without due process
 - trade unions and socialist parties were supervised and their activities curtailed
 - Even pessimism or an insufficient show of patriotism could get one in trouble
 - Men who sought a conscientious-objector status were often denied and harassed and ridiculed if they succeeded
- The war required mass recruitment and then conscription, the involuntary drafting of soldiers
 - Most combatant nations began with armies of 1 to 2 million, but these did not suffice, and eventually 70 million personnel were called up for service
 - Especially in countries with traditions of all-volunteer armies, like Britain and Canada, the move to conscription caused much social stress, including protests and riots
 - Over 2.5 million Africans fought, mainly on their own continent, but the French brought Moroccan, Algerian, and Senegalese soldiers to the Western Front
 - Black soldiers who served in Europe as part of the American Expeditionary Force were segregated from their white counterparts and used mainly as labor battalions
 - When they did fight, it was typically alongside French, not American troops
 - The United States and Canada were slow in both world wars when it came to integrating black, Asian, and Native American troops but eventually did so following World War II
 - Soldiers from French Indochina also served on the Western Front
 - Britain relied on major contingents of Canadians, Australians, and New Zealanders but also used almost a million Indian, Sikh, and Nepalese Gurkha troops in theaters ranging from Europe to the Middle East
- The role of women were especially striking during World War I
 - Some women served on the lines: a portion as uniformed auxiliaries, most as nurses
 - On the home front, they stepped up in huge numbers to take the place of men on farms and in factories
 - These jobs mostly went back to men when the war ended, but women's wartime contributions played a significant role in their being granted the right to vote in many countries after the war

The Paris Peace Conference and Long-Term Consequences

Paris Peace Conference Conflict

- After the war, terms were decided at the Paris Peace Conference (1919-1920)
 - Drew up treaties for each of the five Central powers
 - The Treaty of Versailles, imposed on Germany in June 1919, was the most important
- The peacemaking was marked by conflict on all sides
 - The defeated nations were allowed no meaningful role in the negotiations, and they believed that all European powers, not just Germany and Austria-Hungary, were equally to blame for the war
 - Not only did they consider the final terms too harsh, Germany in particular saw them as illegitimate
- Quarrels also divided the Allied leaders: Woodrow Wilson of the United States, David Lloyd George of Britain, and Georges Clemenceau of France
 - All three held the Central powers responsible for the war and deserving of punishment
 - Wilson hoped to prevent all war in the future with his Fourteen Points and called for many radical new changes
 - Freedom of the seas, arms reduction, end to secret treaties
 - Decolonization
 - Rearrangement of borders according to the self-determination of national groups
 - Establishment of an international dispute-resolution body called the League of Nations
 - Lloyd George and Clemenceau emphasized national self-interest, and were anxious to make the Central powers pay as much as possible for the wartime damage they had caused
 - Both also feared a further resurgence of Germany and sought to keep it militarily weak

Resulting Treaties

- The resulting treaties were the product of bitter debate and compromise
 - At the cost of bargaining away several of his Fourteen Points, Wilson won the approval for the League of Nations
 - Ironically, because Congress did not ratify the Treaty of Versailles, the United States never joined the League, weakening the organization from the start
 - Austria-Hungary was dismantled into two states
 - Nations were created according to the principle of self-determination (Yugoslavia, Czechoslovakia, Poland, Finland, Latvia, Lithuania, and Estonia were carved out of lands lost by Germany, Austria-Hungary, and Russia)
- A complex mandate system was established to administer the Central powers' former imperial possessions
 - The mandate system categorised former colonies according to their readiness for independence
 - The League of Nations placed those nations under the long-, medium-, or short term "supervision" of nations like Britain and France
 - In theory, supervising nations were meant to guide their mandates to freedom
 - In practice, it was colonization under a new name and in a form that allowed the Europeans to avoid offending Woodrow Wilson's anticolonial sensibilities
- The mandate system affected Africa and the Pacific but had the heaviest impact on the Middle East
 - Arab lands once under Ottoman rule became British and French mandates—even though the disappointed Arabs expected independence in exchange for their military aid against the Ottomans
 - One of these mandates was Palestine, where the British, in the Balfour Declaration of 1917, agreed to help create a Jewish "national home"
 - Intended to redress a set of grave injustices—the historical dispossession of the Jews and modern anti-Semitism in Europe—this policy, although not acted on right away, set the stage for an equally grave conflict between Jews (both local and returning) and Palestinian Arabs
- The Treaty of Versailles contained a war-guilt clause that blamed the war on Germany and its partners
 - Germany suffered a loss of territory (13%) and population (10%)
 - Alsace and Lorraine—which Germany had seized from France in 1871—were returned
 - Other pieces of land went to Belgium, Czechoslovakia, Denmark, and Poland
 - Loss of African and Pacific colonies followed

- Disarmament restricted Germany to a token army of 100,000 and forbade all tanks, military aircraft, warships, and submarines
- Most controversially, Germany was forced to pay reparations of over \$32 billion
 - Other Central powers owed reparations as well
 - Originally, Britain, France, and Belgium wanted reimbursement not just for damage done but for the entire cost of the war, a vastly higher amount
 - Wilson insisted on a more limited approach—not that this was appreciated by the Germans, who felt any demands for payment were unjust
- Germany's indignation at the unfairness of Versailles can be contrasted to its actions in previous decades
 - It forced the even harsher treaty of Brest-Litovsk, one of the most punitive settlements in history, on Russia after the spring of 1918
 - A generation before, after defeating France in 1871, Germany had gleefully stripped away the provinces of Alsace and Lorraine and demanded a fortune in gold
- The Paris Peace Conference produced flawed results
 - Greed and revenge dictated many of the terms and much of the redrawing of the world map, especially concerning former colonies
 - Ignorance about places like Eastern Europe, Africa, and the Middle East left ethnic tensions unresolved and created regimes that looked stable on the surface but were weak at its core
 - The League of Nations, particularly without the United States to lead it, proved too feeble to keep peace in the future
 - The high-handed way the Treaty of Versailles was foisted on the Germans guaranteed that the overwhelming majority of them would perceive it as unfair—a significant factor in Hitler's later rise to power

World War II Consequences

- Death and suffering of millions
 - 9-10 million soldiers were killed, 2-7 million civilians were dead, and 28-30 million people were wounded
 - Genocidal massacre of Armenians by the Ottoman Empire marked a new level of military atrocity, foreshadowing the Holocaust of World War II
 - In occupied territories like Belgium and Poland, the Germans and Austrians killed many civilians, destroyed or confiscated civilian property, and illegally used thousands of civilians as forced labor
 - Millions of people (particularly in Eastern Europe, with its constantly shifting borders) were made homeless or stateless
 - Global epidemic of Spanish flu struck during the closing months of World War I, lasting until late 1920 and killing at least 25-40 million, perhaps many more
- Destruction of four empires
 - Imperial Germany
 - Habsburg Austria
 - Tsarist Russia
 - Ottoman Empire, which collapsed shortly after the war
- General decline in European global power
 - Even the victor nations were badly drained
 - Overseas empires became increasingly difficult to control
- Instability in Central and Eastern Europe
 - German resentment of Versailles simmered
 - Soviet expansionism threatened
 - Political inexperience made nations vulnerable
- Far-reaching social and economic consequences were unleashed or sped up by the war
 - Continued decline of hereditary aristocracies
 - Growing clout of the middle and lower classes (especially "white collar professionals")
 - Granting of women's suffrage in most Western nations (although France and Italy held out until the 1940s)
 - Fuller industrialization of Western economies

- Sense of uncertainty and anxiety in European culture

Domestic Politics, 1900-1939

Fragile Peace and Political Extremism in Europe

- Peace prevailed in Europe during the 1920s but was fragile at best
 - Political violence and civil war rocked Germany, Soviet Russia, and Eastern Europe until 1922, and even afterward, it was exhaustion rather than true amity that preserved peace on the continent
 - The League of Nations resettled refugees and carried out famine relief, but with few powers of enforcement, it soon proved an inadequate peacekeeper
 - European economies struggled, even during the comparatively stable 1920s, and then plunged into free fall during the 1930s as the effects of the Great Depression spread outward from the United States
- Democracy did not flourish in interwar Europe and the economy suffered
 - In 1919, twenty-three governments there could be considered democratic. By 1939, half of those had become dictatorial (although to varying degrees of severity)
 - Italy slipped into fascism as early as 1922
 - The Depression helped drive Germany to Nazism in 1933
- Britain and France experienced political weakness and economic sluggishness, and only U.S. investment and German reparations kept the economies afloat during the 1920s
 - Economic sluggishness
 - Unemployment, deficits, and strikes were the norm
 - Most interwar democracies—including France and Britain—found some relief by putting into place the earliest elements of the social welfare systems that most Western states enjoy today
 - The Depression made things worse for both political systems
 - British elections returned weak-willed coalition governments
 - The French government lurched from left to right and back again in frequent elections
 - There was a growing difficulty in holding onto empires
 - All but the northern fragment of Ireland freed itself from Britain after World War I
 - National liberation movements were increasingly restless in colonies like French Indochina and British India
 - Hoping to make imperial rule seem less burdensome, Britain—starting with the 1931 Statute of Westminster—began the long transformation of its empire into the more egalitarian British Commonwealth
 - On the foreign-policy front, economic fragility and political indecision made it difficult for Depression-era France and Britain to cope with the growing threat of Nazi Germany
- The general crisis of democracy meant that political momentum in interwar Europe seemed to belong to dictatorships, several of which attained totalitarian level of control over their people
 - Totalitarianism is more extreme than authoritarianism, both in the level of people killed or imprisoned
 - Stalinist Russia, Maoist China, and Nazi Germany are clear-cut examples of totalitarianism
 - George Orwell's 1984 is the classic fictional depiction of totalitarianism
- Fascists and authoritarian economies typically follow the principles of syndicalism
 - Syndicalism is a form of state capitalism in which business leaders, rather than practicing free trade, cooperate directly with the government
 - In exchange for obedience, they receive preferential treatment, and the regime ensures that labor unions pose no challenge to them
 - This approach prevailed in Fascist Italy, Nazi Germany, Japan, and many minor dictatorships

Soviet Union

- The Soviet Union was the communist regime that took power in Russia in the fall of 1917
 - Russia underwent two revolutions in 1917
 - The tsarist regime collapsed in the February Revolution due to repeated World War I disasters, the political incompetence of Nicholas II, and dire food shortages
 - Afterward, a liberal provisional government attempted to repair the dismal economy and build democracy, all while continuing to fight Germany

- Its good intentions did not satisfy the desire of the vast majority of Russians for economic stability, land reform (80% of the population were peasants), and an end to the war at any cost
- As popular discontent grew during the summer and early fall, those who benefitted the most were the Bolsheviks, the most radical of Russia's communists, led by Vladimir Lenin and his second in command, Leon Trotsky
- The October Revolution of 1917 brought them in power
- The Bolsheviks struggled for survival between 1917 and 1921
 - Russia was pulled out of World War I
 - Bolsheviks defeated their anticommunist rivals—the Whites—in the terrible Russian Civil War, which resulted in the death of millions from disease, starvation, and persecution and the emigration of hundreds of thousands more
 - Lenin quickly created a one-party dictatorship and a secret police (originally the Cheka, eventually the KGB)
- Lenin tried to modernize Russia along Marxist lines
 - Main challenge was that while Marx had spoken of communism succeeding first in a mature capitalist society with a large industrial working class, economically backward Russia had a huge peasantry but only a tiny working class
 - In 1921, Lenin compromised with this reality by instituting the New Economic Policy (NEP), a more gradual approach to socialist development that allowed for limited private trade
 - NEP lasted until 1928, although Lenin died in the meantime, in 1924
- In 1928, Joseph Stalin gained control of the Soviet government and became one of the most oppressive dictators of all time
 - Dealt with a half-decade succession struggle against Trotsky before gaining control
- Stalin immediately overturned NEP and returned to the policy of overnight modernization with his Five-Year Plans and the collectivization of agriculture
 - Five-Year Plans: complete centralization of the economy to bring about rapid industrialization
 - Collectivization of agriculture: the forced transfer of peasants from villages to state-run farms, both to control them more tightly and to confiscate their grain more efficiently in order to pay for the Five-Year Plans
- Although the USSR modernized under Stalin, the price was steep
 - Five-Year Plans combined the social and economic trauma of a state-sponsored industrial revolution with ruthless police brutality
 - Millions of peasants who opposed collectivization were imprisoned or executed,
 - 4-6 million more peasants died in the Great Famine (1932-1933) caused by Stalin's grain confiscations in southern Russia, Kazakhstan, and Ukraine (which suffered the largest losses and where the famine is remembered as the Holodomor, or "extermination by hunger")
 - From 1936-1938, Stalin used the secret police to carry out a series of mass arrests and show trials, called the Purges, executing approximately a million people and exiling millions more to labor camps called gulags
 - Like other modern dictators, Stalin used propaganda to indoctrinate his subjects and glorified himself by means of a cult of personality

Italy

- After World War I, Italy's constitutional monarchy was undermined by economic downturn and political chaos
 - Upper and middle classes feared social breakdown and communist revolution, and sought a strong leader to restore stability
 - In October 1922, Benito Mussolini led his newly founded Fascist Party in a March on Rome to display the strength of his movement
 - The king placed Mussolini in charge of the government for the next twenty-one years because he viewed the Fascists as a less dangerous threat than the communists
 - Fascism, Mussolini's invention, is right-wing radicalism that was anticommunist, anticapitalist, antidemocratic, and was characterized by militaristic nationalism
- Mussolini's reign benefitted Italy, but he did not do it in a democratic fashion

- Killed and arrested few people compared to Stalin and Hitler
- Modernized Italy with new highways, literacy campaigns, and the industrial development of backward regions
- Well-regarded, both at home and abroad, during the 1920s
- Imposed censorship, used propaganda to create a lavish cult of personality, and suppressed trade unions and political parties
- Foreign-policy aggression, plus his decision to ally with Hitler, damaged his international reputation during the 1930s
- The Depression undermined his modernizing efforts

Germany

- From 1919 to 1933, Germany was governed by the democratic Weimar Republic
 - Hyperinflation dogged Germany during the early 1920s, which caused several years of nightmarish poverty
 - There was political unrest from the left (a communist uprising in 1919) and the right (several assassinations and coup attempts, including one by the fledgling Nazi Party in 1923)
 - Weimar regime managed to restore economic and political order between 1924 and 1929
 - In 1930, the Great Depression ended this temporary calm, causing mass unemployment (nearly 40% of the workforce by 1932)
 - The Great Depression boosted the popularity of Germany's most extremist movements: the communists and the Nazi Party, led by Adolf Hitler
- Hitler was originally from Austria, but he was a fierce pan-German patriot
 - Conscious imitator of Italian fascism and despised communism and democracy in favor of militaristic nationalism
 - Embraced racial hatred of many groups, especially a virulent form of anti-Semitism—all expressed in his infamous memoir *Mein Kampf*
- Public opinion of the Nazi Party changed when the Weimar regime failed to cope with the Depression
 - During the relative stability of the late 1920s, the Nazis enjoyed little political appeal
 - Afterward, ordinary Germans began heeding Hitler's rhetoric and remembered their resentment of the Treaty of Versailles
 - Many came to believe the Nazis' anti-Semitism conspiracy theories about how the Jews had supposedly sold Germany out during World War I or were enriching themselves while the rest of Germany suffered through the Depression or were responsible for international communism
 - During the Weimar electoral crisis of the early 1930s, as vote after vote failed to produce a clear majority, the Nazis emerged as Germany's largest party
 - The Communists also gained in popularity, reflecting the country's political polarization
 - In January 1933, Germany's president—the conservative war hero Paul von Hindenburg, who had little love for the Nazis but feared the Communists more—appointed Hitler chancellor of Germany
- Within months, Hitler established himself as an absolute dictator
 - In February 1933, the Reichstag building, seat of the German government, was set ablaze by a communist arsonist, allowing Hitler to declare a state of emergency and to pass the Enabling Act in March
 - The Enabling Act suspended the Weimar constitution and gave Hitler the power to rule by decree
 - Hitler soon outlawed all political parties, banned trade unions, and turned the press and mass media into instruments of Nazi propaganda (relying on a cult of personality similar to Mussolini's and Stalin's)
 - In 1934, he assumed the presidency when Hindenburg suddenly died
 - Hitler violently purged remaining rivals within the Nazi Party in the "night of long knives"
 - To control dissidents and opponents, the Nazis built concentration camps like Dachau and created a secret police, the Gestapo
 - Hitler's system of state capitalism, similar to Mussolini's, reduced German unemployment with a giant program of public works and highway building coupled with mass military conscription and renewed arms production—both of which required the renunciation of the Treaty of Versailles

- Hitler's belligerent foreign policy was a key reason of the erosion of European and global peace during the 1930s
- The Nazis also acted on their notorious obsession with racial purity
 - Believed in the Aryan myth, the misguided notion that Germans and other northern Europeans were the "truest" descendants of the earliest Indo-Europeans
 - Targeted several races as "undesirable," including Slavs, Africans, and Roma (Gypsies)—but the worst of these "subhumans," the source of all of Germany's troubles, were the Jews
- Although the Nazis eventually resorted to genocide, their prewar anti-Semitic policies emphasized official discrimination and physical harassment
 - Jewish writings and artworks were banned or burned
 - Jewish businesses were boycotted
 - Jews were forced out of professions like law, medicine, civil service, and university teaching
 - Sporadic violence, including the 1938 pogrom called Kristallnacht ("night of broken glass"), ramped up during the late 1930s as the regime tried to pressure Jews into leaving the country
 - Many stayed, either because places like Britain, Canada, or the United States refused them entry or because European Jews did not anticipate how much worse Nazi rule would become

Colonialism in Africa

- Most of Africa remained firmly under European colonial control
 - Exceptions include South Africa, which formed a union of British and Boer provinces in 1910 and gained dominion status within the British Empire in 1931
 - Liberia, founded in the 1800s by freed slaves from the United States, remained independent
 - Ethiopia, the only state other than Liberia to escape colonization during the Scramble for Africa, was conquered by Fascist Italy during the mid-1930s
- Although not yet as potent as in Asia or the Middle East, national liberationist impulses started to awaken in Africa
 - Jomo Kenyatta mobilized Kikuyu nationalism against British colonial rule
 - French colonies in Morocco and West Africa were convinced by strikes protests, and even rebellion
 - Blaise Diagne of Senegal became, in 1914, the first black African to be elected as a delegate to France's National Assembly

Nationalism and Modernization in the Middle East

- The Ottoman Empire entered World War I and shared in the Central powers' defeat
 - Lost its imperial possessions to revolt or to the Paris Peace Conference
 - Threatened after the war with the seizure of even more territory by Greece
- Mustafa Kemal was a heroic World War I commander
 - Repelled the Greeks
 - Formed a new government and negotiated a more favorable treaty with the Allies
 - Proclaimed the Turkish Republic in 1923 after the last Ottoman sultan vacated the throne
 - Appointed himself president and took the name Ataturk, or "father of all Turks"
- From 1923 to his death in 1938, Ataturk governed as a secularizing modernizer
 - Promoted industrialization, Western dress, Western education, and the use of Roman alphabet for written Turkish
 - Separated church and state, with a European law code replacing Islamic Sharia
 - Gave women the right to vote in 1934, abolished the law of veiling, and encouraged women to get educations and jobs
 - Wrote a constitution, but only kept up a democratic pretense
 - Tolerated little opposition and began a long tradition of authoritarian rule in Turkey
- Persia became the modern state of Iran in the 1920s
 - Drawn by Persia's oil reserves, Britain increased its presence there after World War I, causing a nationalist backlash
- Reza Khan was an officer who later took the name Reza Shah Pahlavi
 - Mutinied against the ruling Qajar and expelled the British in 1921
 - Gained control of the country by 1925 and established a new royal dynasty

- Became an authoritarian westernizer like his neighbor Ataturk
- Less inclined than Ataturk to make a show of democracy or to clash as had with Muslim clergy
- Industrialized Iran, boosted education, did away with the veil for women
- Islamic North Africa remained in British, French, and Italian hands
 - Britain continued to dominate Egypt, even though Egypt technically gained independence in 1922
 - Nationalist sentiment grew, often taking form of Islamic traditionalism as in the 1928 formation of the Muslim Brotherhood in Cairo
 - Initially, the Ottomans retained the Arabian Peninsula, but the other Arab lands once under their rulership were placed into the mandate system
 - Administered by France and Britain under the League of Nations' supervision
 - Syria and Lebanon were assigned to France
 - Iraq, Jordan, and Palestine fell to the British
 - Arrangement angered the Arabs, who had believed during World War I that the Allies would grant them complete freedom as a reward for their anti-Ottoman revolt
 - Balfour Declaration of 1917, which pledged British support for a Jewish "national home" in Palestine (90% Arab before substantial Jewish immigration) in the 1920s and 1930s, also enraged Arabs
- The one Arab state to achieve full independence during these years was Saudi Arabia
 - Formed in 1932 by the prince Ibn Saud, who spent the 1920s driving the Turks out of the Arabian Peninsula and uniting its many tribes
 - Became an authoritarian monarchy attracted to Wahhabism, a strictly fundamentalist form of Islam
 - Modernized little—except to industrialize its huge oil reserves, whose discovery in 1938 made it instantly wealthy and strategically vital

Militarism and Revolution in Asia

China

- The Chinese Revolution of 1911-1912 swept away the Qing regime
 - Sun Yat-sen was the revolution's leading figure
 - He spent the 1890s and early 1900s promoting Western-style modernization and constitutional rule based on three "people's principles"
 - Nationalism, or opposition to Manchu rule and Western imperialism
 - Democracy, including universal suffrage of women as well as men
 - Livelihood, a semisocialist concern for people's welfare
 - When anti-Qing uprisings broke out in the fall of 1911, Sun was in America but quickly returned and became president of the new Chinese Republic
 - His movement renamed itself the Nationalist Party, or Kuomintang (KMT)
- Sun's idealism was no match for the civil war and anarchy that followed
- In 1912, the authoritarian general Yuan Shikai seized power, which remained in his hands until his death in 1916 and then passed to other right-wing officers until 1928
 - Opposed to this military regime were warlords and bandits, who established control over vast stretches of China
 - Intellectuals and students, whose Western-oriented progressivism clashed with the regime's attempt to revive traditional Confucian values, also opposed them
 - Although the Chinese Republic banned foot binding and began preparations for allowing women to vote, Yuan Shikai canceled suffrage for women and Chinese women only received the right to vote in 1947
 - Popular discontent with the military government became clear on May 4, 1919, when thousands of students gathered in Tiananmen Square
 - Although they gathered mainly to protest the regime's willingness to allow Japan to annex Shantung Province (a German concession awarded to Japan by the Treaty of Versailles), the other goal of this May Fourth movement was democratic reform
- Also clashing with the military regime were the Kuomintang, still led by Sun and now running a revolutionary effort in the south, based in Canton, and the Chinese Communist Party (CCP), founded in 1921
 - In the mid-1920s, both cooperated to combat unruly warlords and to unseat the military government

- In 1925, Sun died of cancer, passing KMT leadership to Chiang Kai-shek, a Western-educated officer who leaned further to the right than Sun had
- By early 1927, the KMT-CCP alliance had won control of all China south of the Yangtze River
- In April, Chiang turned against the Communists, murdering thousands in Shanghai and driving the rest far to the north
- In 1928, Chiang took Beijing and founded a Kuomintang regime
 - Chiang professed allegiance to Sun's principles and attempted a certain degree of modernization, but the regime soon grew corrupt, inefficient, and authoritarian
 - Chiang governed China until 1949 but faced two deadly threats
 - Mao Zedong kept the CCP alive, led it to its new northern base of Yanan during the arduous Long March of 1934-1935, and from there continued the anti-KMT struggle
 - Like Lenin in Russia, Mao confronted the awkward fact that Marxism was theoretically poorly suited to nonindustrial societies with few proletarian
 - He radicalised China's peasant masses and made communism appealing to them
 - Japanese expansionism began in 1931, worsened after 1937, and never ceased until the end of World War II

Japan

- Japan began the interwar period with democratizing potential but veered off toward authoritarian militarism in the end
 - Through the late 1920s, the powers of the Diet increased, freedom of the press expanded, and a 1925 bill of rights granted universal male suffrage and other civil liberties
 - On the other hand, Japan continued its policy of state-directed industrialization, with a small number of powerful corporations, or zaibatsu, benefiting from government favoritism
 - This system concentrated wealth in a tiny oligarchy of influential industrialists, kept trade unions weak, and did little to improve working conditions
 - Even before the Depression, strikes and riots were common, and social stress was building to a dangerous level
- In the 1930s, the Great Depression and Japan's foreign-policy aggression derailed further liberalization
 - The Depression caused Japanese exports to plummet more than 50%
 - Resulting economic stress gave rise to left-wing extremism, including communist agitation, and this was met by conservative backlash
 - A steady political crackdown resulted in military control of the government by 1937, climaxing with the 1941 elevation of Hideki Toji, head of Japan's army, to prime ministership
- At the same time, militaristic nationalism skyrocketed
 - Starting in 1931, the Japanese seized Manchuria from China and withdrew from the League of Nations
 - They resumed their war against China in 1937, committing dreadful atrocities like the Rape of Nanjing that December when Japanese troops butchered 200K-300K noncombatants, including thousands of women who were first sexually assaulted
 - Before the end of World War II, the Japanese would spread this campaign of xenophobic imperialism throughout much of East and Southeast Asia, euphemistically naming their sphere of influence the Greater East Asian Co-Prosp erity Sphere
- General nationalism in interwar Japan was also bolstered by the ideology of State Shinto, which propagandistically perverted Japan's indigenous faith to foster a sense of racial superiority and unquestioning loyalty to the state
- Anti-Western feelings sharpened, and the slogan "Asia for the Asians" called for the expulsion of colonizing powers like Britain and France

South and Southeast Asia

- In South and Southeast Asia, national liberation movements became increasingly influential
 - Anticolonial agitation escalated in the Dutch East Indies (now Indonesia), Burma, and Indochina (especially among the Vietnamese)
 - Such efforts were typically led by Western educated elites and middle-class intellectuals and students

- They also tended to involve uneasy alliances between the liberal modernizers and radical communists—much like that between the Nationalists and Communists in China and often breaking apart in the same way
- The most successful of these movements appeared in India, spearheaded by the Indian National Congress
 - Because they had supported Britain loyally during World War I, Indians hoped for greater autonomy after the war
 - Aggrieved by the lack of change, they began staging mass protests, one of which, at Amritsar in 1919, resulted in the killing or wounding of more than 1,400 unarmed demonstrators by British troops
 - During the 1920s, India balanced on a political knife edge and could easily have erupted into a bloody revolution
- The guidance of Mohandas Gandhi ensured that there was no bloody revolt
 - He was a leading figure in Congress since 1915, known to his followers as Mahatma, or “great soul”
 - Gandhi combined political activism and Hindu religious principle to devise the policy of nonviolent resistance, which he called satyagraha (“hold to the truth”)
 - An example of satyagraha in action came in 1930, after the British imposed a punitively high tax on salt
 - Gandhi led 5,000 people on a two hundred-mile march to the seashore, where they made salt illegally by drying out seawater
 - When the British arrived, Gandhi allowed himself to be arrested peacefully
 - Gandhi was imprisoned several times by the British, but freed in 1931
 - Influences on Gandhi included the American Henry David Thoreau, especially his On Civil Disobedience (1849), and the Russian novelist Leo Tolstoy, who embraced spiritual pacifism
 - Gandhi himself shaped the outlook of Martin Luther King Jr. who adopted nonviolent resistance in the African-American struggle for civil rights
- Lawyer and secular modernizer Jawaharlal Nehru acted as a political leader, while Gandhi continued to work with the Congress as a spiritual leader
 - Gandhi and Nehru now pressed for full independence
 - Even after Britain granted a constitution in 1935 that promised eventual self-rule, the Congress responded with its “Quit India” campaign
 - Britain realised that it would have to accelerate its plans for withdrawal—although these were delayed until 1947 by the advent of World War II
- In 1930, Muhammad Ali Jinnah founded the All-India Muslim League
 - Ended many years of cooperation with the Congress, which chiefly represented Hindu interests
 - Aimed not just for independence but for the creation of a separate Islamic state
 - Failure of the Muslim League and the Congress to resolve their differences peacefully led to great bloodshed and decades of Indo-Pakistani rivalry

Authoritarianism in Latin America

- During the interwar years, Latin America coped as before with Western economic imperialism and the diplomatic weakness that came with being part of the U.S. sphere of influence
 - United Fruit Company was merely the best known of many corporations that affected politics here
 - Cuban-American treaty of 1903 authorized the United States to intervene in Cuba’s foreign policy (and gave it the option, still active, to lease the Guantanamo naval base)
 - Americans occupied Haiti in 1915 to protect U.S. sugar companies and established a long-term military presence in Panama after opening the Panama Canal in 1914
 - After repeated raids on U.S. soil by the rebel leader Pancho Villa, the U.S. also invaded northern Mexico in 1916
 - Franklin Roosevelt’s Good Neighbor Policy (1935), which included the withdrawal of troops from Haiti, was the only attempt to reduce U.S. influence in Latin America
- Latin American economies modernized unevenly during these years
 - It remained advantageous for economic elites and foreign investors to continue plantation monoculture and the extraction of a handful of raw materials rather than industrialize or diversify
 - After 1929, the Great Depression devastated Latin American economies by wiping out international demand for nearly half their exports

- Most farmers and laborers, especially those of mixed or native races, worked under oppressive conditions and enjoyed few political rights

Mexico

- The convoluted Mexican Revolution (1910-1920) followed a pattern not unlike China's
- In 1910-1911, the liberal democrat Francisco Madero overthrew Porfirio Díaz, a general who had ruled since 1876
 - Promised to break up large plantations unfairly acquired by wealthy owners and to redistribute the land to village communities
 - Modernized the country but grew corrupt and abusive over time
 - Did not rule for long, similar to Sun Yat-sen in China
 - Pressured from the left by rural radicals like Francisco "Pancho" Villa and Emiliano Zapata, who initially supported him but led uprising against him when he did not deliver agrarian reform as rapidly as he had promised
 - Faced opposition from conservative military officers from the right, who staged a coup in 1913 and executed him
- Madero's liberal ally Venustiano Carranza took back power in 1914
 - Enacted the Constitution of 1917, which guaranteed universal suffrage (including women), the separation of church and state, and the right to strike
 - Caught between Zapata's and Villa's radical insurrections on one side and military disloyalty on the other, like Madero before him
 - Defeated Zapata in 1919
 - Removed in 1920 by the general Álvaro Obregón and soon killed
- Although violence continued into the early 1930s, Obregón fundamentally restored order in Mexico and Carranza's death is considered the revolution's endpoint
 - Obregón eliminated Villa in 1923
 - He began substantial land redistribution and instituted a number of labor and educational reforms
 - He stepped down in 1924, only to be assassinated in 1928
- In 1929, Obregón's successors founded the National Revolutionary Party (NRP), which renamed itself the Institutional Revolutionary Party (PRI) in 1946 and ruled until the late 1980s
 - Like Napoleon in France, the NRP/PRI claimed to govern in the revolution's name, but actually created a durable oligarchy
 - They chose a president every six years and arranged a "democratic" election that guaranteed victory to its candidate
 - Under this mild form of authoritarianism, the upper classes prospered and the country modernized, while the lower classes—workers and peasants—lagged far behind the elite, and the middle class remained small
- Conditions improved under Lázaro Cárdenas, president from 1934-1940
 - Carried massive land reform
 - Transferred 40 million acres from the upper classes to the peasantry
 - Stood up to the United States with his nationalization of the oil industry and formed PEMEX, Mexico's state-run oil enterprise
 - Compensated U.S. investors for their losses so that Franklin Roosevelt abided by his Good Neighbor Policy and did not intervene

Brazil

- Brazil descended deep into dictatorship in 1930 when an oligarchy dominated by healthy landowners gave way to the despotic presidency of the cattleman Getúlio Vargas, who ruled from the far right until 1945
 - Freed Brazil from its economic overdependence on coffee exports
 - Turned Brazil into Latin America's most industrialized nation
 - Generated popularity by granting limited concessions to minorities and the poor
 - Admired Mussolini and Hitler
 - Censored the press and authorized his secret police to torture prisoners

Argentina

- Depression-era Argentina also became a dictatorship in 1930 when the military ousted radical president Hipólito Yrigoyen
 - Hipólito Yrigoyen had spent the 1920s antagonizing the army and elite classes with pro-union and pro-worker policies
 - Argentina's "infamous decade" of dictatorship lasted until 1943
 - A new series of coups paved the way for the 1946 rise of another strongman, the charismatic general Juan Perón

World War II and the Holocaust

- World War II (1939-1945) remains the largest and deadliest conflict in human history
 - Involved more than sixty nations
 - Cost trillions of dollars
 - Killed approximately 60 million people
- Civilian deaths account for more than 30 million people
 - Destructive tactics and technologies (terror bombing, strategic bombing)
 - Campaigns of genocide, which included the Nazi Holocaust
- WW2 shifted the balance of global strength
 - Toppled the European powers from their position of geopolitical superiority
 - Ushered in the U.S.-Soviet Cold War and a massive wave of postwar decolonization
- Axis powers:
 - Nazi Germany
 - Fascist Italy (joined the war in June 1940; left on July 1943)
 - Japan
- Allied powers:
 - Great Britain, Canada, Australia, New Zealand
 - France (left the war in June 1940)
 - USSR (joined the war in June 1941)
 - United States (joined the war in December 1941)
 - Nationalist China

Origins and Interwar Foreign Policy

- Aggression during the 1930s from Japan, Italy, and Germany
 - Unchecked by the League of Nations
 - Repeatedly answered by the Western democracies with the policy of appeasement (letting a belligerent party have what it wants in the hope that it will ask for no more)
- Foreign-policy destabilization occurred
 - Japan invaded the Chinese province of Manchuria and left the League of Nations (1931)
 - Nazi Germany pulled out of the League (1933) and began rearmament and conscription in open violation of the Treaty of Versailles (1935)
 - USSR feared Hitler's anticommunist rhetoric and his talk of Lebensraum ("living space") in Eastern Europe, so they attempted a policy of collective security with the West and secured a seemingly reliable alliance with France and Czechoslovakia
 - Britain distrusted the Soviets and distanced itself from this partnership
- Several factors explain the democracies' passivity in the face of fascism during the 1930s
 - U.S. isolationism did not help, and neither did British antipathy for the USSR
 - Great Depression kept democracies economically timid
 - Memory of World War I bloodshed made them reluctant to risk another round of fighting
 - Britain and France put too much faith in defensive barriers to keep them safe: the English Channel in the case of the former and the Maginot Line (a long chain of border fortifications) in the case of the latter
- Events quickly proved the hollowness of collective security
 - Italy brutally invaded Ethiopia (1935), and when the League of Nations tried to sanction it, Italy abandoned the League and drew closer to Germany

- In the spring of 1936, Hitler defied France and Britain by sending troops into the Rhineland, which the Treaty of Versailles had demilitarized, and the democracies' failure to respond emboldened him
- In the summer of 1936, Fascist Italy and Nazi Germany joined forces in intervening in the Spanish Civil War (1936-1939)
- Things grew worse in 1937 as Japan resumed its war in China—committing the horrific Rape of Nanjing that December—and forged friendly ties with Germany and Italy
- Many countries intervened in the Spanish Civil War (1936-1939) during the period before World War II
 - In the summer of 1936, Mussolini and Hitler joined forces and aided the military rebellion led by the right-wing general Francisco Franco against Spain's recently elected coalition of liberals and leftists
 - Soviets sent assistance to the Spanish government—but when the French, who also promised to help, were persuaded by Britain to remain neutral, they disappointed Stalin and undermined collective security
 - Germans and Italians tested new tanks, airplanes, and tactics in Spain
 - With their help, Franco marched to victory in 1939, ruling as Spain's dictator until his death in 1975
- Collective security's final collapse soon followed
 - Germany annexed Austria (1938)
 - In the summer of 1938, Germany threatened war against Czechoslovakia over the Sudetenland, a border region given to the Czechs by the Treaty of Versailles even though it contained a large German-speaking population
 - Because of France's and the USSR's treaties with Czechoslovakia, war seemed unavoidable
 - At September's Munich Agreement—a woeful example of appeasement—the British prime minister, Neville Chamberlain, and the French premier agreed to let Hitler take Sudetenland in exchange for his promise to expand no further
 - The Czechs and Soviets, both uninvited, were outraged, and Stalin, already upset about the Spanish Civil War, lost faith in collective security
- In the spring of 1939, Hitler exposed Chamberlain's foolishness by invading the rest of Czechoslovakia and staking loud claims to Polish territory
 - The British and the French now decided to stand firm over Poland
 - In August, Stalin, no longer trusting the democracies, negotiated a nonaggression treaty with Hitler
 - Nazi-Soviet Pact kept the USSR neutral and allowed Hitler to invade Poland without worrying about a two-front war
 - Germany's invasion of Poland on September 1, 1939, began World War II

World War II: A Combat Overview

- World War II was very dynamic because of new or improved technologies
 - At sea, aircraft carriers appeared alongside battleships to give navies an airborne push, and long-range submarines extended offensive reach
 - On the ground, tanks combined the power of artillery with excellent mobility, allowing maneuvers like Germany's nimble sidestepping of France's mammoth by ineffectual Maginot Line
 - Heavy bomber aircraft dropped unheard-of quantities of explosives on dozens of cities from London and Rotterdam to Dresden and Tokyo
 - Among the wartime innovations that deeply affected postwar life were radar, jet aircraft, rocketry, atomic bombs, and computers
- Between 1939 and the end of 1941, the Axis powers enjoyed great triumphs
 - Germany's innovative blitzkrieg ("lightning war") used tanks and airplanes to penetrate quickly and deeply into enemy territory
 - Poland fell to Germany in six weeks in the fall of 1939
 - When Hitler turned against Norway, Denmark, Belgium, the Netherlands, and France in the spring of 1940, his forces defeated them all between April and June
 - From the summer of 1940 through the spring of 1941, Germany focused its attention on Britain, trying—but failing—to bomb it into submission from the air
 - Royal Air Force defended England's skies in the Battle of Britain, and Britain held on thanks to control of the seas, the skill of its pilots, its use of radar, and economic aid from Canada and the United States

- Although the United States was neutral, Franklin Roosevelt sympathized with the Allies and began his Lend-Lease program of economic assistance to Britain, and later the USSR, in the spring and summer of 1941
- In 1941, the war expanded to Africa, where German tank forces drove toward the British-controlled Suez Canal
- In June 1941, Hitler began a surprise invasion of the USSR with Operation Barbarossa
 - 60-75% of all German forces fought on this Soviet front
 - At first, it looked as though blitzkrieg would topple the USSR as quickly as it had France
 - Germans surrounded Leningrad, the country's second largest city, placing it under the worst siege in modern times, and reached the outskirts of Moscow in October
 - A last-ditch defensive effort halted the German advance in December
- At this point, events in Asia further complicated the war
 - Earlier in 1941, the Japanese, extending their imperial reach from China to Southeast Asia, had occupied French Indochina
 - Bold move that also threatened Britain's Asian colonies and the U.S.-controlled Philippines
 - Repeated U.S. trade embargoes heightened diplomatic tensions and convinced the Japanese to launch a massive naval and air assault throughout the Pacific
 - Began with the December 7, 1941 surprise attack on Pearl Harbor
 - Brought the United States into the war—just as the Soviets stalled the Germans outside Moscow
 - By the late spring of 1942, the Japanese were masters of the South Pacific and Southeast Asia, having captured Hong Kong, Thailand, Burma, Britain's mighty naval base at Singapore, the Philippines, and the Dutch East Indies (modern Indonesia)
 - Although the Axis powers were still winning major victories, they had made the war far more strategically and economically challenging for themselves
- In the summer and fall of 1942, three turning-point battles completely reversed the war's tide
 - Midway (June 1942) was a Pacific clash in which the U.S. Navy destroyed the bulk of Japan's carrier fleet
 - El Alamein (July-November 1942) was where the British turned back the German tanks driving toward the Suez Canal
 - Stalingrad (August 1942-February 1943) was a savage showdown on the Volga, where a huge German force nearly pushed the Soviets across the river en route to the USSR's oil reserves but was instead encircled and captured
 - Had the Axis won them, their short-term advantages in skill and speed might have forced an end favorable to them before the Allies' long-term economic and population advantages overpowered the
- Between 1943-1945, the Allied powers began winning the war
 - In 1943 and 1944, U.S. forces in the Pacific moved west toward Japan in a strategy of island hopping
 - Allied armies and guerrilla uprisings in China and Southeast Asia pinned down Japanese forces on the mainland
 - In Europe, the Allies invaded Italy from North Africa in 1943, deposing Mussolini's government
 - At sea, they neutralized Germany's submarines—the only truly dangerous threat still at Hitler's disposal—in the Battle of the Atlantic (1942-spring 1943)
 - From the east, the Soviets pushed the Germans out of the USSR, into Eastern Europe, and toward Berlin
 - In June 1944, Operation Overlord, or the D-Day invasion, landed more than 170,000 British, Canadian, and American troops on the beaches of Normandy in northern France
 - By this point, the Allies also had complete control of the skies
 - Having been bombed so mercilessly in 1940 and 1941, they now carried out the strategic bombing of German-held Europe at will
 - By the summer of 1944, U.S. forces were within range to do the same to Japan
 - Sought to disrupt military and economic efforts and to break down the civilian population's morale
 - Killed hundreds of thousands of civilians
 - Remains one of the most controversial aspects of the Allies' war effort
 - With the Soviets storming Berlin, Hitler committed suicide on April 30, 1945, and Germany ceased hostilities in early May
 - Japan continued to fight, despite constant firebombing and the steady approach of U.S. naval forces

- America's new president, Harry Truman, who took office after Franklin Roosevelt's death in April, feared that an invasion of Japan's home islands would cost hundreds of thousands of casualties
- He hoped to win from the air, but conventional bombardment did not appear to be denting the Japanese leadership's resolve
- In mid-July, when Allied scientists complete the first successful atomic bomb test, Truman elected to use the new weapon to hasten Japan's surrender
- On August 6, the B-29 Enola Gay dropped an atomic bomb on Hiroshima, killing an estimated 80,000 initially, with tens of thousands dying later from burns or radioactive fallout
- Japan still refused to yield, but a second bomb, released over Nagasaki on August 9 and killing another 80,000 in total, forced Japan's capitulation
- Formal surrender followed in September

War Crimes and the Holocaust

- War crimes during World War II were of unprecedented cruelty, and it was during this time that genocide was formally defined as a crime
- The Allies were not blameless when it came to cruelty
 - Soviet army raped as many as 2 million women and girls as it advanced through Germany toward Berlin
 - Allies' strategic bombing killed over 600,000 in German-held Europe and at least another 500,000 in Japan
 - Allied bombing proved especially devastating to certain cities, including Hamburg in 1943 and Dresden in early 1945, where firebombing killed approximately 25,000 to 30,000
 - Dresden remains notorious because it took place when the war was essentially over and because it is debatable whether the city was militarily important enough to warrant targeting
 - U.S. firebombing of Tokyo in March 1945 killed approximately 100,000 people—more than either atomic bomb did in its initial blast
- Nonetheless, the Axis committed atrocities more systematically and on a larger scale
 - Both Japan and Germany killed large numbers of civilians, executed or mistreated prisoners of war, and pressed several million enemy noncombatants into forced labor
 - Japan plundered its occupied territories (Great East Asian Co-Prosperty Sphere), used prisoners as human subjects to test biological and chemical weapons, and its army forced thousands of women from mainland Asia to serve as "comfort women," or military prostitutes
- Germany's campaigns of genocide were the most heinous
 - Genocide was defined in 1943 by the Polish-Jewish lawyer Raphael Lemkin as the premeditated attempt to annihilate a group based on its identity
 - Nazi policy singled out several racial groups as sub-humans who could not be allowed to contaminate the Germans' pure Aryan blood
 - Those included Slavs, those of African descent, Roma (Gypsies), and especially Jews
 - Others considered undesirable were homosexuals, the mentally disabled, and people with venereal or incurable diseases
 - Before 1939, treatment of these groups—particularly anti-Semitic persecution—had gotten steadily worse, but the war triggered an escalation of systemic violence, culminating in the mass exterminations popularly known as the Holocaust
 - Nazi officials estimated that 11 million Jews in Europe would have to be expelled or eradicated, and Roma were to be eliminated as well
 - Slavic peoples were to be conquered with brute force and the survivors enslaved
- Nazi Germany's killing of Jews became more brutal and efficient over time
 - In 1939 and 1940, as much of Europe came under German control, Nazi authorities began detaining Jews in concentration camps and city neighborhoods called ghettos
 - In the spring of 1941, as Germany readied its invasion of the USSR, special task groups (Einsatzgruppen) were formed to accompany the German army and execute Soviet Jews by shooting
 - In July 1941, an order to prepare a "final solution of the Jewish problem" was handed down to Nazi security forces, although it came from Nazi leader Hermann Goering (certainly on Hitler's orders)

- Firing-squad executions proved too slow for the Nazis, and they were seeking more efficient ways of killing by late 1941
- Key officials decided—principally as the Wannsee Conference of January 1942—to use special extermination camps to kill victims on a truly industrial scale
 - The extermination camps were inspired by how Nazi doctors had been clinically “euthanizing” the mentally and physically ill since 1939, and they were already under construction in German-held Poland
 - At these camps, which included the infamous Auschwitz-Birkenau, victims were gassed, their bodies plundered for hidden loot, and their remains cremated
 - Numerous victims, especially Jews, Roma, and Soviet prisoners of war, were used for medical and scientific experiments to the point of mutilation and death
- In the end, the final solution killed approximately 6 million Jews
- Another 5 to 6 million non-Jewish victims—including an estimate 200,000 to 1.5 million Roma—perished as a result of nonmilitary killings carried out by the Germans
- The Allies organized the Nuremberg Trials (1945-1946) to punish these atrocities
 - Nazi leaders were prosecuted
 - Concept of crimes against humanity was codified
- A series of Tokyo Trials followed in the years 1946-1948
- In 1948, in a collective effort to avoid such barbarities in the future, the United Nations adopted the Universal Declaration of Human rights

Governance (1945 to the Present)

- After WW2, most of the world was divided by the Cold War into hostile camps led by the United States and the USSR
- Geopolitical struggle resulted in a nuclear arms race and the creation of massive military-industrial complexes
- During the Cold War, a massive wave of decolonization deprived the European nations of their empires
- Dozens of new nations were formed in Asia, Africa, and the Pacific
- During the late 1980s and 1990s, communism in Eastern Europe and the USSR collapsed, ending the Cold War, and a number of other dictatorships democratized as well
- United States was left as the world superpower, with China—which remained communist—as a rising power
- The al-Qaeda terrorist attack of September 11, 2001, began the U.S.-led war on terror, which sparked wars in Iraq and Afghanistan

Cold War and Decolonization: Foreign Policy Shifts, 1945-1991

- During the final years of World War II, the “Big Three” among the Allies—Britain, America, and the USSR—settled key questions about postwar peace
 - Decided how to occupy German- and Japanese-held territories
 - Supported the creation of the United Nations, which designed to be stronger and more durable than the defunct League of Nations
- The United Nations has greater powers of enforcement compared to the League of Nations
 - It has a wide variety of sanctions and the ability to call up peacekeeping forces and to intervene in crises and conflicts
 - The 15-member Security Council, not the larger and more unwieldy General Assembly (which includes all members) theoretically provides streamlined leadership
 - However, five permanent members of the Security Council—the United States, Russia, China, Britain, and France—possess automatic veto power, sometimes blocking effective action
 - Famous branches of the United Nations include UNICEF (children’s relief), the World Health Organization, and UNESCO (cultural preservation)
- Also during the postwar era but separate from the UN, a variety of nongovernmental organizations and humanitarian groups have arisen to promote important causes or carry out relief efforts outside the nation-state framework

- Famous examples include the Red Cross and Doctors without Borders (medical relief), Greenpeace (environmental activism), and Amnesty International (human rights)
- Disagreements quickly arose between the Soviets and the Anglo-Americans over a host of issues
 - Anglo-Americans were against Stalin's intention—made clear at the Yalta Conference in early 1945—to transform Eastern Europe into a Soviet sphere of influence
 - Soviets refused to take part in the Bretton Woods system created to facilitate free trade after the war
- Occupation zones were divided between the West and the USSR
 - Allies divided Germany and Austria into occupation zones, with the Soviets in charge of the east
 - The capitals, Berlin and Vienna, were similarly divided, although this was complicated by the fact that Berlin lay within Soviet zone
 - Austria's occupation ended in 1955, but Germany remained divided until 1990
 - In Asia, the Korean peninsula was likewise split into a communist northern zone and a pro-Western southern one

The Early Cold War, 1945-1949

- From 1945 to 1991, the Cold War divided the world into hostile camps led by the United States and the USSR
 - Postwar decolonization in the Third World resulted in new nations that found themselves compelled to ally with one superpower or another
 - Some attempted to preserve neutrality by forming a nonaligned movement
- The Cold War led to the largest arms race in history
 - Formation of nuclear arsenals
 - U.S. and USSR never went to war with each other, but an estimated 50 million people died in the dozens of smaller conflicts that were fought worldwide
- The first stage of the Cold War lasted from 1945 to 1949 and mainly involved the division of Europe by the USSR
 - Winston Churchill referred to it in 1946 as the "Iron Curtain"
 - There was the descent of Soviet power over Poland, Czechoslovakia, Hungary, Romania, Bulgaria, Albania (until 1961), and the eastern half of Germany
 - Yugoslavia became communist as well, but its stubbornly independent leader, Josip Broz Tito, broke with the Soviets in 1948
 - The Soviet bloc also appeared poised to expand into Iran, Turkey, and Greece, which would have brought the USSR closer to the oil fields of the Middle East and the vital waterways of the eastern Mediterranean
- The U.S. responded with containment
 - It was devised by diplomat George Kennan, who predicted that the USSR would expand as far as it could, as long as it did not have to fight—therefore it could be halted not by combat but by "firm and vigilant" support for countries targeted by the Soviets
 - In 1947, the United States committed politically to containment with the Truman Doctrine and economically with the Marshall Plan
 - The Truman Doctrine pledged assistance to Greece and Turkey—and more generally to "any and all countries whose political stability is threatened by communism"
 - The Marshall Plan pumped over \$13 billion of aid and investment into a Europe in dire need of reconstruction
 - Containment's first major test came during the Berlin Blockade of 1948
 - Soviets suddenly cut off highway and rail traffic between West Berlin and the western half of Germany
 - It was easy for the Soviets to stop road transport without providing violence
 - When the United States began to fly airplanes through Soviet-controlled airspace to West Berlin, Stalin faced a choice: allow the flights to continue or shoot the airplanes down and state an actual war
 - Soviets backed down, seeming to validate the containment strategy
 - In 1949, the United States committed militarily to the Cold War by forming the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO)
 - It was a strategic alliance that bound America to Canada, Britain, and nine other European states
 - Membership steadily grew over time

- Soviets created their own military bloc, the Warsaw Pact, to oppose NATO

The Cold War Globalizes, 1949-1968

- During the next stage of the Cold War, which lasted from 1949 to 1968, Europe ceased to be the conflict's only—or even primary—battleground
 - Cold War quickly globalized
 - Process of postwar decolonization and national liberation was under way
 - Much geopolitical focus shifted away from Europe and outward to Asia and Africa
- The watershed year of 1949 witnessed the first Soviet atomic bomb test and communist victory in China
 - The first Soviet atomic bomb test erased America's edge in military technology
 - Communist victory in China brought Mao Zedong to power as a new ally—for the first time—of the USSR
 - China's Nationalist regime fled to Taiwan, which remains noncommunist, although the communist People's Republic of China (PRC) claims Taiwan as its own
- In the Korean War (1950-1953), the communist northern half of Korea attempted to conquer the southern half
 - The northern half of Korea was encouraged by Mao and supported in a more limited way by Stalin
 - The southern half was defended by a UN army led by the U.S.,
 - This was containment once again but for potentially higher stakes than in Berlin
 - Despite fears that the Korean War might spark a larger superpower conflict, the fighting was confined to the peninsula
 - It caused more than a million deaths, and the country was left divided exactly where it had been before
- This increasing global dimension made the Cold War more complex and stretched U.S. containment to new limits during the 1950s and the 1960s
 - Most Third World nations and national-liberation movements were open to superpower influence
 - Diplomatic struggles between the Soviets and the United States often led to proxy wars
 - America came to choose its Third World allies based principally on how anticommunist they were (not how democratic), so it thus supported many authoritarian regimes
 - Among the dictators whose anticommunism earned them U.S. support were Francisco Franco in Spain, Fulgencio Batista in Cuba (overthrown in 1959), Ferdinand Marcos in the Philippines, Augusto Pinochet in Chile, Joseph Mobutu in the Congo, and the Shah of Iran (ousted in 1979)
- The Cuban Revolution (1959) heightened tensions by placing a communist state and Soviet ally less than 100 miles off the U.S. coast
- The Vietnam wars (1945-1975) ended with a communist victory
 - It began with the liberation of Indochina from French colonization and continued with the division of Vietnam
 - After France's defeat in 1954, America, prompted by domino-principle logic, attempted to prop up the unpopular southern government against invasion by the communist north
 - U.S. effort took a sharp turn for the worse in 1968 and ended with withdrawal in 1973, opening the way for communist victory in 1975
- The battle between the U.S. and the USSR heated and cooled during the 1950s and 1960s
- Stalin died in 1953 and his replacement by the less hard-line Nikita Khrushchev appeared to create the potential for better relations
 - During the Suez Crisis of 1956, when Britain, France, and Israel reacted to Egypt's nationalization of the Suez Canal with a military invasion, the Americans—seeking to avert a wider Middle Eastern war—cooperated with the Soviets against their own allies, forcing them to withdrawal from Egypt
- Even so, the USSR (and Khrushchev) quickly showed the limits of his goodwill
 - In 1956, when Hungary attempted to reform its communist regime and restore ties with the West, the USSR intervened, sparking a Hungarian uprising that Khrushchev brutally suppressed
 - Encouraged by the Cuban Revolution of 1959 and angered by the flight of American U-2 spy planes over the USSR, Khrushchev pursued an aggressive and unpredictable foreign policy in East Germany and Cuba
 - Soviets built the Berlin Wall, the most tangible embodiment of the Iron Curtain, in 1961
 - In 1962, Khrushchev attempted to install nuclear missiles in Cuba which led to the Cuban Missile Crisis in October

- U.S. President John Kennedy successfully countered Khrushchev's move with a naval blockade of Cuba
- Closest that the two superpowers would come to nuclear war
- Played a key role in the forced retirement of Khrushchev in 1964 and his replacement by the more authoritarian but less erratic Leonid Brezhnev
- In 1968, Brezhnev reaffirmed the Soviet sphere of influence in Europe by sending Warsaw Pact troops in Czechoslovakia to put down the pro-reform "Prague Spring" movement
 - Justified invasion by asserting the USSR's right to "protect communism" in Eastern Europe, a stance known as the Brezhnev Doctrine
 - Proxy struggles in the Third World continued, and the U.S. involvement in Vietnam escalated
- Diplomacy grew even more complicated with the Sino-Soviet split
 - It began in the 1960s and continued until the collapse of the USSR
 - The United States began to exploit this split in the 1970s
- By the end of the 1960s, the superpowers were deeply enmeshed in their nuclear arms race
 - United States had maintained a sizable edge through the 1950s, but the Soviets achieved strategic parity by the mid-1960s
 - Each had roughly the same quantity of weapons
 - Each had developed the nuclear triad (ability to drop nuclear bombs from airplanes, launch nuclear warheads on intercontinental ballistic missiles (ICBMs), fire nuclear missiles from submarines)
 - Nuclear weapons made traditional military thinking obsolete: too destructive to contemplate deploying except under extreme circumstances, they became most useful for their deterrence value
 - Mutually assured destruction (MAD) was the logic that as long as each side remained convinced that rash action would destroy it as well as its enemy, both sides would avoid doing anything that might trigger a serious crisis
- The economic costs of the arms race were enormous
 - President Dwight Eisenhower warned of the permanent domination of the U.S. economy by a military-industrial complex
 - Khrushchev complained about weapons as "metal-eaters" devouring resources that could be put to better use
- By the 1960s and 1970s, a vigorous antinuclear movement had formed in Europe and North America to protest the expense of nuclear weapons, the inherent dangers they posed, and the environmental and human damage caused by nuclear-weapons testing
 - Major antinuclear actors include the Committee for Nuclear Disarmament (CND) and Greenpeace (founded as a result of antinuclear activism)
 - The Bulletin of the Atomic Scientists, while strictly antinuclear, has striven since 1945 to educate the public about dangers like nuclear weapons; every issue features a "doomsday clock" to show how close to "midnight" (global destruction) the world is at any given point
- Other countries developed atomic weapons as well
 - With U.S. assistance, Britain and France built small nuclear arsenals during the 1960s
 - China developed its own in 1964
 - Israel secretly gained nuclear weapons during the Cold War
 - South Africa briefly had them but voluntarily decommissioned them
- Because rocket technology was so tightly connected with the manufacture of nuclear missiles, the superpower arms race was closely paralleled by the space race, associated with hyperpatriotic pride and military rivalry
 - The USSR put the first human-made object into space (1957) and launched the first successful human space flight (1961)
 - United States accomplished the first moon landing in 1969

The Late Stages of the Cold War, 1969-1991

- The late stages of the Cold War encompassed the 1970s and the 1980s, with the final collapse of the Eastern European and Soviet communism occurring between 1989 and 1991
- Between 1969 and 1979, the conflict entered a more peaceful phase known as détente (French for "relaxation")

- USSR was motivated by fears that the U.S. would befriend China, which President Richard Nixon visited in 1972, deliberately exploiting the Sino-Soviet split
- U.S. was wearied by the Vietnam conflict and weakened by the global recession of the 1970s
- Both were superpowers were eager to scale back hostilities
 - Cooperated in enforcing the Nuclear Nonproliferation Treaty (1968-1969)
 - Signed substantial arms-control agreements, such as the Strategic Arms Limitations Treaty (1972)
 - Joined forces in space during the joint Apollo-Soyuz mission of 1975
- Animosity resumed in 1972
 - Soviet invasion of Afghanistan, whose purpose was to safeguard against Islamic fundamentalism, seemed to threaten the oil supplies of the Middle East, damaging Soviet relations with the West
 - Another point of tension was the Sandinista revolution in Nicaragua (1979), which the Soviets supported
 - Soviet distress at the growing unrest in Eastern Europe—especially the 1980 emergence of the dissident trade union Solidarity in Poland—made the USSR more edgy
 - Election of leaders like Margaret Thatcher in Britain (1979) and Ronald Reagan in the United States (1980) swung NATO foreign policy to the right
 - Between 1979 and 1985, the arms race accelerated and Third World brushfire wars worsened
 - Both superpowers expressed mutual contempt by boycotting each other’s Olympic games (Moscow in 1980, Los Angeles in 1984)
 - Because of the 1980s was faster, more accurate, and more powerful than before, the danger of civilization-destroying nuclear exchange became greater than at any time since the Cuban Missile Crisis
- The Cold War pendulum started swinging the other way in 1985 with the accession of Mikhail Gorbachev as leader of the USSR
 - He was a liberal reformer and was unwilling to prop up Eastern Europe’s communist regimes by force
 - He realized that the inefficient Soviet system could no longer afford to keep up with the arms race or continue fighting in Afghanistan, which had turned into a Vietnam-like quagmire for the Red Army
 - In 1987, Gorbachev resumed arms talks with the United States
 - His regime allowed Solidarity and other anti-Soviet movements to arise in Eastern Europe, joking that the USSR was replacing the Brezhnev Doctrine with the Sinatra Doctrine, letting Eastern Europeans do things “their way”
- The climactic year was 1989, with the USSR falling shortly afterward in 1991
 - In the summer, Poland held free elections for the first time since before World War II, which gave victory to noncommunist candidates backed up by Solidarity
 - Other communist regimes collapsed as well, culminating in the fall of the Berlin Wall that November and the reunification of Germany in 1990
 - It also hastened the end of the USSR—with Gorbachev’s economic reforms rapidly failing and with anti-Soviet nationalism surging among the USSR’s non-Russian ethnic minorities, the Soviet Union itself collapsed in late 1991

Decolonization: General Patterns

- Between the 1940s and the 1970s, dozens of new nations that attained freedom from their imperial masters came into being
- Whether a newly liberated nation succeeded in building a healthy political and socioeconomic system depended largely on the answers to the following questions
 - Did it have to fight a war to become free, or did it separate peacefully?
 - Had the colonizing power educated a native elite (trained civil servants, professionals)? Did the colonizing power assist actively with the transition to freedom, or did it leave the new country on its own?
 - Did serious ethnic, cultural, or religious divisions exist?
 - In some places, the colonizing power had kept such tensions under control, and decolonization sometimes released them, leading to violence
 - Did a country have natural resources to exploit, and did the new government exploit them efficiently and fairly?
 - Many new regimes failed to diversify their economies

- Others proved corrupt, hoarding profits for the elites and leaving a large division between rich and poor
- Did the newly liberated country take sides in the Cold War?
 - Befriending a superpower could attract technological and economic assistance
 - It could also involve a new country in a Cold War proxy fight
 - It might also lead to superpower intervention in a country's policy making or the propping of an authoritarian or unpopular leader
- In 1955, the Bandung Conference, hosted by Indonesia, brought together 29 nations—most of them recently decolonized
 - Those nations were interested in staying neutral during the Cold War and opposing any imperialism or neocolonialism of any kind
 - The conference helped give birth in 1961 to the Nonaligned Movement (NAM)
 - Major players that supported NAM included Gamal Nasser of Egypt, President Sukarno of Indonesia, India's Jawaharlal Nehru, and Kwame Nkrumah of Ghana
 - NAM eventually came to include 120 states, although formal cooperation among them was not extensive
 - Many members eventually aligned with one superpower or another anyway

Divergent Forms of Domestic Development, 1945-1991

Europe

- Postwar Europe was in a paradoxical situation
 - World War II and global decolonization had ended its global dominance and the U.S. and USSR divided Europe into a Cold War battleground
 - However, once it repaid its wartime damage, it came to enjoy unprecedented levels of prosperity and modernization—even in the east and especially in the west

Post-World War II Eastern Europe

- The sovietization of Eastern Europe followed quickly after World War II
 - Industrialization and nationalization of the economy
 - Collectivization of agriculture
 - Installation of secret police forces and prison camps
- Both Eastern Europe and the USSR recovered from the war surprisingly quickly
 - The region enjoyed substantial economic growth between the early 1950s and the early 1970s
 - Social welfare systems provided education, medical care, pensions, and other basic services to all civilians
 - However, Eastern European production was characterized by poor quality, and consumer goods were constantly in short supply because of the priority given to the Cold War arms race
 - The environmental damage caused by half a century of careless industrialization has proven nothing short of catastrophic, with the Chernobyl disaster of 1986 the most famous of countless examples
- Politically, Soviet-style communism was maintained by repression
 - Even though Soviet leader Nikita Khrushchev began de-Stalinization with his "secret speech" of 1956 (which criticized Stalin's purges), reforms were sporadic and limited
 - Khrushchev's more dictatorial replacement, Leonid Brezhnev, scaled back the reforms
 - The price of going beyond what the USSR was willing to allow was demonstrated by Soviet invasions during the Hungarian uprising of 1956 and the 1968 "Prague Spring" in Czechoslovakia
 - In the 1970s, as Western Europe suffered through its own economic crisis, the Soviet bloc entered an economic and administrative decline known as the Brezhnev stagnation
 - At the same time, dissident movements arose throughout the region but were kept firmly under control
 - Only in the 1980s would there be real change

Post-World War II Western Europe

- Recovery was more dramatic in Western Europe, thanks initially to the European Recovery Plan, better known as the Marshall Plan (1948)
 - The infusion of more than \$13 billion helped to rebuild the war-torn nations of Europe

- By reducing economic desperation, it made the spread of communism less likely
- Industrial growth and high-tech innovation proved phenomenal during the 1950s and the 1960s
- With this newfound prosperity, most Western European nations put into place social welfare systems or improved on the ones created during interwar years
 - The blending of capitalism and elements of socialism was frequently referred to as the “middle” or “third way”
 - At times, this involved nationalising sectors of the economy seen as crucial to public well-being—typically transport, communications, and utilities
- One way Western Europeans made up for their loss of global clout was economic union
 - It was a long process that began with the 1952 birth of the European Coal and Steel Community (Belgium, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, France, and West Germany)
 - It took firm shape in 1957 and 1958 when the same nations formed the European Economic Community (EEC), or Common Market, to eliminate tariffs and allow the freer movement of goods and services
 - Britain, Ireland, and Denmark joined the EEC in 1973, and Greece, Spain, and Portugal were admitted in the 1980s
 - By the mid-1990s, when the EEC reconstituted itself as the European Union (EU), it had 15 members and has even more now
- Although many members of the EEC also participated in the NATO alliance, not all developments were positive
 - Europe was caught in the crosshairs of the superpowers’ nuclear arms race
 - Decolonization was demoralizing, especially when countries fought unsuccessful wars in an attempt to keep their possessions
 - France in Indochina (1945-1954) and Algeria (1954-1962)
 - Generational change, combined with discontent over the Cold War and wars of decolonization, rendered many parts of Europe vulnerable to the global wave of 1968 protests
 - Paris riots by students and workers
 - Soviet bloc’s Prague Spring
 - Authoritarian rule persisted until after the mid-1970s in countries such as Portugal, Greece, Spain (where Francisco Franco, dictatorial victor of the Spanish Civil War, continued to rule)
 - Terrorism also became persistent in the 1960s and 1970s, sometimes as a form of left-wing extremism and sometimes as a strategy pursued by separatist movements
 - Left-wing extremists included Italy’s Red Brigades, who killed the prime minister in 1976
 - Separatist movements include the Basque ETA, fighting to be rid of Spanish rule, and the Irish Republican Army (IRA), a Catholic paramilitary faction trying to wrest mostly Protestant Northern Ireland from British rule and unite it with the Republic of Ireland
 - Thanks to the shock of the U.S. abandonment of the gold standard in 1971 and the OPEC oil embargo of 1973, Europe suffered the same global economic crisis of the 1970s that most of the developed world did, complete with stagflation
 - The soaring costs of Europe’s social welfare systems became harder to sustain
- To escape the malaise of the 1970s, many Western European nations moved economically and politically to the right in the 1980s
 - They elected conservatives like Margaret Thatcher in Britain and Helmut Kohl in West Germany
 - These leaders pursued free-market policies, retreated in part from the social welfare systems of the past, defied labor unions, and privatized many state-run sectors of the economy
 - This approach—paralleled by Ronald Reagan’s in the United States—led to a recovery of overall wealth by also caused social stress in the form of strikes and layoffs, as well as a long-turn upward redistribution of wealth from the middle class to the very rich

Collapse of the Soviet Union

- Meanwhile, in Eastern Europe, the 1980s saw communism’s general collapse
 - Brezhnev stagnation, the rising cost of the arms race, the general inefficiency of the system, and the increasingly active dissident movement all undermined stability in the Soviet bloc
 - There was also the USSR’s ill-fated invasion of Afghanistan (1979-1989)

- Unrest was especially apparent in Poland, where the trade union Solidarity, led by Lech Walesa, spearheaded a protest movement that united workers, intellectuals, and Catholic clergy
- Pope John Paul II, originally from Poland, did much to support anti-Soviet agitation in Eastern Europe
- Real change here was impossible until 1985 when Mikhail Gorbachev, a reform-minded politician, rose to power
 - He was keenly aware that the USSR could no longer pay for the Cold War arms race or its Eastern European sphere of influence
 - He launched a twin reform effort: perestroika and glasnost
 - Perestroika was “restructuring” the economic system and allowing limited capitalism, similar to what Deng Xiaoping was attempting in Communist China
 - Glasnost was “openness,” meaning greater freedom of opinion and the media
 - He ended the war in Afghanistan, entered into arms talks with the United States, and allowed freedom movements, especially Poland’s Solidarity, to reemerge in Eastern Europe
 - He permitted the fall of the Berlin Wall in late 1989, thus helping to end the Cold War
- Unfortunately for Gorbachev, his reforms failed in the USSR
 - Gorbachev did not pursue economic change aggressively enough
 - Glasnost allowed public discontent to undermine him when things went wrong
 - Anti-Soviet nationalism spiked among the USSR’s non-Russian ethnicities, who wanted the same freedoms that Eastern Europeans had just gained
 - By 1990 and 1991, Gorbachev found himself isolated between democratizers and communist hard-lines
- Almost overthrown by a failed coup attempt in the summer of 1991, Gorbachev agreed to the disbandment of the USSR that December
 - At the time, leaders of the former republics of the Soviet Union, with the exception of Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania, and Georgia, chose to form the Commonwealth of Independent States as a way to maintain ties and attempt a smooth transition from Soviet rule
 - Those republics include Russia, Belarus, Ukraine, Moldova, Armenia, Azerbaijan, Turkmenistan, Uzbekistan, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, and Tajikistan

Middle East

- There were many political developments in the Middle East
 - During the 1950s, Middle Eastern states that were not already free threw off the mandates and protectorates that Europe had established after World War I
 - Islamic North Africa decolonized as well
 - Turkey and Iran continued the programs of secularism and modernization they had begun during the interwar period
 - The new state of Israel, founded as a Jewish homeland in 1948, did the same and also democratized
- Regional developments as a whole were dominated by several factors
 - Middle East’s strategic and economic importance as the world’s key source of oil: the Organization of Petroleum Exporting Companies (OPEC), founded in 1960, consists largely of states from there
 - Islamic fundamentalism (including Saudi Wahhabism) hindered modernization and democratization, negatively affected the status of women, and increased tensions between Sunni and Shiite Muslims
 - Arab-Israeli conflict diplomatically divided the entire region and gave rise to persistent violence and terrorism
 - Domestically, Authoritarian rule and human rights abuses were prevalent

Egypt

- Independence and oil-based wealth made the states of the Middle East more assertive in the 1950s and 1960s, and led to new Arab nationalism
 - In Egypt, military officers overthrew the pro-British king in 1952, bringing Colonel Gamal Nasser to power in 1954
 - Nasser and certain other leaders promoted the ideology of pan-Arabism, the notion that Arab identity transcends national boundaries left over from Ottoman and European imperialism
 - Nasser tried to form a United Arab Republic with nations like Iraq and Syria, but except in the case of the United Arab Emirates, such schemes have already collapsed

- However, many states—currently more than twenty—have been joined since 1945 in the Arab league, an influential regional association
- Nasser was also an authoritarian modernizer, and defied the West by seizing control of foreign-owned industries
 - His boldest step came in 1956 with the nationalization of the Suez Canal
 - This prompted the Suez Crisis, in which British, French, and Israeli troops tried to retake the canal but were forced to withdraw by the United States and USSR—an embarrassing demonstration of how the Cold War had diminished European power
- The Middle East's geopolitical importance during the Cold War allowed them to bid for superpower patronage as the Soviets and Americans competed for their allegiance
 - Nasser temporarily strengthened ties with the USSR, whose advisers brought technology and weaponry to Egypt and assisted with the construction of the monumental Aswan High Dam
 - When the Soviets became too controlling, Nasser's successors expelled them after Nasser died in 1970
 - Those ruling after him, Anwar Sadat and Hosni Mubarak, drew closer to the United States and—first among Arab leaders—recognized Israel in 1978
 - Unfortunately, both men's concerns about rising Islamic fundamentalism persuaded them to continue Nasser's tradition of authoritarian rule

Israel

- Among the most dramatic developments in the postwar Middle East was the establishment of the state of Israel (1948) and the resulting Arab-Israeli conflict
 - The British, who took custody of Palestine after the collapse of Ottoman power, had announced their support for a Jewish homeland in the Balfour Declaration of 1917
 - Knowing, however, that keeping this promise would displace Palestinian Arabs and cause local unrest, the British held off actual implementation during the 1920s and 1930s
 - After World War II, the question could no longer be delayed due to international sympathy following the horrors of the Holocaust
 - In 1947, the United Nations took responsibility for the mandate and handed down terms for the partition of Palestine the following year
 - When the partition went into effect, many Palestinian Arabs refused to comply
 - With support from surrounding Arab states, they launched a war to drive the Israelis away (1948-1949)
 - Not only did this fail, but it scattered many Palestinians to Jordan, Lebanon, and elsewhere as long-term refugees
 - Military action on the part of Arab states repeatedly fell short, most notably during the Six-Day War in 1967 and the Yom Kippur War in 1973
 - Each time, Israel, with strong backing from the United States, defeated Arab forces and gained new territories beyond what the UN had granted in 1948
 - Some Palestinians turned to terrorism, especially after 1964 when Yasser Arafat founded the Palestinian Liberation Organization (PLO)
 - PLO attacks increased in frequency
 - The most famous attack was the assassination of Israeli athletes at the Munich Summer Olympics in 1972
 - Hope for peace blossomed with the Camp David accord of 1978
 - Anwar Sadat of Egypt, encouraged by U.S. President Jimmy Carter, agreed to recognize Israel in exchange for the return of the Sinai Peninsula, which Israel had seized in 1967
 - Other moderate Arab states followed Egypt's lead
 - However, throughout the 1980s, the Palestinian population of Israel staged a continuous uprising called the (First) Intifada
 - They were protesting discriminatory treatment that they likened to apartheid by with Israeli authorities regarded as self-defense
 - Intifada-related violence, stepped-up terrorism by the PLO, the Palestinian radical group Hamas, and the Shiite movement Hezbollah placed Israel in a difficult position

- Its democratic values have not always sat comfortably with harsh occupation policies and the force Israeli authorities have used against civilian agitators in the name of security
- The Oslo Accords of 1993 held out the promise of a two-state solution, but they foundered in 2000-2001, leading to a Second Intifada and continued strife

Iran

- The most powerful dictatorships in the Cold War Middle East were those of Iran and Iraq
- Since the 1920s, Iran had been ruled by the Pahlavi shahs
- The last shah, Mohammad Reza Pahlavi, governed from 1941 to 1979
 - Like his predecessors, he used oil wealth to industrialize the country
 - He opposed Islami fundamentalism, encouraging Western dress, Western education, the unveiling of women, and the eradication of Sharia law
 - A U.S. ally, the shah was also ruthlessly authoritarian, relying on torture and secret-police repression
 - Although he tried to package his modernization policy as a “White Revolution” in favor of ordinary people, the shah grew increasingly unpopular
 - In ill health by 1979, he left the country to seek medical treatment and died of cancer in 1980
- The Iranian Revolution began in the meantime
 - While it first moved in a secular, left-wing direction, control quickly passed to the fundamentalist Shiite cleric Ayatollah Khomeini, whom the shah had exiled years before
 - Khomeini transformed Iran into an anti-Western theocracy in which an elected government came to coexist with authoritarian clerics who held real power and decided ahead of time which candidates could run for office
 - The regime stormed the U.S. Embassy, leading to the Iran hostage crisis (1979-1981), which damaged American prestige and permanently soured U.S.-Iranian relations
 - It also became enmeshed in the Iran-Iraq War (1980-1988), which caused more than half a million total deaths and devastated both nations

Iraq

- Iraq’s ruler at this time was Saddam Hussein, whose Sunni Baath party came to power in 1979
 - Originally sponsored by the United States because of his opposition to Iran and the USSR, Hussein turned his brutality against his own people and his neighbors
 - During the Iran-Iraq war, he used poison gas, drafted teenagers for combat, and targeted civilians
 - He persecuted Iraq’s kurdish minority
 - In 1990, he also invaded the oil-rich state of Kuwait and appeared ready to move against Saudi Arabia
 - In the first major conflict of the post-Cold War era, the Gulf War (1991), a U.S.-led coalition launched Operation Desert Storm to push Hussein out of Kuwait
 - Between 1991 and Hussein’s overthrow in 2003, the international community strove to contain Iraq and prevent its development of weapons of mass destruction

Africa

- Decolonization began in Africa during the 1950s and 1960s
- Transitions to freedom varied widely, depending on whether the colonial power pulled out peacefully or had to be expelled by force and also on whether the new state was able to avoid ethnic violence

North Africa

- The Islamic states of North Africa became free during the 1950s: Egypt and Sudan from Britain, Libya from Italy, and Morocco and Tunisia from France
- The Algerian war of independence from France (1954-1962) proved agonizingly violent because the French regarded Algeria not merely as a colony but as part of the homeland
 - Both sides resorted to torture and violence against civilians, and total deaths exceeded 300,000
 - The anticolonial writer Frantz Fanon, who fought for Algerian independence, justified anti-French violence in his 1961 book *The Wretched of the Earth* on the grounds that Western imperialism had begun the cycle of violence and deserved to be opposed by force—his views resembled those of fellow Marxist Che

Guevara, a leader of Cuba's revolution, but contrast greatly with those of Gandhi and Martin Luther King Jr.

- North African states had several advantages over the sub-Saharan ones when it came to decolonization
 - They had existed earlier as meaningful political units, making the transition to nation-state status easier
 - They were more homogenous (though not completely so) in terms of religion, ethnicity, and language
 - Their colonizing powers also left behind useful industrial, economic, and infrastructural assets

West Africa

- In other parts of Africa, Britain and France presided over relatively smooth transitions to freedom, training native elites and working to minimize the possibility of interethnic conflict
 - French Equatorial Africa and French West Africa—where France had been courting black subjects by gradually expanding their right to vote—separated gradually and without strife between 1945 and 1960, each splitting into smaller states (Mali, Niger, Senegal)
 - The Gold Coast's negotiation of freedom from Britain in 1957 and its transformation into the state of Ghana was a key success story
 - As Gamal Nasser subscribed to pan-Arabism, Ghana's leader Kwame Nkrumah held out hope for a peaceful and prosperous continent united by pan-Africanism

Violence During and After Decolonization

- All too many decolonization efforts were plagued by violence
 - Although Jomo Kenyatta pursued nonviolence on the path to Kenyan independence from Britain in 1963, the radical Mau Mau movement killed almost 2,000 people there during the 1950s
 - Angola and Mozambique fought bitter wars of independence from Portugal—a notoriously exploitative imperial master—and both of these struggles (1961-1975 and 1969-1975) gave way to lengthy civil wars between communist and noncommunist forces
 - In Angola, the U.S.-backed UNITA movement raised \$3.5 billion for its war effort by selling diamonds, prompting the first outcries against the global trade in “blood diamonds” (also called “conflict diamonds”)
 - Diamonds extracted under slavelike conditions in Liberia and Sierra Leone caused further distress in the 1990s and 2000s
- Violence or the potential for violence also arose between ethnic groups after the colonists withdrew (much as Indians and Pakistanis did when Britain left India in 1947)
 - By the time Belgium pulled out of Rwanda in 1962, its divide-and-conquer tactics had artificially exacerbated hatred between the two tribes, the Hutu and Tutsi, and the potential for bloodshed between them simmered
 - Muslims and Arabs in North Africa suppressed minorities like the desert Berbers and the Darfurians of southern Sudan
 - When Belgium freed the Congo, postindependence violence was so pervasive from 1960 to 1964 that the United Nations had to intervene
 - The democratically elected prime minister, Patrice Lumumba, was executed by rebels in 1961—most likely on orders from the Belgian and U.S. governments, which feared his Marxist sympathies
 - America adopted his dictatorial successor, Joseph Mobutu, as an ally

South Africa

- White-black tensions persisted longest in South Africa
 - Although it was the most prosperous, most industrialized, and most technologically advanced country in Africa—and one of the world's richest sources of gold and diamonds—South Africa was also the continent's most deeply racist
 - In 1948, as an autonomous dominion within the British Commonwealth, South Africa adopted its notorious apartheid policy, segregating blacks and “coloureds” (other nonwhites, including a sizable Indian minority) and depriving them of the vote

- A broad antiapartheid movement—including the Zulu Confederation, the African National Congress (ANC), and other groups—arose in the 1950s and called for an end to discrimination in the 1955 Freedom Charter
- The killing of almost seventy unarmed protesters during the Sharpeville massacre of 1960 further galvanized the movements, and ANC president Albert Luthuli won the Nobel Peace Prize that year
- However, the South African government struck back with a series of treason trials, imprisoning leaders like the ANC's Nelson Mandela, who remained in jail between 1964 and 1990
- In 1961, South African whites voted to withdraw from the British Commonwealth and proclaimed the Republic of South Africa, largely in response to British criticism of their racial policies
- Resistance continued, although the ANC and other groups were divided by debates about whether to embrace radicalism and armed struggle or to pursue less violent means
- Major figures included Mandela's spouse Winnie and the Anglican bishop Desmond Tutu (another Nobel Prize recipient)
- Finally, during the 1980s, internal unrest, combined with world-wide revulsion and the threat of economic sanctions and divestment, convinced the white government that apartheid could not be maintained
- Nelson Mandela was released in 1990, and the government prepared for free election—which, in 1994, resulted in ANC victory and Mandela's election as president

Key Problems in Africa

- Few nations managed to build democratic regimes, open societies, and equitably prosperous economies as several key problems hampered modernization efforts in much of Africa
 - Dictatorship and corruption
 - Much of Africa's government degenerated into strongman regimes
 - Among the most notorious were those of Joseph Mobutu in Congo/Zaire (1965-1997) and Idi Amin, who ruled Uganda from 1971 to 1979 and killed 300,000 people, many from rival tribes
 - Political elites often milked profits from natural resources like gold, diamonds, and oil rather than use them for the betterment of the country
 - Bribery, nepotism, and tribal favoritism ran rampant
 - Lack of cultural and ethnolinguistic unity
 - Most of Africa's boundary lines were drawn by European colonizers with no regard for tribal or ethnic territorial claims
 - That left most new states with a confusing variety of cultures, languages, and religions, which made governance difficult even if groups were not hostile toward each other
 - Ethnic violence and constant armed conflict
 - Warfare in Africa was near-constant during these years, although most conflicts were fought within national boundaries, not between different countries—a testament to the prevalence of ethnic violence
 - Sometimes the Cold War restrained such violence in places where a strongman supported by one of the superpowers kept order
 - In other cases, African nations—or rival factions within nations—became pawns in the global chess game between the United States and the USSR
 - By the end of the Cold War, Africa was awash in the uncontrolled flow of light weapons, and the horrific practice of conscripting child soldiers was well underway
 - Health-related crises
 - From the 1980s onward, the HIV/AIDS virus, which originated in Africa, killed millions
 - Funding for treatment is perennially low, and unprotected sex has caused the virus to spread among both heterosexuals and homosexuals
 - Older diseases like malaria and sleeping sickness are still widespread
 - Population growth has outstripped economic growth and agricultural production, and famines remain common—among the worse were those in Somalia and Ethiopia during the 1980s

East Asia

Japan

- The United States occupied Japan during the 1940s
 - While the U.S. demilitarized and democratized Japan, the emperor kept his palace on the throne as a symbolic figurehead
 - Viewing Japan as an anchor of its Cold War policy in Asia, America invested in it heavily and maintained a large military presence on the island of Okinawa
- Much like West Germany in Europe, Japan was forced by defeat in World War II to rebuild completely, and therefore its emergence as an economic powerhouse was a surprise
 - Japan's moderately conservative Liberal Democratic Party (LDP) promoted economic growth by fostering a culture of hard work and selfless discipline
 - Zaibatsu corporations still played a significant role in Japan
 - At its peak during the 1980s, Japan's economy—the "tiger" of Asia—was the third most productive, and its social welfare and educational systems were top-notch
 - Economic downturn after the early 1990s broke the LDP's near-monopoly on power, but even in a weakened state, Japan remains economically important in the post-Cold War era

Little Tigers

- Joining Japan in prosperity were the "little tigers" of Taiwan (home to Chiang Kai-shek's Nationalist regime) and South Korea
 - Both developed high-tech, productive economies but remained mildly authoritarian until Chiang's death in 1975 and South Korea's liberalization in the 1980s
 - Both were staunch anticommunist allies of the United States, even after the U.S. government established diplomatic ties with Communist China
- Other little tigers included Hong Kong (a British colony until its return to mainland China in 1997) and Singapore

China

- The People's Republic of China (PRC), established in 1949 by Mao Zedong, has been the most populous communist nation on earth for more than half a century
 - Appealing to China's vast peasant populace instead of relying solely on proletarian support, Mao defeated Chiang Kai-shek after World War II
 - Chiang Kai-shek's Nationalist government was driven to Taiwan, which still remains politically separate from the mainland
 - China was ruled by Mao until his death in 1976
- At the start, Mao seemed satisfied with pragmatic social and economic reforms
 - His New Democracy of the early 1950s was greeted with enthusiasm, as were his initial land reforms
 - His first Five-Year Plan (1953-1958), which imitated the Soviet model, led to industrial growth
 - Collectivization of agriculture began in 1955 but was (at first) carried out more gradually than in Stalin's USSR
- On the other hand, Mao's radical transformation of society, which included the persecution of dissenters and so-called class enemies (members of the bourgeoisie or aristocracy), was harsh
- In 1958, Mao's Great Leap Forward industrialized on a more grandiose scale than the Five-Year Plan
 - It intensified the collectivization of agriculture, calling for an unrealistic increase in food production
 - Stress and confusion led to chaos, industrial breakdown, and agricultural collapse
 - The resulting famine killed millions in 1959 and 1960 (the best estimate is 15-20 million)
 - Mao halted the Great Leap Forward in 1960
- In 1966, Mao embarked on another radical program: the Great Proletarian Cultural Revolution, which lasted until 1976
 - It is generally interpreted as a way for Mao and his wife, Jiang Qing, to strike at their political enemies
 - The Cultural Revolution sought to instill absolute revolutionary purity within Chinese culture
 - Censorship was crushingly heavy
 - Young communist activists, known as Red Guards, rampaged through the country, denouncing anyone—professors, managers, artists—they considered untrue to revolutionary ideals
 - Victims were demoted, often sent to labor camps for "reeducation," and sometimes executed

- Even members of the communist elite were not immune; among those arrested was Mao's future successor, Deng Xiaoping
- The Cultural Revolution ended with Mao's death in 1976
- In 1978, Deng Xiaoping, having defeated Mao's widow and her radical allies (the "Gang of Four"), rose to power
 - He was a modernizer like Mao but also a pragmatist more concerned with China's well-being than abstract Marxist ideals
 - He expressed this view by commenting that it makes no difference whether a cat is black or white as long as it catches mice
- Deng's economic reforms contrasts with Mao's strict anticapitalism; it is more like Gorbachev's perestroika program in the USSR but faster and more permissive
 - Deng returned a measure of collectivised land to the farmers and allowed limited capitalism
 - He allowed certain levels of private trade and created special economic zones where communist regulations did not apply
 - As a result, China experienced huge economic growth through the 1980s, including rising wages and an improved standard of living—this trend has continued since
- With greater prosperity came the desire for greater freedom, which Deng did not allow
 - Unlike his fellow reformer Gorbachev, whose glasnost policy allowed more democracy in the USSR, Deng maintained authoritarian control
 - In May 1989, Chinese students gathered at Tiananmen Square in Beijing and demanded political freedoms to match their newfound economic ones
 - Deng refused to grant any concessions
 - When students disobeyed orders to disperse, he crushed the demonstrations by sending in tanks
 - To this day, China's communist authorities have pursued this same combination of political structure and economic liberalization

South and Southeast Asia

- Decolonization was sometimes negotiated peacefully
 - The Philippines was promised independence by the United States during World War II and received it in 1946
 - Britain let go for its colonies in the region: India (1947), Burma/Myanmar (1948), Malaysia (1957), and Singapore (1965)
- Other cases, decolonization was achieved by means of armed struggle
 - The Dutch East Indies became Indonesia
 - Indochina became Vietnam, Laos, and Cambodia

Indian and Pakistan

- The 1947 independence for India and Pakistan from Britain also proceeded peacefully
 - During World War II, national-liberationist pressures from the Indian National Congress (the party of Mohandas Gandhi and Jawaharlal Nehru) and the All-India Muslim League (led by Muhammed Ali Jinnah) made it obvious that Britain could no longer hold onto India
 - Riots and violent clashes between Muslims and Hindus sped up the British timetable for withdrawal
 - Independence was granted in 1947
- Bloodshed quickly followed in the form of Hindu-Muslim conflicts over the terms of the Indo-Pakistani partition
 - At least a million lives were taken over the next months
 - Numerous refugees were created
 - Assassination of Gandhi in 1948—ironically, by a Hindu extremist who opposed his rhetoric of toleration between the two faiths
 - Both nations survived
- Under Jinnah and his successors, Pakistan became a modern Islamic republic and a major regional power
 - It became mired in corruption and military authoritarianism during the Cold War
 - It spent decades locked in a costly and dangerous rivalry with India
 - Occasional border wars have broken out over the Kashmir frontier zone
 - The development of nuclear weapons by both countries has made this conflict even tenser

- Unlike India, Pakistan decisively chose sides during the Cold War, pursuing alliance with the United States
- India transformed itself into the world's largest democracy
 - India modernized socially
 - Women received the vote after India's independence
 - India's 1949 constitution outlawed discrimination by caste
 - The constitution's policy of "reservation" allowed for the "special advancement" of castes and ethnic groups that had traditionally received poor treatment
 - However, informal prejudice against groups such as the Dalits (former "untouchables") still persists
 - It also suffered administrative inefficiency, had great difficulty in balancing economic growth with population growth, and interethnic and interfaith strife
 - Even after partition by Pakistan, one-sixth of India's population remained Muslim; other minorities include Sikhs, Parsees, and Buddhists
- The dominant political force in India was the Congress Party, led by Jawaharlal Nehru, who served as India's prime minister from 1947 until his death in 1964
 - Unlike Gandhi, who had favored traditional values and economic simplicity, Nehru worked hard to secularize and industrialize India
 - Diplomatically, he negotiated a tightrope: India was neighbor to a hostile China and an even more hostile Pakistan, but Nehru did not wish to be a client of the Soviets, the British, or the Americans
 - Nehru stayed on friendly terms with the USSR without falling into the Soviet camp, and was the leading figure in the Nonaligned Movement
- From 1966 to 1977 and again from 1980 to 1984, Nehru's daughter, Indira Gandhi, was prime minister of India
 - She continued her father's policies of modernization and diplomatic nonalignment but also ruled high-handedly, suspending the constitution during the "Emergency" of 1975-1977
 - Her actions against the Sikh minority of Punjab provoked her Sikh bodyguards to assassinate her
 - From 1984 to 1991, her son, Rajiv Gandhi, succeeded her; he was killed by Sri Lankan separatists

Indonesia

- In the Dutch East Indies, the charismatic Sukarno began a war of nationalist liberation in 1945 and, with the Dutch gone, founded the new nation of Indonesia
 - Although 80% Muslim—giving it the world's largest Islamic population—Indonesia is a sprawling archipelago consisting of 18,000 islands, and its ethnic and linguistic diversity makes it challenging to govern
 - Sukarno governed democratically at first but grew more authoritarian
 - He helped established the Nonaligned Movement by hosting the Bandung Conference of 1955, and went much further than Nehru in India or Nasser in Egypt in calling for the Third World to defy the West
 - He drew closer to the Indonesia Communist Party until 1965 when the army, allied with conservative Muslims, staged a coup against him that killed as many as half a million people—mainly communists—and forced his resignation in 1967
 - From 1967 until 1998, Indonesia was governed by the military stronghold Suharto, an anticommunist dictator who promoted economic growth and alliance with the United States but frequently abused human rights

Indochina

- Having lost Indochina to the Japanese in World War II, the French (with U.S. support) tried until 1954 to keep Indochina
 - The national-liberation war led by the Vietnamese communist Ho Chi Minh foiled them
 - Vietnamese expertise in guerrilla warfare defeated the French
 - Ho Chi Minh's policies which included land reform and appeals to anti-French nationalism, were relatively popular
- Laos and Cambodia went free in 1953

- In Cambodia during the 1970s, the ultraradical Khmer Rouge, under Pol Pot, combined Marxism with an ideology of racial superiority and a bizarre notion that “corrupt” city dwellers should be relocated to the countryside
- Before Pol Pot was driven from power in 1970, famine and genocide killed approximately 2 million Cambodians
- Violence proved most devastating in Vietnam
 - Vietnam was temporarily divided into a northern communist zone and a southern noncommunist zone
 - Vietnam’s two halves were to be united under a single government chosen by free election as soon as possible
 - Ngo Dinh Diem—the French-educated, Catholic, U.S.-backed leader of South Vietnam—kept delaying the election, hearing that the Buddhist anti-French peasant masses would vote against him
 - Tensions rose steadily, with war breaking out by 1959
 - Throughout the 1960s, the United States, following the Cold War domino principle, stepped up its military support for South Vietnam, paying insufficient attention to the unpopularity of the regime
 - A clear sign of opposition to Diem came when the Buddhist monk Tich Quang Duc committed suicide by self-immolation, burning himself to death publicly in the capital
 - By the end of the decade, antiwar opposition was mounting in the United States and elsewhere, playing a significant role in the global wave of 1968 protests
 - In 1968, the communists caught the Americans and South Vietnamese badly off guard with their Tet Offensive, although U.S. forces withstood that blow
 - War weariness caused America to scale back its war effort and withdraw completely in 1973
 - Communist victory over the entirety of Vietnam followed in 1975
 - The severity of communist rule tempered somewhat during the 1980s
 - Doi moi (“renovation”) reforms of 1986 allowed for limited capitalism along the lines of Deng Xiaoping’s reforms in China

Association of Southeast Asian Nations

- The most important regional association was the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN)
 - It was founded in 1967 by Indonesia, Malaysia, Singapore, Thailand, and the Philippines
 - Its purpose was to boost economic and security competition
 - It has since taken in other members, including Vietnam

The Americas

- Terrorism played a role in North American politics
 - U.S. radicals like the Weather Underground resorted to violence in their opposition to the Vietnam War
 - In Canada, the separatist group FLQ carried out more than a hundred bombings between 1963 and 1970 in a failed attempt to detach Quebec from Canada
- Despite some temporary progress toward economic modernization and democratization in the late 1940s and early 1950s, many Latin American nations reverted to exploitative economies and dictatorial government from the late 1950s through the early 1980s
- Military governments and right-wing dictatorships predominated
 - Countries that had been ruled by a right-wing regime include Argentina, Chile, Guatemala, and Mexico
 - Because of their anticommunism, many were Cold War allies of the United States despite their human-rights abuses and their tendency to gear their economies for the benefit of the elite instead of tending to the needs of the population at large
 - Indigenous populations—Indians, Mayans, Amazon tribes—were often badly treated
- While Latin America’s right-wing dictators enforced their will in the countryside with secret police units and paramilitary forces known as death squads, left-wing insurgents engaged in guerrilla violence and terrorism
 - Countries that had been ruled by a leftist regime include Cuba
 - The Maoist Shining Path operated in Peru during the 1980s
 - The Leninist FARC was active in Colombia since 1964 and guilty of hostage taking and cocaine trafficking on a massive scale
- The Organization of American States (OAS) fostered economic diplomatic cooperation in the region

- It was founded in 1948 and headquartered in Washington
- Cynics saw it as a tool for enforcing the U.S. sphere of influence in the western hemisphere

Argentina

- Military rule was established in Argentina during World War II
- In 1946, the charismatic officer Juan Perón came to dominate the government
 - Perón appealed to the poor, and his wife, Eva Perón, enjoyed popularity among the lower class descamisados (“shirtless ones”)
 - His modernization program of the 1950s borrowed heavily from Mussolini’s brand of fascism and state capitalism
 - Perón fled to Spain after he was overthrown by his army in 1955; he returned in 1973 and served as president until his death in 1974
- A brutal military regime, the National Reorganization Process, ruled from 1976 to 1983
 - They ruthlessly purged leftists and dissidents in the “dirty war”
 - They caused the deaths of perhaps 30,000, including numerous desaparecidos, of “disappeared ones”: people who were secretly arrested and never seen again

Chile

- General Augusto Pinochet came to power in Chile
 - In 1973, Pinochet—backed by the CIA—led a coup against Salvador Allende, a Marxist who had been democratically elected in 1970
 - Pinochet arrested thousands of leftists and other opponents, torturing 30,000 and killing or “disappearing” over 3,000
 - Economically, he began a free-market reform on the advice of economists known as “Chicago boys” because of the influence exercised over them by Milton Friedman of the University of Chicago
 - Pinochet stepped down in favor of a democratically elected government in 1990
 - He left the country but was later arrested; he was on trial for human-rights abuses and corruption when he died in 2006

Guatemala

- In 1954, nearly a decade of democratically elected reformist rule came to an end with a CIA-supported coup that brought the general Carlos Castillo Armas to power
- A succession of military dictators followed until the mid-1990s, each of them suppressing leftist rebels and ethnic minorities with brute force
 - The regime perpetrated an anti-Mayan genocide in the 1980s in particular

Mexico

- Mexico maintained a nominally democratic system that ensured an unbroken string of electoral victories for the Institutional Revolutionary Party (PRI)
 - It was an example of a mild authoritarian oligarchy as opposed to extreme dictatorship
 - Oil-based wealth during the 1950s and most of the 1960s kept the economy healthy and the population reasonably satisfied
 - By the late 1960s and 1970s, general discontent of the regime increased because of several reasons
 - Economic downturn
 - Growing awareness of government corruption
 - Anger among the Indians and Mayans because of popular and official prejudice
 - Mexico City was hit hard by the global wave of 1968 protests
 - Emigration to the United States, both legal and illegal, accelerated in the 1970s and 1980s
 - The PRI regime gradually reformed during the 1980s and 1990s

Cuba

- In 1959, a guerilla force led by Fidel Castro ousted the dictator Fulgencio Batista during the Cuban Revolution

- Castro initially governed as a nonaligned modernizer who nationalised industry, carried out land reforms, and combated illiteracy and socioeconomic inequality
- Although the U.S. was also glad to see Batista gone, Castro regarded U.S. influence in Latin America as “Yankee imperialism”
- Prompted by his Marxist second-in-command, the Argentine intellectual Ernesto “Che” Guevara, Castro declared himself communist and turned to the USSR for assistance
 - Cuban troops supported communist movements throughout Latin America, increasing U.S. anxiety about any sort of leftist activism in the region
 - They also took active part in Cold War brushfire conflicts in Africa, including Angola’s civil war and the Ethiopian war against Somalia started by the pro-Soviet Mengistu Haile Mariam
 - Because of its proximity to the United States, Cuba’s pro-Soviet alignment made it a Cold War hot spot from 1961 onward
 - The Cuban Missile Crisis of 1962 was the closest that they had gotten to nuclear war
- Although Castro modernized and narrowed the gap between the rich and poor, his government became rigidly dictatorial, restricting civil liberties and committing human-rights abuses of their own

Nicaragua

- Adding to the Cold War tension was the Nicaraguan Revolution of 1979, when the Marxist Sandinista movement overthrew the Somoza clan that had ruled since the mid-1930s
 - Professing commitment to social democracy instead of dictatorship, the Sandinistas began with a program of land reform and wealth redistribution but were soon distracted by Cold War geopolitics
 - Nicaragua’s new friendliness with the USSR unnerved Ronald Reagan in the United States, who was already abandoning détente over the Soviet invasion of Afghanistan
 - Against the wishes of the U.S. government, Reagan’s administration attempted to destabilize the Sandinistas by illegally funding right-wing guerrillas known as the Contras
 - This bloody conflict persisted until the end of the Cold War

Latin American Democratization

- A wave of Latin American democratization occurred in the late 1980s and early 1990s due to economic improvements and the cooling down of the Cold War, which reduced superpower concerns about influence in the region
 - Pinochet gave up power in 1989-1990
 - Argentina moved from dictatorship to democracy between 1983 and 1989
 - Mexico’s PRI loosened its monopoly on power beginning with the national elections of 1988
 - Peace and democracy returned to Nicaragua in 1990
 - An anti-Sandinista candidate, Violeta Chamorro, was elected as the country’s first female president, although the Sandinistas have since returned to office via the ballot box
- However, there are still many concerns in Latin America
 - The Castro dictatorship retained power in Cuba and remains communist even after Castro’s death
 - The Sandinistas have not governed in a fully democratic manner since regaining power
 - Corruption, resurgent authoritarianism, and dependence on illegal drug trafficking have continued elsewhere

Globalism in the 1990s and 2000s

- The geopolitics of the post-Cold War era was far more complex than many had expected
 - In 1990, U.S. President George H. W. Bush proclaimed confidently that the collapse of the Cold War was bringing about a “new world order” based on the triumph of democratic capitalism
 - The end of the nuclear arms race significantly lowered the risk of mass annihilation, and new freedoms improved lives in many parts of the world
 - However, the superpower conflict had been predictable and had also kept in check various ethnic and religious tensions around the world

Cold Peace

- U.S. unilateralism as the world's remaining superpower has turned out to be limited, not just by its finite resource but also by the "cold peace" arising between it and former Cold War foes like Russia and China

Russia

- Although Russia has lost its superpower status, it has regained much of its strength since 2000
 - Russia was weakened during the 1990s by Boris Yeltsin's chaotic mishandling of Eastern Europe's "shock therapy" transition to democratic capitalism
 - It has entered a more belligerent phase under the "managed democracy" of the authoritarian, nationalistic Vladimir Putin
- It has sought to reassert its sphere of influence in the former Soviet Union and to counter American geopolitical ambitions
 - Chechen wars of the 1990s and early 2000s
 - Russian seizure of Crimea from Ukraine in 2014-2015
 - Support of pro-Russian rebels in eastern Ukraine
 - Cyber operations against Estonia and Georgia in 2007-2008 and against the United States during its 2016 presidential election

China

- China's rise to superpower status seems all but inevitable, an impression it conveyed with its grandiose hosting of the 2008 Beijing Olympics
 - World's largest population
 - Huge economy enjoying thunderous growth
 - Regional military power that will soon become Pacific-wide, if not global
 - Titanic influence on international trade and finance
- A large concern in China is if its authoritarian communist regime can muster the right combination of strength and flexibility to maintain order in a large, diverse country undergoing the stresses of rapid growth
- Whether China will flex its military and diplomatic muscles peacefully or aggressively is also another point of concern
 - China's reabsorption of Hong Kong in 1997 (when Britain's colonial lease expired by treaty) went smoothly
 - Its abuses in Tibet and against the Muslim Uighurs on its western frontier are well documented
 - China insists on claiming islands and waterways in the South China Sea that most of the world consider to belong to no one
 - It continues to tolerate the independence of Taiwan, which it regards as a renegade province, not a free nation

Nature of War

- The very nature of war has changed as well
- The gap between high-tech and low-level military capability has grown wider than before, thanks to trends from the Cold War that gained traction in the 1990s and 2000s
 - Only a few states possess meaningful stockpiles of weapons of mass destruction (nuclear, biological, and chemical weapons)
 - The post-WW2 period has witnessed many asymmetrical wars in which jet aircraft, third-generation tanks, helicopter guns, aircraft carriers, and global airlift capacity have been pitted against the small arms (assault rifles, grenade launchers, hand-to-hand weapons) that are most armies and paramilitary groups can afford
- After the Cold War, computer technology widened that gap even further
 - During the 1990s and early 2000s, the United States and a handful of other nations underwent the revolution in military affairs
 - There was the full integration of computer technology, satellite communications, and precision-guided ("smart") weapons in military operations
- Although technological superiority carries with it many advantages, especially in straight-up conventional combat, it is no guarantee of success

- This is demonstrated to the superpowers by the Vietnam War and the Soviet invasion of Afghanistan and to the United States in its ongoing wars in Iraq and Afghanistan
- Low-intensity (“brushfire”) conflict and guerilla insurgency in particular offer many ways for weaker, more poorly equipped forces to frustrate larger, high-tech armies
- Terrorism has remained central to post-Cold War geopolitics and has achieved new levels of destructiveness, and genocide has proved distressingly easy for even small, crudely armed forces to commit
 - Terrorism includes the al-Qaeda attacks on September 11, 2001, and more recent killings by groups like ISIS
 - The most notorious recent genocides occurred in Rwanda and the former Yugoslavia in the 1990s but also elsewhere

Weapons of Mass Destruction

- Adding further to the post-Cold War instability is the weakening of restraints on the capacity for large-scale devastation
 - Nuclear weapons are one concern
 - Russia and the United States have significantly reduced their nuclear arsenals
 - Concern about “loose nukes” (warheads or weapons-grade radioactive material) disappearing from the former USSR and ending up in the wrong hands has been a persistent worry
 - Despite the overall success of the Nuclear Nonproliferation Treaty (1968-1969), nuclear proliferation expanded during the 1990s and 2000s and threatens to worsen in the near future
 - Biological and chemical weapons (infectious pathogens like Ebola and anthrax, gases, toxins) have become easier to manufacture and weaponize—not just for national governments but potentially for nonstate actors—making such weapons harder to monitor and control

Global Integration vs. Fragmentation

International Organizations and Regional Associations

- Once trend encouraging global integration is the growing importance of international organizations and regional associations
 - The United Nations, the World Trade Organization (WTO), and the International Criminal Court (ICC) all foster international cooperation and dispute resolution
 - The WTO was formed in 1994 from the GATT system
 - The ICC was signed into being in 1998 and operated in The Hague since 2002 to prosecute genocide and other crimes against humanity
 - The European Union (EU) created a free-trade zone between the nations of Europe
 - It was formed in the 1990s from the European Economic Community
 - It expanded immensely after the collapse of Eastern European communism
 - Most of its states adopted the euro as a common currency in 2002
- However, the integrating strength of such organizations is not always evident
 - Although the UN is more capable than the interwar League of Nations, it has still sometimes shown impotence in the face of conflicts and humanitarian crises
 - Over 150 nations have signed the ICC charter but not all have ratified it, and some, like Russia, China, Israel, and the United States, have chosen not to fully recognize its authority
 - How effective the WTO will be in regulating trade in times of crisis remain to be seen
 - The 2016 Brexit vote deeply weakened the EU

Region-By-Region

- A region-by-region glance makes it difficult to guess whether integration or fragmentation would prevail as the century progresses

Europe

- Europe’s transition from communism has met with mixed results

- The “shock therapy” method of moving as quickly as possible to free-market capitalism proved painful even where it seemed to work well (as in East Germany, Poland, the Czech Republic, and the Baltic states)
- It was disastrous in places like Russia, which suffered hyperinflation and the sudden collapse of once-reliable social welfare systems
- The sudden rush of Eastern European countries to join NATO and the EU angered Russia, who was already smarting from the loss of its superpower status
- Ethnic tensions in Europe have heightened, even in the most democratic states
- The Yugoslav wars (1991-1995, 1998-1999) was the most terrible manifestation of ethnic violence in post-Cold War Europe
 - Tensions among South Slavs, kept under control by the authoritarian Titoist regime, broke loose after the collapse of communism
 - Orthodox Serbs, Catholic Croats, and Muslim Bosniaks were all Slavs but now bitterly divided
 - Various states that made up Yugoslavia declared independence
 - Opportunist politicians, especially Slobodan Milosevic of Serbia—which controlled most of Yugoslavia’s armed forces—exploited nationalist fervor to seize territory from Croatia and the multiethnic states of Bosnia
 - Serbian forces and Bosnian Serb paramilitaries committed many atrocities
 - Mass rape
 - Massacre of civilians
 - At Srebrenica, more than 8,000 Bosniaks were killed in 1995
 - At least 100,000 were killed and 2 million more made refugees
 - Besiegement and shelling of the Bosnian capital of Sarajevo for over three years
 - Forced deportations euphemistically called ethnic cleansings
 - The UN and NATO decided to impose the Dayton Accords in late 1995
 - Another round of fighting followed in 1998-1999 as Serbia attempted to remove ethnic Albanians from the province of Kosovo, requiring a NATO bombardment of Serbia to end the hostilities
- Populist discontent with globalization has crested from the mid-2010s onward
 - Anti-immigration sentiment
 - Brexit vote of 2016
 - “Yellow vest” strikes of 2018-2019 in France
 - Rightward voting shifts in several democracies

Latin America

- Economic inequalities remain in many states
- Illegal drug trafficking causes politically destabilizing violence in places like Colombia and along the Mexican border
- Strongman authoritarianism reemerged in certain countries
 - The bombastic socialist Hugo Chávez ruled the oil-rich Venezuela from 1999 to 2013 by building solid support from the lower masses and tightly controlling elections and the mass media
 - Venezuela under Chávez and his successors is part of a “pink wave” bloc that includes Nicaragua, Ecuador, and Bolivia, all opposing what they see as U.S. imperialism
 - The pink wave bloc all support Cuba, which remains communist

Asia

- There is economic dynamism and high-tech innovation found in places like China, Singapore, and parts of India (such as Bangalore, the Silicon Valley of South Asia)
- Geopolitical perils persist
 - On-going Indo-Pakistani border skirmishes
 - Perpetual instability of Afghanistan
 - Possibility of clashes between Communist China and Taiwan or Japan
 - Increasingly erratic bellicosity of a nuclear-armed North Korea

Africa

- Some areas have made headway with socioeconomic development and open politics
 - The truth and reconciliation process in South Africa healed some of the race-relations damage caused by apartheid
- Religious and ethnic differences, combined with competition over resources (oil, gold, diamonds) have ensured that civil war and the recruitment of child soldiers remain common
- In 1994, the Rwandan genocide occurred
 - It resulted in the deaths of 800,000 members of the Tutsi minority at the hands of their Hutu rivals
 - Hatred between the Tutsi and Hutu had been fostered by Rwanda's Belgian colonizers but had been kept mainly in check until now
- Between 1996 and 2003, the First and Second Congo Wars took place
 - It was sparked by the crumbling of Joseph Mobutu's repressive regime in Zaire/Congo
 - It drew nine Central African nations into combat and killed more than 5 million, if one counts deaths by famine or disease
- Between 2003 and the creation of a separate state of South Sudan, Sudanese persecution of the non-Arab Darfur minority killed more than half a million people and created millions of refugees

Middle East (and Islamic North Africa)

- The Middle East, combined with Islamic North Africa, has been the volatile of all
- The Arab-Israeli conflict has ebbed and flowed since the end of the Cold War
 - In 1993, Yasser Arafat of the Palestine Liberation Organization (PLO) signed peace accords with Israel's Yitzhak Rabin
 - Ended the First Intifada
 - Created a Palestinian National Authority as a first step toward a two-state solution
 - U.S. mediation helped preserve a fragile truce until 2000-2001, when extremists on both sides sabotaged negotiations and triggered a Second Intifada
 - Arafat died in 2004, and Rabin was assassinated by an Israeli opponent of the peace process
 - Since then, Arab and Israeli moderates alike—including the Palestinians' Fatah leadership—have struggled with Palestinian terrorists like Hamas, hard-right Israeli politicians, and Israeli religious fundamentalists
 - Hamas uses violence deliberately to disrupt the peace process
 - Hard-right Israeli politicians have used Palestinian terror as the pretext to quarantine nonviolent Palestinians in apartheid-like conditions, further inflaming Palestinian opinion against Israel
 - Israeli religious fundamentalists have been determined to build illegal settlements on Palestinian land, which they regard as their own biblical inheritance
- Desert Storm, the U.S.-led response to Saddam Hussein's 1990 invasion of Kuwait, brought war to Iraq in 1991
 - For the next twelve years, the United Nations monitored the possibility that Hussein might be amassing a large store of weapons of mass destruction
 - When Osama bin Laden and al-Qaeda carried out the September 11, 2001, bombings against the United States, President George W. Bush used the attacks as the occasion to extend his "war on terror" against Afghanistan and Iraq
 - Afghanistan's Taliban government, made up of rigid Islamic fundamentalists, provided al-Qaeda with a safe haven
 - Iraq was not involved in the al-Qaeda assault
 - American operations against Afghanistan began in 2001 and are not yet complete although Osama bin Laden was killed in 2011
 - The war in Iraq began in 2003
 - It immediately disposed Saddam Hussein (captured and killed in 2006) and plunged the country into political anarchy
 - Most U.S. forces withdrew in 2011
 - Much of the country fell in 2013-2014 to the fanatical Sunni terror group known as ISIS (the Islamic State of Iraq and Syria)
- There is also an ongoing Iranian nuclear effort, which has not yielded a weapon

- It may have been forestalled by an important treaty in the spring of 2015, even though the United States abandoned the agreement in 2018
- The Arab Spring, which began in December 2010, politically transformed the region by disposing a number of longtime authoritarian regimes
 - It started with the Tunisian monarchy and continued with the strongman government of Hosni Mubarak in Egypt and the dictatorship of Muammar Gaddafi in Libya
 - The terrible civil war in Syria, between dictator Bashar al-Assad and various rebel forces, began in 2011 as part of this trend (by 2014, this conflict had killed 400,000 and displaced 12 million)
- Although it is tempting to view the Arab Spring as a triumph of “people power” against oppression, the principal results were not positive
 - Steadily worsening instability, with the deadly prolonging of the Syrian civil war (and the resulting global refugee crisis)
 - Expansion of ISIS
 - Growing influence of Iran among the region’s many Shiite Muslims

Cultural Developments and Interactions (1945 to the Present)

- There was rapid change and incredible diversity in twentieth- and twenty-first-century thought and culture
 - Multiculturalism is the interaction and fusion of the world’s various ethnic, artistic, and intellectual traditions
 - Mass media technology had a large effect on culture and the arts
 - The information (or digital) revolution caused by the widespread availability of computers and the invention of the World Wide Web had vastly altered cultural life in the 1990s and beyond
- After World War II, high art in the West began its transition from the modern period (1870s-1940s) to the contemporary era, or the postmodern era

High Art and Culture

Western Culture

- High art in the West during this era was characterized by bold experimentation and the distortion, even abandonment, of traditional norms and conventions
 - During the first half of the 1900s, Western art was marked by uncertainty and pessimism
- Even before World War I, the prevailing faith in progress that had characterized Europe’s cultural life during much of the 1800s had waned
- Despair caused by World War I (1914-1918) brought an even greater sense of anxiety on the forefront
 - Erich maria Remarque’s novel All Quiet on the Western Front describes the dehumanizing effects of trench warfare
 - Verses of Britain’s war poets (Siegfried Sassoon, Wilfred Owen, and others) questioned traditional patriotism as an adequate justification for the war’s mindless butchery
 - The avant-garde artists of the Dada movement, which exhibited in Europe and New York during the war, used shock and absurdism to push the boundaries of what should be considered art and to highlight the irrationality of World War I (which they opposed)
 - The best-known Dadaist artwork is Fountain: the bowl of a urinal irreverently turned into a sculpture by Frenchman Marcel Duchamp
- Gloom deepened during the interwar period due to Europe’s political and economic comedown and the unsettling philosophical implications of recent scientific insights
 - The theory of relativity, quantum physics, and the psychological theories of Sigmund Freud all called into question whether anything was fully knowable or whether an objective truths existed
 - The prose of poetry of T.S. Eliot and Franz Kafka dealt with dehumanization in an industrialized, bureaucratized era
 - Experiments with stream-of-consciousness prose by Virginia Woolf, Marcel Proust, and James Joyce attempted to capture, almost in Freudian style, the working os the human mind on the written page
 - Abstract painters, such as Pabl Picasso, distorted reality to demonstrate that things can be viewed in a variety of perspectives

- Surrealists like Salvador Dalí and others placed realistic objects in unrealistic situations to confuse the viewer's sense of reality
- Alternative literary approaches to World War I included satire, sentimentality, and patriotic adventurism
 - Satire included Czech author Jaroslav Hašek's novel *The Good Soldier Svejk*
 - Sentimentality included the poem "In Flanders Fields" by Canadian doctor John McCrae, commemorating soldiers killed by poison gas
 - In sharp contrast to antiwar works like *All Quiet on the Western Front*, patriotic adventurism included *Storm of Steel* by Germany's Ernst Jünger, who saw World War I as a grand cause and an ennobling experience
- After World War II, the philosophical and literary school of existentialism rose to prominence, although it had already existed in interwar periods
 - Championed by the Irish playwright Samuel Beckett and the French philosophers Albert Camus and Jean-Paul Sartre
 - Proposed the humanity was not guided by an deity, special destiny, or objective morality—alone in the universe, the individual must learn to create a worthwhile, ethical existence for himself or herself without the benefit of religion or the hope of any life beyond the earthly one
- At the same time, Western culture entered the postmodern era, which has been characterised by even more unpredictability, relativism, and unconventionality than before
 - The notion of an artistic and literary canon—an universally agreed-upon body of "great" works—has been called into doubt by postmodern thinking in keeping with its rejection of the notion that any standards can be objectively valid

Non-Western Culture

- In the non-Western world, the twentieth and twenty-first centuries have seen artistic and literary traditions gain the same degree of respect and prestige once reserved for works from the West
- In addition to maintaining indigenous styles, non-Western authors and artists have adopted Western forms of writing, painting, and composing—often modifying them with elements from their own culture
- There were several celebrated artists prior to World War II
 - The Indian poet Rabindranath Tagore, the first non-Westerner to win the Nobel Prize for literature, dazzled readers worldwide with lyrical verses inspired by Hindu mysticism
 - China's Lu Xun wrote hard-hitting stories about his country's economic domination by outside powers and his own government's lack of concern for lower-class commoners
 - Starting in the 1930s, the negritude movement, inspired by the African American poets of the Harlem Renaissance and the Marxism percolating in interwar Paris, encouraged African and Caribbean writers from French colonies to express their opposition to European imperialism and their own pride in being black
 - The Mexican artist Diego Rivera created powerful murals expressing the plights of the working poor as well as that of Mayans and other indigenous peoples
 - His wife, the painter Frida Kahlo, remains famous in her own right for her feminist themes and her bold use of color
- After World War II, non-Western voices arose more frequently and outspokenly in the artistic world about the growing pains associated with decolonization, the difficulty of resisting Western (especially U.S.) cultural hegemony, and opposition to politically repressive regimes
 - Chinua Achebe looked backward to the impact of British imperialism and missionary activity on Nigeria's Ibo (Igbo) people in *Things Fall Apart* (1958), one of the first African novels to gain an international audience
 - Japan's Yukio Mishima, a prolific novelist and traditional nationalist, bitterly opposed what he saw as the destruction of Japan's cultural values; his ritual, samurai-style suicide in 1970 elevated him to cult status
 - In Latin America, authors such as Gabriel García Márquez and Isabel Allende pioneered magical realism, a richly textured style featuring intricately detailed storytelling
 - In the Islamic world, novelist Naguib Mahfouz won the Nobel Prize for his *Cairo Trilogy*, a vibrant portrait of postwar Egypt

- The Indian-born, English-speaking Salman Rushdie came to world attention in 1988 with *The Satanic Verses*, an irreverent treatment of Islamic orthodoxy
- Both Mahfouz and Rushdie fell afoul of Muslim traditionalists: Mahfouz was stabbed by an Islamic extremist in 1984 and Rushdie was declared a heretic by Iran's Ayatollah Khomeini, who openly called for his assassination and forced him into hiding for many years

Mass Culture and Multiculturalism

- During the 1900s, mass media (radio, film, television) came into their own, vastly transforming the cultural sphere
 - Their exuberance and energy contrasted with the anxiety and uncertainty expressed by most high art
- The dividing line between high culture and mass (or popular) culture has become increasingly difficult to define in the 1900s and 2000s
 - All the new media of this era have been used to create great artworks that belong in the former category
 - Film directors such as Russia's Sergei Eisenstein and Germany's Fritz Lang dominated high-art cinema during the interwar years
 - The postwar era has seen masterpieces by Sweden's deeply existential Ingmar Bergman, by Italy's Federico Fellini, noted for his extravagance and fondness for farce, and by Japan's Akira Kurosawa, popularizer of the samurai epic
 - Jazz, which flourished in early twentieth-century America, particularly during the Harlem Renaissance, crossed the line between high culture and high art
 - The same is true of the cabaret culture that flourished in Weimar Germany before 1933 and featured jazz music and witty social commentary in musical dramas cocreated by Kurt Weill and the Marxist playwright Bertolt Brecht
- On the other hand, mass media have been used mainly to create products aimed at a popular audience for purposes of entertainment
 - Critics of mass/popular culture argue that it tends to cheapen or "dumb down" art by catering to the tastes of the lowest common denominator
 - Whether this is an elitist viewpoint of a valid one, there is no denying the perennial popularity of Disney, Hollywood films, rock and roll and popular music, and the press coverage related to popular technologies like aviation and rockets (featuring heroes like Charles Lindbergh and U.S. astronauts of Soviet cosmonauts) and automobiles (car racing, popular on both sides of the Atlantic)
- Mass media also gave rise to the international popularity of sporting events
 - They were intertwined with national pride and political agendas from the start
 - The modern Olympic Games, created in 1896 to foster peace, have been used to make statements of strength or wage symbolic battles
 - Hitler's Berlin Olympics in 1936 and Beijing's summer Olympics in 2008 fell under the former category
 - U.S. and Soviet teams throughout the Cold War symbolized the latter
 - World Cup soccer tournaments, active since 1930, galvanize audiences worldwide every four years
- Global conflict—especially the Cold War—has also influenced popular culture
 - At their peak, James Bond films helped to relieve Cold War tensions by turning them into spy-fantasy unreality, and they provide a similar function in the more geopolitically uncertain present
 - U.S.-Soviet rivalry provided fodder for popular if highly implausible Cold War blockbusters like *Rambo* and *Red Dawn*
 - Video games such as *Call of Duty* have transformed modern combat into entertainment—arguably desensitizing players to the uglier realities of the military experience

Religion in the Modern Era

- Religions adapted to an increasingly secular era—when literal belief in traditional scriptures was harder to sustain and when many dictators, especially in the communist world, sought to ban worship altogether
- Numerous synthetic forms of spirituality appeared, combining elements of old religions with new beliefs
 - Hare Krishna movement arose in New York in the mid-1960s and borrowed chants and scriptures from Hinduism

- Falun Gong is a meditative and martial arts-oriented practice originating in China in the 1990s and, much to the displeasure of the communist regime, reviving aspects of Daoist and Buddhist worship
- Varieties of “new age” faiths in the West (alternative spiritualities that incorporate whatever they choose from Buddhism, Hinduism, yoga, shamanism, or paganism)
- Religious beliefs were also used to advance political agendas
 - Religious differences frequently aggravated or contributed to ethnic and political disputes
 - Turkish massacre of Christian Armenians
 - Arab-Israeli conflict
 - Indo-Pakistani violence
 - Catholic-Protestant “troubles” in Northern Ireland
 - Sunni-Shiite rivalries in the Middle East
 - Yugoslav wars of the 1990s
 - Religious fundamentalism has proved politically influential in many ways during the 1900s and 2000s
 - Christian fundamentalism in North America has systematically advanced right-wing voting preferences in electoral politics
 - Christian fundamentalism in the form of evangelical Protestantism has made major inroads into Africa and Latin America, the latter long monopolized religiously by the Catholic Church
 - Islamic fundamentalism has driven political trends in the Middle East, generally in opposition to westernization and, at times, to modernization in general
 - In part due to Islamic fundamentalism, there is tension between Hindus and Muslims and also Hindus and Sikhs in South Asia
 - Hindu nationalism, in the form of Hindutva (“Hindu-ness,” a term originating in the 1920s) has widened those fissures
 - Another instance of how religious belief has been applied to politics involves liberation theology
 - Liberation theology was a concept that arose during the 1950s and 1960s among Catholic priests in Latin America (the term itself was not coined until the early 1970s)
 - Arguing that Christ’s teachings mandated a “preferential option for the poor,” liberation theologians felt it was their duty to support impoverished communities against oppressive governments and the elite classes
 - In order to further this cause, they allowed themselves to oppose the church hierarchy or cooperate with radical or Marxist activists
 - In the mid-1980s, under the fiercely anticommunist pope John Paul II, the Vatican cracked down on liberation theology
 - The notion of coming liberal Christianity with social-justice activism remains alive thanks to the movement’s influence

Technology and Innovation (1945 to the Present)

Physics and Energy

- Albert Einstein developed the special and general theories of relativity between 1905 and 1916
 - Proposed the equivalency of mass and energy ($E = mc^2$)
 - Established the speed of light as the maximum attainable speed in the universe
 - Became one of the first to push beyond the synthesis of mathematics and physics achieved by Isaac Newton’s laws of motion in the late 1600s and early 1700s
- Also in the early 1900s, the field of quantum physics was born
 - It was helped largely by Einstein’s insights, even though he did not accept all of its implications
 - Major figures included Max Planck, Niels Bohr, Werner Heisenberg, and Enrico Fermi, all of whom were interested in questions on the atomic and subatomic levels
 - Quantum physicists demonstrated—by means of Heisenberg’s uncertainty principle—that, on a certain microscopic point, one can know a particle’s location or its momentum but not both at the same time
 - In the realm of technology, such breakthroughs in quantum physics made atomic weaponry and nuclear energy possible
- There were other pioneers of the atomic frontier

- Wilhelm Roentgen of Germany detected the phenomenon of atomic radiation and learned how to photograph it in the form of X-rays
- Polish-French researcher Marie Curie discovered radium and polonium and remains the only woman to win two nobel prizes (physics in 1903, chemistry in 1911)
- Although the production of energy still depends above all else on the burning of fossil fuels, new sources of energy have emerged in the post-World War II era
 - Wind power was not new, but advanced technology has greatly improved the ability of wind turbines to generate electricity
 - Solar power has also advanced tremendously, from a novelty half a century ago to a major—and steadily improving—source of renewable energy
 - Where circumstances permit, geothermal energy works as an alternative source of power
 - Nuclear power is the longest and most thoroughly established of energy sources not reliant on fossil fuels, but it remains controversial
 - Nuclear power plants produce highly toxic waste that is difficult to store and remains dangerous for centuries
 - The potential for contamination by fallout over a wide range if something goes wrong with a plant—as at Chernobyl in 1986—is dire in the extreme

Aviation and Space

- There were developments powered flight, which was achieved in 1903 with the Wright Brothers' invention of the airplane
- Simultaneously, the new fields of rocketry and space science emerged in the 1900s
 - Pioneers of rocket science include included the American Robert Goddard and Russia's Konstantin Tsiolkovsky
 - This field matured during World War II thanks largely to the efforts of German scientists like Wernher von Braun, who developed the V-1 and V-2 rockets for use against Britain late in the war
 - Other developments between World War II and the early Cold War include large, high-altitude aircraft (strategic bombers and cargo planes in war, passenger and freight airliners in civilian life), jet planes, and supersonic flight
 - Navigation and guidance systems, for both airplanes and spacecraft, became remarkably sophisticated over a few short decades
 - The United States and the USSR proved eager to use the expertise of German rocket scientists after the war for the purposes of both building intercontinental missiles and developing space programs
 - Despite his dubious history of working for the Nazi regime, von Braun was instrumental in work done in the United States by NASA
- The nuclear arms race between the United States and the USSR spurred a parallel space race
 - The Soviets were the first to put a human-made object into space (the satellite Sputnik in 1957)
 - The Soviets also launched the first human being in space (Yuri Gagarin in 1961)
 - The Soviets landed the first unmanned spacecraft on the moon in 1959
 - The Americans succeeded in carrying out the first crewed moon landing on July 20, 1969 (the Apollo 11 mission, led by Neil Armstrong)
 - To this date, the United States is the only nation that has landed crewed spacecraft on the moon
- There was a move toward a permanent presence in space
 - It was encouraged by the USSR's work in developing orbital laboratories and the United States' development of the space shuttle program
 - Rocket science has also made satellite telecommunications and telemetry possible
 - Emerging trends since the end of the Cold War have included the deployment of unmanned probes into deep space and to neighboring planets, and increasingly powerful radio telescopes
 - Private spaceflight may also become a reality in the near future

Biological and Medical Frontiers

- Vaccinations and antibiotics have been at the center of important medical triumphs
 - Vaccinations were invented in the 1800s

- Antibiotic development began with the 1928 discovery of penicillin by Scotland's Alexander Fleming
- Once-fatal infections can be more easily countered
- Certain diseases that routinely killed millions (smallpox, measles) have been all but eliminated
- Polio vaccine, developed by Jonas Salk in the 1950s and followed by Albert Sabin's oral vaccine, eradicated another serious threat
- One recent concern has been the emergence of new bacteria capable of resisting antibiotics and new disease strains that defy vaccinations
- Anti-vaxxers also compromise the effectiveness of public health programs
- A related field of special significance is genetics
 - Came into being during the late 1800s thanks to the work of the Austrian monk Gregor Mendel
 - Greatest breakthrough came with the deciphering of the molecular structure of DNA in 1953, which is a feat attributed to James Watson and Francis Crick but due also to the work of Rosalind Franklin
 - Gene mapping and bioengineering, including the potential for human cloning, are within grasp
- Other medical fields related to specific body parts have also seen development
 - Heart transplants began in 1967 thanks to Christiaan Barnard in South Africa
 - First successful implant of an artificial heart took place in 1982
 - Since the 1990s, neurology has made progress on the workings of the brain
- Biological and botanical advancements boosted agricultural production worldwide and, in certain regions, gave rise to the Green Revolution of the 1940s-1970s

Mass Media and Computer Technology

- There was a full incorporation of mass media and consumer electronics into daily life
- From the 1990s onward, a similar but even more powerful transformation connected the computer to nearly every part of daily life
 - Machines that preceded the computer were invented during and shortly after World War II thanks to the efforts of many people (notably the British mathematician Alan Turing)
 - One early purpose was to break German codes of Allied war effort
- Beginning in the 1980s, the availability and affordability of the personal computer—brought about by innovators like Bill Gates, Steve Wozniak, and Steve Jobs—caused an information (or digital) revolution
 - It altered the way people work, communicate, entertain themselves, and process information
 - Key to this development was the invention and expansion of the internet, originally created in the 1960s for U.S. defense purposes
 - By the end of the 1990s, a World Wide Web—brought into being by Tim Berners-Lee—had connected millions of users
 - It continues to grow, particularly with the rise of wireless technology and mobile communications, which allow access to the Internet and to social media via hand-held devices like smartphones
- Although a digital divide exists between those in the developed world, who have better access to computer technology and reliable cell phone networks, and those in the less developed world, who have less access, the worldwide trend is toward more access for all

Economic Systems (1945 to the Present)

- Two trends are the globalization of economic affairs and the digitalization of economic exchange and consumer culture
- Immense wealth has been created in aggregate, but it remains very unevenly distributed, both within societies and between them
- Economies all over the world remain vulnerable to business cycles of periodic boom and bust—the more integrated they become, the more vulnerability they share

Divergent Approaches to the Economy

Free-Market Capitalism

- Capitalism, typically paired with electoral democracy, was the primary approach in the West—and gradually other places too

- While free-market capitalism could both be left mostly unregulated, it could also be heavily regulated by means of government intervention
 - Proponents of minimal regulation favor the laissez-faire spirit of the nineteenth-century classical economists and argue that the unfettered operation of the market forces of demand and supply is the surest way to generate wealth for the greatest number of people
 - Those favoring more regulation counter that even early capitalist thinkers like Adam Smith warned about dangerous levels of poverty and the formation of monopolies if the government did not intervene sufficiently
 - They also maintained that a stronger government hand is necessary to correct downward fluctuations in the market, to provide a social safety net to shield citizens from the harshest effects of capitalist competition, and to ensure a sufficient infrastructure for the good of the state and the smooth functioning of the economy
- Although unregulated approach prevailed in the West before World War I, post-World War II economies seemed to favor the regulated approach
 - The unregulated approach to capitalism prevailed in most of Europe before World War I and in the United States during the 1920s, and it was aggressively pursued again in these places during the 1980s
 - The regulated approach is exemplified by the U.S. New Deal of the 1930s and also by the approach taken by most European democracies, with their highly developed social welfare systems, during much of the post-World War II era
- Modern economic theories regarding capitalism have focused primarily on this question of government intervention
 - The dominant thinker in favor of regulation is John Maynard Keynes of Britain, author of *The General Theory of Employment, Interest and Money* (1936)—the century’s classic text on macroeconomics—and an adviser to or influence on many governments from the 1920s onward, including Franklin Roosevelt’s during the Great Depression
 - Keynes argued that booms and busts proceed from the waxing and waning of consumer confidence (the “animal spirits,” to use his terminology) and that, in times of crisis, governments should invest in public works, relief efforts, and stimulus programs to keep confidence high, even if it means running deficits for a time
 - The best-known opponent of Keynesian theory is the American economist Milton Friedman, whose influence on governments in the 1980s and 1990s—especially in Britain, the United States, and Latin America—equaled that of Keynes in earlier years
 - Friedman was an advocate of austerity and privatization, and proposed that governments should intervene as little as possible in the workings of the free market

Third-Way Economies

- Some capitalist economies—especially in Europe—are regulated heavily enough that they are referred to as “middle” or “third way” economies
 - These seek to combine capitalism’s profit motive and respect for private property with certain socialist ideas, such as the nationalization of key economic sectors (transport, utilities, medical care) and the provision of sturdy social welfare programs
- Supporters praise their generosity and flexibility, while critics condemn them as expensive and unsustainable

State-Directed Capitalism

- Fascist and authoritarian regimes generally favored state-directed capitalism with varying degrees of heavy-handedness
 - Fascist forms of state capitalism are typically referred to as corporatist or syndicalist
- These systems were based on partnerships between political leaders and economic elites like landowners and industrialists
 - Economic elites were allowed to own their enterprises and pursue profits as long as they accepted priorities set for them by the state
 - In exchange for obedience, the state refrained from outright nationalization or centralization, and cooperative parties were rewarded with preferential treatment and state contracts

- As an added bonus for economic elites, the state also limited workers' rights and weakened or outlawed trade unions
- Such practices were pursued most famously in Nazi Germany, Fascist Italy, and Japan but also in a host of dictatorial and oligarchic regimes

Socialism

- Socialist economies lean toward centralization and government intervention: some central planning, the nationalization of certain sectors of the economy and a willingness to balance respect for private property with the needs of society as a whole
- The most successful socialist or social democratic systems—especially in Europe—have been voted into power and have tended to be mild
 - Many of these have injected enough elements of capitalism that they fall into the category of “middle” or “third way” economies
- In the less-developed world (often in recent decolonized nations), quasi-socialist or temporarily socialist measures have been carried out as a way to encourage development or build wealth more quickly
 - Lázaro Cárdenas's 1938 formation of the state-owned PEMEX conglomerate, following his nationalization of Mexico's oil industry
 - Gamal Nasser's nationalization of the Suez canal in 1956

Communism

- Communist economies committed more fully to central planning, maximal nationalization of the economy, and active hostility toward the principle of private property
 - It explicitly aimed—at least in theory—to eradicate the profit motive, eliminate private trade, and nationalize economic life as completely as possible
- Countries that went communist during the 1900s included the Soviet Union, most of Eastern Europe, mainland China, North Korea, Cuba, and Vietnam
 - Although communist regimes often claim to be “people's democracies,” they merely always come to power by means of revolution and keep themselves in place by means of dictatorship
 - They typically pursued ambitious modernization projects, including state-sponsored industrialization and the collectivization of agriculture
 - Stalin's First Five-Year Plan (1928-1932) and Mao's Great Leap Forward (1958-1961) are the most prominent examples, each causing astounding levels of social and economic stress, each relying heavily on prison-camp labor, and each linked to notorious famines that killed millions
 - On the other hand, not all communist regimes have pursued such extremist policies, and many have shown themselves capable of effective reform, even though they remain politically authoritarian
 - China under Deng Xiaoping, following Mao's death in 1976
 - Vietnam with its doi moi (“renovation”) reforms in the mid-1980s onward

Boom and Bust: Toward the Great Depression and Bretton Woods

- Although trade and commerce were highly internationalized before 1900, especially between Europe and North America, Western imperialism drew the rest of the globe into this system
 - London and New York already emerged as the world's leading centers of banking and commerce
- In the early 1870s to mid-1890s, the Western World experienced a bad turn of the boom-and-bust business cycle during the Long Depression, complete with protectionist trade policies
- In the late 1890s until World War I, economic recovery and the resumption of free trade caused a rebound
- During and after World War I, all nations in the West (and Soviet Russia) industrialized more fully, and Japan, China, and certain parts of Latin America achieved significant degrees of modernization and industrialization
- Trade, along with the world's economic health in general, depended heavily on U.S. investment and U.S. willingness to import goods from abroad
 - The war badly weakened the economies of Europe, but it enriched North America and paved the way for the “roaring twenties” in the United States
 - The scope and volume of international trade remained high during the 1920s, until the Great Depression

- The Great Depression was caused by the wild overvaluation of stocks in the United States and the resulting crash of the New York Stock Exchange in October 1929
 - The agricultural downturn caused at the same time by the U.S. and Canadian dust bowl crisis added to these problems
 - The initial reaction of the U.S. government was to institute austerity measures
 - Depressed consumer confidence
 - Caused runs on banks (as depositors sought to withdraw their money all at once)
 - Led to mass unemployment (eventually reaching 25%)
 - The Depression also sparked one of the most rashly protectionist measures in U.S. history, the Smoot-Hawley Tariff Act of 1930, which attempted to shield U.S. industries and farms by imposing high tariffs on other nations' goods
 - It ultimately destroyed the ability of Europe, Latin America, and Asia to export their products—in effect spreading the Depression to these regions as well
 - Because the USSR's economic connections with the West were so limited, it remained essentially untouched by the Depression
 - Some in the West became convinced that Stalinist communism was superior to democratic capitalism, because Stalin's five-year plans created virtually 100% employment and because propaganda hid their unpleasant realities for public view
 - Economic reactions generally included some combination of public works projects, social welfare, and in some cases, military conscription and arms buildup
 - Public works projects include large-scale construction, dam or highway building, electrification
 - Social welfare include soup kitchens, farm relief, unemployment insurance
 - Franklin Roosevelt's New Deal, begun in 1933, attempted the first two, while Nazi Germany, Fascist Italy, and Japan relied mainly on the first and third
 - European democracies like Britain and France turned to the second alternative, foreshadowing the even more elaborate social welfare systems they would put into place after World War II
- World War II had shattered most economies besides those of America and the Soviet Union, and even the latter lost a full third of its economic capacity to the fighting
- The United States took the lead in rebuilding the global world economy after World War II
- Franklin Roosevelt, guided by the economic principles of John Maynard Keynes and the post-World War I convictions of Woodrow Wilson, believed that free trade was the key to both economic prosperity and lasting world peace
- In July 1944, he met with Allied delegates at Bretton Woods, New Hampshire
 - The World Bank and the International Monetary Fund (IMF) were created, with the goals of rebuilding Europe and aiding countries in Asia, Africa, and Latin America
 - Although the World Bank and the IMF were designed to guide and assist countries with less-developed economies, they also served as tools that allowed richer nations in the West to influence—and even interfere with—policy making in Third World states
 - Plans were also laid for a General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT), which was signed by twenty-three countries in 1947 and met regularly until 1994, when it became the World Trade Organization
 - The Bretton Woods system was established, where most currency measured themselves against the U.S. dollar, which in turn based its value on the gold standard
 - The Soviet Union and its Eastern European bloc refused to join this Bretton Woods system, as did Communist China

Regionalization and Globalization after World War II

- During the 1950s and 1960s, growing prosperity came especially to the United States but also to Canada, Japan, and the nations of Western Europe
- The reconstruction of war-torn Western Europe was incredible
 - Western Europe was assisted at the outset by the Marshall Plan (1948)

- They formed economic unions, the precursors to the present-day European Union: the six-nation European Coal and Steel Community in 1952 and then the European Economic Community, also known as the Common Market, in 1957
- Most European nations, along with Canada, invested heavily in social welfare systems that provided for some combination of universal health care, cheap or free higher education for those who qualified academically, generous pensions, and unemployment insurance
- The rest of the world developed unevenly
 - In Latin America and Africa, many governments still relied on the export of a narrow assortment of natural resources or crops, just as they had in the 1800s
 - The Middle East benefited from its dominance in oil production; OPEC, formed in 1960 and still one of the most influential cartels in economic history, consists largely of Middle Eastern states
 - The economies of the Soviet Union, its Eastern European allies, and Communist China tended to remain largely but not completely isolated from those of the Western world
 - Parts of Asia, such as Japan, the continent's economic "tiger," along with the so-called little tigers (Taiwan, South Korea, Hong Kong, Singapore), quickly adapted to global capitalism and industrialization
 - Many Asian nations joined regional economic associations; the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN), formed in 1967 to promote regional security, strengthened economic ties among its member states
- In the 1970s, Western economies began a long transition from industrial production to postindustrial production
 - Postindustrial production was based less on manufacturing and more on service and "knowledge economies" (which include white-collar work, high-tech fields, and computer expertise)
 - This transition went hand in hand with a gradual relocation of industrial production to previously less-developed parts of the world, which first took place Asia's little tigers and later in countries like Mexico, Bangladesh, Vietnam, and Honduras
- At the same time, a general economic crisis struck most of the developed world and lasted most of the decade
 - In 1971, Richard Nixon rocked the international community by taking the U.S. dollar off of the gold standard
 - OPEC's 1973 oil embargo severely affected the energy-dependent economies of the West
 - Stagflation plagued North America and Western Europe, and those nations with costly social welfare systems found them difficult to maintain
 - Although the USSR had its own oil reserves and was safe from OPEC's embargo, inefficiency, food shortages, the cost of the arms race, and governmental corruption sapped Eastern European economies
 - In the mid-1970s, largely to combat these negative trends, the countries with the seven largest noncommunist economies—Great Britain, France, West Germany, Italy, Japan, Canada, and the United States—formed the Group of Seven (G7) to coordinate policies to mutual economic benefit
- During the 1980s, most economies outside of the Soviet bloc recovered
 - In the West, the shift from industrial to postindustrial/service modes of production continued
 - To one degree or another, most governments pursued free-market reforms
 - It involved privatization of previously nationalized sectors of the economy (typically transport and energy), trimming or elimination of social-welfare benefits, and austerity (the sharp reduction of government spending)
 - The economic theories of Milton Friedman were followed most eagerly by Ronald Reagan in the United States, Margaret Thatcher in Great Britain, and the dictator Augusto Pinochet in Chile
 - Such policies led to an overall rise in economic growth but also caused great social stress, in the form of layoffs and the weakening of unions, and began a thirty-year trend of shifting the distribution of wealth upward from the middle class and toward corporate elites
 - Debate also continues as to whether free-market policies caused the economic recovery or simply coincided with it
- Economic reform was pursued in the communist world during the mid-1980s but with varying results
 - Both Deng Xiaoping in China and Mikhail Gorbachev in the USSR allowed limited degrees of private trade and free-market activity
 - While Deng's reforms put China on the path toward rapid and sizable growth, Gorbachev's perestroika program destabilized the Soviet system and ultimately failed

- The difference seems to be that Gorbachev moved too slowly with economic change and weakened his position by simultaneously pursuing political liberalization, while Deng moved quickly on the economic front but tolerated little political opposition
- The 1990s brought about a high tide of economic globalization, which has shown no signs of receding in the 2000s
 - The “communications revolution” of the 1900s, leading from the telegraph and the telephone to radio and beyond, has facilitated international banking and economic globalization
 - A major factor was the growing influence of multinational corporations, starting in the 1980s and continuing in the present
 - These large conglomerates, typically “from” a single country, maintain factors and subsidiaries around the world and employ many foreign workers
 - Examples include Coca-Cola and McDonald’s, originally from the United States; carmakers like Japan’s Toyota; Royal Dutch Shell, with fossil-fuel interests worldwide; Nestlé, (Swiss-based, the largest food company in the world) and the Anglo-Dutch Unilever; and electronics and computer giants such as Sony (originally Japanese) and Microsoft, Facebook, and Apple from the United States
 - While corporations like these generate massive wealth, critics contend that their profit seeking weakens societies and challenges state power in many ways
 - Multinationals engage in tax sheltering (shifting assets out of a home country to places with lower tax rates or no tax at all)
 - They also regularly relocate or “outsource” jobs from city to city or country to country, causing sudden layoffs or firings in their search for the most lenient environmental regulations, the most favorable tax breaks, and most important, the cheapest labor
 - The impact of multinationals on the developing world is also mixed: even though they provide jobs and invest in local infrastructure, they often exploit labor (in some cases turning a blind eye to dreadful sweatshop conditions), harm local ecosystems, and put homegrown industries and craft production out of business
 - A sense that globalization mainly benefits corporate and high-tech elites has driven powerful protests and political reactions in several forms
 - These include anti-G7 and anti-IMF demonstrations, the Occupy Wall Street movement, France’s “yellow vest” strikes, and the Brexit vote of 2016
 - On the left, a World Fair Trade Organization contrasts directly with the World Trade Organization
 - On the right, populist and nationalist electoral shifts in the 2010s have been prompted largely by desires for a less globalized world
- The growing extent of globalization is reflected in the increased importance of international economic organizations and regional economic associations, which foster economic cooperation and provide for freer trade
 - Throughout the 1990s and 2000s, the Group of Seven (G7)—renamed the Group of Eight (G8) between 1997 and 2014, when Russia was accepted as a member—met more frequently and formally
 - In 1994 and 1995, the GATT accords were upgraded and strengthened by the formation of the World Trade Organization, whose purpose was to regulate the economic interactions of more than a hundred nations that belong to it (these now include Russia and Communist China)
 - In 1994, the United States, Mexico, and Canada created a zone of free movement of money, goods, services, and labor by means of the North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA), which was later replaced by USMCA
 - In 1989, Pacific Rim nations formed the Asia-Pacific Economic Cooperation Group (APEC), which now includes more than twenty members
 - In Latin America, the Southern Common Market, or Mercosur, was established in 1991; it consists of Argentina, Brazil, Paraguay, Uruguay, Venezuela, and Bolivia
 - A number of trading bloc from the 1980s and 1990s joined together in 2008 to create the African Free Trade Zone (AFTZ)
- By far the boldest experiment in economic integration has been Europe’s
 - In 1991, the nations of the European Union (EU) signed the Maastricht Treaty, which provided for the creation of the euro as a single currency and for the free movement of money, goods, and labor

- The euro went into circulation in 2002 and was adopted by most EU members (Britain was a major holdout)
- The viability of the euro was called into question in the wake of the 2007 global economic crisis
- While the “eurozone” has so far survived, anti-immigration sentiment in the 2010s and the 2016 Brexit vote have seriously weakened the EU
- The costs and benefits of economic globalization are mixed
 - Although it has generated great wealth, at least in a broad sense and in certain parts of the world, it has not healed the north-south split that continues to divide the developed world from the nondeveloped and developing nations
 - With some justification, proponents of globalization argue that free helps preserve peace
 - On the other hand, the practices of multinational corporations may lead to a constant state of economic instability
 - Agriculture is greatly affected by globalization, as farmers in one country compete with cheap food imported from other parts of the world
 - Because so many nations’ economies influence on another, negative trends in one region can adversely affect larger parts of the world—the financial crises in Mexico in 1994, Asia in 1997, Russia and Brazil in 1998, and the U.S. collapse in 2007 are all examples
 - It remains questionable how far all nations will be willing to go in subjecting their economic policies to the dictates of the EU, the WTO, or other regional and international bodies

Social Interactions and Organization (1945 to the Present)

- Western Europe, the United States, Canada—the West—as well as Australia and New Zealand (although some trends were slow or nonexistent before the end of World War II)
 - Economic modernization
 - Shift from industrial to postindustrial production
 - Creation of social welfare systems)
 - Technological modernization
 - Rapid scientific and technological development
 - Political modernization
 - Stable democratization
 - Social equality and individual rights
- Prosperous nations in Asia—first Japan, then others like Taiwan, South Korea, Indonesia, and Singapore
 - Urbanization
 - Economic and technological modernization, especially after World War II
 - Postindustrial, high-tech economies
 - Creation of social welfare systems
 - Less political modernization
 - Slower to embrace democracy
 - Slower to tolerate the individualism that had come to characterize Western societies in the 1800s and 1900s
- Soviet Union and Eastern Europe
 - Urbanization
 - Less economic modernization
 - Creation of social welfare systems
 - Overly centralized economies
 - Remained industrial rather than postindustrial
 - Less technological modernization
 - Considerable technological and scientific advancement
 - Cruder technological finesse than in the West
 - Less political modernization
 - Repressive political systems

- Difficult for region to move toward democracy and prosperity, even after the collapse of communism
- Developing nations of Asia, Africa, the Middle East, and Latin America
 - Societies are somewhere between “high level of prosperity with representative forms of government” and “backwardness, poverty, civil strife, and dictatorship”
 - BRIC (Brazil, Russia, India, and China) are countries whose socioeconomic development does not yet match that of the West but which have been rapidly modernizing and gaining clout
 - The People’s Republic of China has the geography, population, and military capacity of a major power and their economy has grown considerably since the 1980s, but its government is still authoritarian, and social and economic progress remain uneven

Labor and Lifestyles

General Social Trends

- A cluster of social trends that began in the West during the 1800s sped up significantly in the 1900s and was accelerated by World War I

Social

- Between 1900 and 2000, there was a drastic population growth that continues today
 - In 1900, the world population was 1.6 billion
 - By 2000, it had reached 6 billion, and it has since topped 7.5 billion
 - Most historians content that this growth has been caused primarily by improvements in medicine and public health, as opposed to the eradication of hunger
- Urbanization increased throughout the 1900s, and suburbanization grew increasingly common in the postwar era
- The social hierarchy changed into the more egalitarian one we see today
 - Aristocratic social elites were replaced by professional and meritocratic white-collar class, whose status depended on educations, skills, and earned wealth
 - A large, stable middle class was created
- Public projects improved the quality of living as well
 - Universal education systems were created
 - Transportational and energy infrastructures became more available and affordable
 - Mass transit and the automobile brought more mobility

Political

- Equal political rights and equal treatment before the law were provided to all adult citizens
 - Legal distinctions between social classes were eliminated
 - Women and minorities gained equal rights
- Trade unions grew in power
- Developed societies provided access to at least a minimum standard of living and an adequate level of well-being, even among the lower classes
- Social welfare systems were adopted, either as a way to cope with the economic pain of the interwar years and the Great Depression or because of the new possibilities opened up by post-World War II prosperity
 - The British “dole” and Franklin Roosevelt’s New Deal in the United States were built during interwar years
 - Social welfare systems generally included some combination of unemployment insurance, pensions, and health care (at least for the elderly and poor if not the entire population)
 - In capitalist societies, they required a willingness to place a “safety net” under the workings of the free market and even to blend capitalism with some elements of socialism—the “middle” or “third way”

The Western World

- During and after the Cold War, the Western World experienced a gradual transition from industrial economies, still dominant in the 1950s and 1960s, to postindustrial economies, more the norm since the 1980s and 1990s
 - These tend to emphasize consumerism and service industries rather than manufacturing
 - It involved the creation of “knowledge economies” focused on computerization and cutting-edge technologies

- Among the countries leading the way here are the United States, Japan, Finland, and South Korea
- This change is associated with many innovations and opportunities
- As with the shift from agriculture and craftsmanship to industrialization during the 1800s, it has also caused stress
 - Many jobs were made obsolete by new machines or lost to cheaper labor overseas
 - Even the economic boom of the 1980s and 1990s was accompanied by a growing divide between the wealthiest members of Western societies and the less well-off, with increased burdens falling on a noticeably shrinking middle class
 - The economic collapse caused by the global financial crisis of 2007 has only worsened these trends

Communist Europe

- In communist Europe, many of these same trends played out during the Cold War but somewhat differently
 - Social welfare and universal education were at the heart of the state system
 - Class divisions were minimized, at least in theory
 - In reality, a communist elite—comprising about 10% of a given society and denounced by the Yugoslav intellectual Milovan Djilas as a corrupt and self-important “new class”—enjoyed enormous privileges
 - For everyone else, the social welfare systems provided “equality of poverty,” or, at best, “equality of adequacy”
 - Industrial manufacturing was strong, but the production of consumer goods was weak, and high-tech innovation outside the military sphere lagged
 - When communism finally collapsed in Eastern Europe and the USSR, a wrenching social and economic transition to free-market capitalism followed

Third-World

- In developing regions, or the Third-World, the socioeconomic reality is very different
 - Social division between the elite classes and the rest of society tended to remain wide, with a small middle class (if any) separating the very wealthy from the poor masses
 - Where social and economic modernization did take place, it was generally directed from above—sometimes in opposition to traditional religious outlooks or value systems, as in Turkey and pre-1979 Iran
 - The world has struggled with a pronounced north-south split, meaning that economic prosperity, social stability, and access to food, clean water, medical care, and cutting-edge technology have tended to be concentrated in the developed world, with many parts of the developing world running behind and still impoverished

Social Activism

- Social activism has been a part of social life since the American Revolution, but it has brought about particularly tremendous change during the 1900s and early 2000s
 - It played a leading role in national-liberation movements worldwide and in the struggle for racial equality
 - Antiapartheid movement in South Africa
 - Civil rights movement versus Jim Crow laws in the United States
 - It clashed with existing social and political orders
 - Various 1968 protests rocked city streets and college campuses from Paris and Prague to Mexico City and New York
 - Social activism gave voice to those who opposed nuclear weapons, Cold War conflicts like Vietnam, and damage to the environment
 - Anti-G7 and antiglobalization protests were common in the 1990s and 2000s
 - It has also advanced the cause of women’s liberation and gay rights
 - It has defied dictatorial regimes
 - Tiananmen Square protests in China in 1989 was unsuccessful but brave
 - There were more divisive results during the Solidarity strike against Poland’s communist government during the 1980s

- There were also related “people’s power” movements that brought down communism in Eastern Europe more widely in 1988 and 1989
- Social activism sparked the Arab Spring of 2010-2011

Ethnicity and Race Relations

Racial Tensions

- Ethnic violence, persecution of minorities, and segregation plagued societies of this era and continue to do so
- Genocides and mass killings were the most extreme form of ethnic violence
 - Armenian massacres of World War I
 - Extermination of Jews and Roma during World War II (Holocaust)
 - Guatemalan murder of Mayans in the 1980s
 - Rwandan genocide in the 1990s
 - Yugoslav ethnic killings in the 1990s
 - Arab killing of African Darfurians in Sudan during the early 2000s
- There are also certain regions where long-term ethnic tensions and sporadic violence persist
 - Indo-Pakistani animosity in South Asia
 - Israeli-Palestinian conflict in the Middle East
 - Intertribal rivalries in Africa
 - Greek-Turkish hostility on the island of Cyprus, divided since 1975
- Segregationist schemes existed to restrict the rights of unfavored ethnic groups or to keep them apart from the favored ethnic group
 - In colonies, imperial powers never allowed natives to mix freely with whites
 - Prior to the revolutions of 1917, Jews in Russia were not allowed to live outside the Pale of Settlement, a special zone in western Russia, Ukraine, and Belarus, without a permit
 - Jim Crow laws in the United States—enforced by lynching and legal/semilegal violence—perpetuated antiblack segregation in the south until protests and demonstrations by civil rights activists like Martin Luther King Jr. helped bring about passage of the Civil Rights Acts of 1964 and 1968
 - The South African system of apartheid, instituted in 1948 by white Afrikaners and rigidly enforced until the 1990s, earned South Africa decades of world disapproval and provoked opposition by the African National Congress, led most famously by Nelson Mandela
 - Throughout Eastern Europe, Roma (Gypsies) continue to be treated as distinctly second-class
 - In the Middle East, Kurds struggle against marginalization and seek freedom from governments like Turkey’s, Iraq’s, and Syria’s
- Indigenous Americans of all types struggled against secondary status and racial prejudice, whether in the United States and Canada or throughout Latin America
 - Some were forced onto reservations
 - Many were taken from their families as children, either to be adopted by white families or to be educated in residential schools, where abuse was rampant and native traditions were discouraged

Migration

- Migration, xenophobia, and anti-immigration sentiment have carried on from the 1800s
 - Migration continued to be motivated by work opportunities (including migrant and illegal labor), but warfare has done its share to prompt it as well, creating refugees and displaced persons by the millions
 - It has typically provided a much-needed labor force (if not always a well-treated one), and it has enriched the cultural diversity of host nations
 - When economic times are tight, it has stirred up anti-immigration sentiments that involve varying degrees of prejudice and discrimination, and sometimes involved race riots, skinhead movements, and nativist political parties that call for an end to immigration
 - Wartime can also trigger anti-immigration sentiment if a country is home to a large immigrant population originally from a nation that it is fighting
 - Distrust of German Americans and German Canadians ran high during World War I
 - During World War II, both Canada and America rounded up tens of thousands of Japanese Canadians and Japanese Americans without cause and confined them against their will to

“relocation centers”—the largest and most infamous of these was Manzanar, near California’s Sierra Nevada

- The movement of peoples intensified after World War II
 - During the late 1940s and 1950s, refugees from Eastern Europe, where Nazi genocide and Soviet occupation caused massive population transfers, moved to Western Europe or North America or the newly formed state of Israel
 - During the postwar period, economic opportunity, violence in the developing world, and political repression led millions to leave Asia, Africa, the Middle East, and Latin America for Western Europe and North America
- Migrations increased in scope during and after decolonization as countries that dismantled their empires allowed former colonial subjects to live and work in the metropole, or “home” country
 - Indians, Pakistanis, and Caribbean islanders traveled in large numbers to Britain
 - Indonesians migrated to the Netherlands
 - Algerians and Moroccans came to France
 - Filipinos and Puerto Ricans migrated to the United States
- The late Cold War also prompted migration
 - There was an increase in legal and illegal immigration of Latin Americans to the United States and Canada
 - The admission of guest workers to Western Europe amounted to 15 million by the 1980s, many of them Turks living in Germany
 - The collapse of communism in the Soviet bloc and the rise in ethnic conflict in places like the former Yugoslavia caused new waves of migration
- Since 2011, the Syrian civil war has forced millions of refugees to flee the country

Gender Issues

The Western World

- In Europe and North America, women suffrage movements scored major successes during and after World War II
 - Large numbers of women had taken jobs as farmhands and factory workers, especially in munition plants
 - Women also served as nurses and uniformed auxiliaries, and their contributions to their countries’ war efforts earned them much respect
 - It was largely because of this that women received the right to vote in many Western nations between 1917 and 1920, with Spain, France, and Italy standing out as noteworthy exceptions
 - The right to hold office generally came as well
- Except in the USSR, where rapid industrialization required as large a workforce as possible, the rate of female employment decreased in Europe and North America in the 1920s and 1930s
 - As men returned from World War I, they took back their old jobs
 - During the mass unemployment caused by the Great Depression, it was considered wrong for women to have jobs if men were out of work
- The interwar dictatorships differed sharply in their treatment of women
 - In the USSR, Marxist ideology called for gender equality, and while the Soviets observed this ideal imperfectly (especially under Stalin), women made up a large part of the workforce
 - In contrast, Italian fascism, German Nazism, and Japanese traditionalism were explicitly hostile to the concept of gender equality—in all three countries, women were expected to be principally mothers and homemakers
- World War II brought women into the workplace in even greater numbers than World War I had
 - “Rosie the Riveter” became a symbol of the role of women in the U.S. wartime production
 - In the Soviet Union, women made up nearly 40% of the national workforce
 - Large numbers of American, Canadian, Australian, New Zealand, and British women served as war nurses and military personnel (although not as combat troops)
 - In the USSR, women served in the military and, in some limited cases, saw active duty in combat—mainly as pilots and snipers
 - Although there was a temporary dip in female unemployment afterward, World War II served the purpose of permanently cementing a place for women in the working world—at least in North America and Europe

- More countries, including holdouts like France and Italy, gave women the vote after the war
- During the postwar years, women in the developed world assumed an increasingly larger role in the workplace and in public life
- However, during the late 1940s and 1950s, it was still generally considered that a woman's main roles were that of homemaker and childbearer
 - Women who worked were subjected to widespread gender discrimination: sexual harassment, unequal wages, and lack of access to positions of leadership (the "glass ceiling")
 - French philosopher Simone de Beauvoir analyzed the place of women in modern society in *The Second Sex* (1949), which investigated the deep-seated cultural and biological reasons for male domination of women
- A greater step toward equality was taken by women in the Western world during the 1960s and 1970s when the modern feminist movement began to press for women's liberation
 - Women's liberation didn't just mean legal equality and the right to vote; it was the elimination of cultural stereotypes of women as the "weaker sex" and of social barriers that still blocked the way toward full equality
 - Major figures here came from the United States
 - Gloria Steinem, a founding figure in the National Organization for Women (NOW)
 - Betty Friedan, whose book *The Feminine Mystique* (1963) joined *The Second Sex* as part of the feminist movement's intellectual foundation
 - NOW organized a major event, the Women's Strike for Equality (1970), although it failed in its larger goal of passing an Equal Rights Amendment to the U.S. Constitution
 - Achievements of the women's movement include:
 - Better and more varied career opportunities and higher pay
 - Greater respect for women's athletics
 - Equal access to higher education
 - Greater role in political life
 - Right to equality in marriage and divorce
 - Reproductive rights have given women unprecedented control over pregnancy and sexuality
 - Postwar development of reliable contraception, especially birth control pills
 - Gradual legalization of abortion
- LGBTQ rights movements in Europe and North America has also gained momentum
 - In the United States, the contemporary gay rights movement began with the Stonewall riots of 1969 in New York's Greenwich Village
 - Despite gay pride parades and protests since the 1970s and despite growing awareness of gay, lesbian, and transgender relationships, wider acceptance and the formalization of equal rights have been a longer time in coming
 - Same-sex marriage became legal only in the 2000s—in over two dozen countries as of now, including the United States

The Non-Western World

- Women's suffrage came more slowly and partially in the non-Western World
 - Mexico's 1917 constitution granted women the right to vote, and much of Latin America did the same during the 1920s and 1930s, including Brazil in 1932
 - Turkey gave women the vote in 1934, but this was a rarity in the Middle East and Islamic North Africa—Morocco, for example, followed suit only in 1963
 - Japan established universal suffrage in 1945, and India and China did so in 1947
- Progress toward gender equality has been uneven
 - In many societies, women are still relegated to traditional and secondary roles, even though the vast majority of societies allow women more rights and legal protections than they once did
 - Islamic fundamentalism, conservative Catholicism, machismo, and old-fashioned views of women as inferior (or of wives as servants or property) constrain women more commonly in these regions than in the West

- In sub-Saharan Africa, rates of HIV/AIDS infection among women are unusually high owing to the reluctance of many African men to engage in safe-sex practices
- The custom of clitoridectomy (female circumcision) is still practiced in certain parts of Africa

Humans and the Environment (1945 to the Present)

Disease, Health, and Population in the Contemporary Era

Epidemics and Pandemics

- Diseases associated with poverty, such as malaria, cholera, and tuberculosis, persist
- Vaccination campaigns and other public-health initiatives have in many cases reduced or even eliminated certain diseases
 - Polio and smallpox, formerly huge killers, are among the illnesses that have been all but eradicated
 - Treatments for formerly incurable venereal diseases, such as syphilis, have been developed as well
- New epidemic diseases have emerged, their global spread made easier by better and faster transportation
 - Spanish influenza
 - AIDS (acquired immune deficiency syndrome)
 - SARS (severe acute respiratory syndrome)
 - Ebola
 - Avian flu
- The influenza outbreak of 1918, or the Spanish flu, was the era's first and most deadly epidemic
 - It infected 500 million people between early 1918 and late 1920
 - It killed approximately 40-100 million people
 - Although the earliest reports of it came from Spain, where wartime censorship did not apply, it may have arisen in Asia, where the vast majority of deaths seem to have occurred
 - Global movement of soldiers and supply shipments during the final months of World War I, not to mention the displacement of peoples and demobilization of troops afterward, helped to spread Spanish flu to all quarters of the globe
- Other strains of influenza repeatedly threaten to reach pandemic status
 - H1N1 virus, or the swine flu pandemic, caused great panic in 2009
 - Since its identification in the mid-1970s in Africa, the Ebola virus, which causes severe internal bleeding and kills a high percentage of its victims, has threatened several times to erupt as a major disease beyond Africa's borders
- HIV/AIDS quickly became a global phenomenon
 - Originated in Africa and identified in 1981
 - Has killed over 30 million people worldwide
 - Spread via blood or sexual transmission
 - Remained highly fatal until the development of effective treatments in the late 1990s and early 2000s, but is still incurable
 - High rates of infection in Africa, where it is a particular scourge

Lifestyle Diseases

- There has also been the proliferation of diseases associated with sedentary lifestyles and increased longevity
 - Diets high in sugar and other processed foods—particularly North American food habits—have caused a rapid increase in diabetes, heart disease, and obesity worldwide
 - Tooth decay, virtually unknown among the Inuit of the Arctic and other hunter-forager peoples who had preserved their traditional ways, became rampant among them during the 1900s as they adopted Western diets
 - Medical advances in developed societies and the resulting extension of average human life spans into the eighties have placed larger numbers of people at risk of Alzheimer's disease and other ailments associated with old age

Population Growth

- Population growth during this era has been breathtaking

- The world population has grown from 1.6 billion in 1900, 3 billion in 1960, 6 billion by 1980, to more than 7.5 billion today
- Even in developed nations, where birthrates have tended to decline, population has increased
- In the developing and less developed worlds, birthrates are climbing
- Overconsumption of food, overproduction of waste and pollution, and sheer overcrowding are all possible consequences of unchecked growth

The Modern Environmental Movement

- Ever since the Industrial Revolution, there has been a spirit of environmentalism, striving to prevent the natural world from overdevelopment or destruction
 - Romantic movement's love for nature sparked popular concerns about the effects of industrialization
 - Figures such as Henry Thoreau and Ralph Waldo Emerson promoted environmentalist ideals during the 1800s
- Modern conservation efforts date back to the creation of national parks and national park services
 - Yellowstone in 1872 was the first national park in the world
 - Canada led the way in national park services in 1911, followed by the United States in 1916
 - Activism by figures such as the Scottish-American naturalist John Muir, cofounder of the Sierra Club, and President Theodore Roosevelt, an avid outdoorsman, were crucial at the turn of the century
- Environmental awareness hugely expanded after World War II (1945) with the rise of the contemporary environmental (or green) movement
 - This arose with the growing evidence that pollution, species extinction, and unregulated industrialization posed undeniable threats to the earth's ecological well-being
 - Under the United Nations, the International Union for Conservation of Nature (IUCN, founded in 1948) began maintaining a "red list" of endangered species and continues to monitor the issue today
 - Many green groups and organizations took shape in the 1960s and 1970s in both North America and Western Europe
 - A major inspiration came with the 1962 publication of *Silent Spring*, by Rachel Carson, who warned of the dangers connected with the insecticide DDT
 - The first celebration of Earth Day—now an annual event on April 22—also popularized the environmental movement
- Nongovernmental organizations (NGOs) working on behalf of the environment have become globally influential
 - These include the World Wildlife Fund (1961) and Greenpeace, founded in the years 1969-1972 out of protests against atomic testing in Alaska
 - Greenpeace is one of the most interventionist eco-activist groups, which a policy of "direct action" to impede industrial, hunting, and fishing efforts
 - The World Fair Trade Organization, founded in 1989, strives for environmental sustainability as well as economic justice
 - Kenya's Green Belt Movement, established in 1977 by Wangari Maathai, is a prominent example of ecofeminism, as it trained large numbers of women to fight deforestation by planting trees and engaging in ecotourism
- In certain countries, especially in Western Europe, green parties play an important role in electoral politics
 - Contemporary environmental efforts are largely focused on the problem of climate change
- Among the environmentalist triumphs of the 1970s and 1980s—at least in the developed world—were the rise of recycling as a common practice, greater protection of endangered species (including a near-complete moratorium on whaling), and stricter laws to ensure clean air and clean water

Pollution, Earth Shaping, and Global Warming

Earth-Shaping

- Earth-shaping capacity has dramatically increased thanks to escalating industrialization, greater scientific aptitude, and massive engineering projects
- The Green Revolution was a massive campaign from the 1940s through the 1970s to improve agricultural production
 - Mainly applied to the developing world

- Included clearing more land, relying on new scientific techniques, and using new fertilizers and insecticides
- Began with improvements in corn production in Mexico during the 1940s and exported to India, China, and the Middle East (where famines had previously threatened populations on a regular basis)
- Resulted in greater deforestation, increased water consumption, and the extensive use of pesticides
- Prior to the Green Revolution, famine and other forms of agricultural downturn periodically occurred
 - Human-caused famines struck the USSR in the 1930s and China in the 1950s
 - Natural famines blighted India in the 1940s and Ethiopia in the 1980s
 - The dust bowl crisis of the 1930s—during which thousands of square miles of fertile American and Canadian soil were lost to a disastrous combination of aridity and huge windstorms—drastically lowered agricultural output and added extra stress to the Great Depression
- Dam building and the diversion of rivers constitute another form of earth shaping, one increasingly frequent during the 1990s and the 2000s
 - Projects like the Hoover Dam in Depression-era America, the Dnieprostroi hydroelectric complex in Stalinist Russia, Egypt's Aswan High Dam, and China's mammoth Three Gorges Dam have all left gigantic ecological footprints
 - Sizable bodies of water—such as the Aral Sea, between Kazakhstan and Uzbekistan—have dried up or suffered irreversible damage due to the rerouting of rivers
- The environmental impact of warfare can be considered its own form of earth shaping
 - Radiation for nuclear weapons testing (in the Pacific, off Alaska, in Central Asia, and in the Soviet Arctic)
 - Biological and chemical warfare between Iran and Iraq during the 1970s
 - Use of napalm and Agent Orange to wipe out forests during the Vietnam War
 - Destruction of oil wells during times of armed conflict, especially in the Middle East

Pollution

- Pollution remains an ever-present threat, whether on ground or in the air and water
 - Communities continue to generate more trash and toxic waste, burn more fossil fuels, and release more emissions into the air and water with every passing year
 - Habitats like wetlands, rain forests, and polar ecosystems have been especially harmed
 - In numerous urban settings—Tokyo, Los Angeles, Mexico City, Delhi, and many cities in China and Russia—air quality reaches noxious levels on a routine basis
- Certain environmental disasters have proved particularly devastating
 - Bhopal incident of 1984, when a Union Carbide pesticide factory killed thousands in India with an accidental release of poison gas
 - 1989 wreck of the oil tanker Exxon Valdez off the Alaskan coast
 - 2010 Deepwater oil platform blowout in the Gulf of Mexico
- Before the elimination of chlorofluorocarbons (CFCs) in spray form, deep concerns arose during the 1980s and 1990s that the atmosphere's protective ozone layer would become dangerously depleted
- There has been the inability or unwillingness to move more completely toward adopting sources of clean, sustainable energy
 - Continued reliance on fossil fuels such as coal and petroleum leads to periodic shortages, economic dilemmas, and continued pollution
 - Hydroelectric generation of electric power has its limits, and the dams required for it create huge geological stress
 - Increased development of wind, solar, and geothermal power is still in many cases inadequately supported by governments or corporations
 - Corporations, whose profits depend on fossil-fuel technologies, have actively opposed such experiments at times
 - The only alternative source of energy that has met with any success is nuclear power, but it carries risks as demonstrated by nuclear accidents at Three Mile Island in Pennsylvania (1979), Chernobyl in Ukraine (1986), and Fukushima in Japan (2011)
- The Chernobyl disaster of 1986 was the world's most damaging nonmilitary nuclear event, and it exposed the systematic weaknesses of the crumbling Soviet Union

- Killed 8,00 in the short term
- Thousands more fell ill or died afterward
- Fallout spread far beyond the USSR's borders, poisoning fish and reindeer as far away as Scandinavia
- A large exclusion zone in Ukraine and Belarus is still off-limits

Climate Change

- The most dangerous environmental issue of the present day is climate change in the form of global warming
 - Trend is caused by the human-produced emission of carbon-based greenhouse gases
 - Combination of a thinner ozone layer, which allows more of the sun's heat to enter the atmosphere, and greater quantities of greenhouse gases, which keep that heat trapped in the atmosphere, makes the problem doubly acute
 - Resulting rise in average temperatures became steadily more noticeable during the 1900s and then spiked upward in the 1980s and 1990s
 - Effects also include the catastrophic melting of Arctic, Antarctic, and glacial ice
 - Recent natural disasters such as Hurricane Katrina, the Southeast Asian tsunami, and Superstorm Sandy are also thought by many scientists to indicate the erratic effects that global warming appears to have on planetary weather patterns
- International efforts to combat climate change have met with limited success
 - There was the Kyoto Summit (1997), where over 150 nations gathered to discuss the dangers of global warming, and a similar gathering in Paris in 2015
 - Although a Kyoto Protocol was hammered out in the 1990s, many countries, including the United States, did not ratify it
 - The 2015 Paris Agreement was more widely embraced, but its terms are voluntary and nonbinding
 - A point of conflict when it comes to international cooperation on climate change is the question of whether industrializing countries in the less developed world should be compelled to abide by the same clean-air regulations as the richer nations of the developed world
 - A wave of climate-change denial has arisen during the 2000s, sponsored by corporate and political interest with the goal of convincing the public to disregard the consensus that climate change is an urgent matter for concern
 - America's 2017 decision to opt out of the Paris Agreement has also weakened efforts to combat climate change

Summary

Governance

- During the first half of the 1900s, two world wars reshaped global affairs. Europe's position of global dominance was weakened by World War I, and the United States became the world's richest and most powerful nation. World War II completed the dismantling of Europe's global dominance. Both were total wars that required near-complete mobilization of human and economic resources.
- For four and a half decades after World War II, most of the world was divided into hostile camps led by two superpowers, the United States and USSR. in a geopolitical struggle known as the Cold War. This involved a nuclear arms race, the largest weapons buildup in world history, and the creation of huge military-industrial complexes.
- From the 1940s through the 1970s, a mass wave of decolonization deprived the European powers of their empires. Sometimes through peaceful negotiations, sometimes through violent separation, former colonies in Asia, Africa, and the Pacific became free. Dozens of new nations formed.
- Countries that were neither Western nor Soviet bloc came to be seen as belonging to the so-called Third World. These nations, many recently decolonized and most relatively backward in terms of economic and technological development, experimented with a variety of political and economic systems. During the Cold War, some sided with the United States or the USSR, while others attempted to remain neutral or even to join together in a nonaligned movement. Some were attracted to Communist China, whose emerging rivalry with the USSR complicated the bipolarity of the Cold War.

- During the late 1980s and 1990s, communism in Eastern Europe and the USSR collapsed, ending the Cold War. The only remaining superpower since has been the United States, with China—which remained communist—as a rising power.
- The terrorist attacks of September 11, 2001, by al-Qaeda began a new global struggle, the U.S.-led war on terror. This sharpened tensions between the West and the Islamic world and sparked wars in Iraq and Afghanistan. Terrorism in general (carried out by groups such as the ETA, the IRA, and PLO, Hamas, and others) played a significant role in international politics in the 1900s and continues to do so in the 2000s.
- New weapons and tactics were constantly developed. Wars became increasingly destructive and caused greater numbers of casualties, especially among civilian populations. They also created larger numbers of displaced persons and refugees.
- Warfare became increasingly connected with racial hatred and campaigns of ethnic violence such as the Holocaust. The term “genocide” was coined during World War II to describe such crises. Conversely and largely because of this trend, a greater concern for human rights and wider recognition of the need to safeguard them arose.
- By the 1990s and early 2000s, the gap between high-tech and low-level warfare had grown wider than ever before. The most advanced armed forces possess weapons of mass destruction, precision-guided (“smart”) weapons, and—thanks to what strategists call the revolution in military affairs—digitally integrated systems. Much of the rest of the world fights in low-intensity or guerrilla wars, using only small arms and hand-to-hand weapons.
- Domestically, the level of popular representation in national governments grew in many countries. Women gained the vote in most Western nations in the early twentieth century and later elsewhere.
- Between the world wars, democracies tended to be politically weak and economically depressed. The interwar states that seemed to enjoy the greatest political momentum were dictatorships, including totalitarian regimes which aimed to control as many aspects of their subjects’ lives as possible.
- After World War II, the primary form of political and economic organization in the West (Canada, the United States, and Western Europe) was the democratic state with a capitalist system, although capitalism was modified to varying degrees by social welfare systems.
- A number of regimes, led by the Soviet Union and China, adopted communist economic systems. Their political systems tended to be dictatorial.
- Military and authoritarian dictatorships proliferated throughout the Third World during the Cold War, some of them pro-Soviet, some of them pro-U.S., and some of them neutral. Many have been democratized during the 1990s and early 200s, although with varying degrees of success.
- Entities other than nation-states, including regional trade organizations (such as the European Union and NAFTA), nongovernmental organizations (such as Amnesty International and the Red Cross), and multinational corporations (such as Coca-Cola, Shell Oil, and McDonald’s), began to exert greater influence over world affairs.
- Unofficial actors, including antiwar protesters, civil-rights and freedom activists, and proponents of nonviolent resistance (most famously Mohandas Gandhi and Martin Luther King Jr.), affected political events on numerous occasions.

Governance, 1900 to the Present	
Europe	<p>World War I (1914-1918, trench warfare) and Paris Peace Conference (1919, Treaty of Versailles)</p> <p>Russia’s October Revolution (1917, Vladimir Lenin)</p> <p>Weakness of interwar democracies (effects of Great Depression) vs. rise of totalitarian dictatorships (Soviet Russia, Fascist Italy, Nazi Germany)</p> <p>Civilian involvement in war (Guernica, Battle of Britain, strategic bombing and Dresden)</p> <p>Collective security vs. appeasement in 1930s diplomacy (Munich Agreement)</p> <p>World War II (1939-1945, blitzkrieg, aerial warfare)</p> <p>Genocide (Holocaust, ethnic cleansing in Yugoslav wars)</p> <p>Cold War rivalry (arms race and MAD, containment and domino principle, détente, fall of Berlin Wall)</p> <p>“Iron Curtain” division of Europe (NATO vs. Warsaw Pact, Berlin Wall)</p> <p>Social welfare systems and economic union in Western Europe (EU)</p> <p>Eastern European dissidents (Solidarity) and Gorbachev’s perestroika in USSR</p>

	Collapse of European communism (1989-1991) and postcommunist “shock therapy” (1990s)
Middle East	World War I (1914-1918, Gallipoli) Genocide (Armenians in Ottoman Empire) Paris Peace Conference and the mandate system Interwar modernization under Mustafa Kemal Ataturk and Reza Shah Pahlavi Arab-Israel conflict (Balfour Declaration, partition of Palestine, Arab-Israeli wars, PLO and Hamas, Camp David and Oslo accords, First and Second Intifadas) OPEC and geopolitical importance of Middle Eastern oil Gamal Nasser (pan-Arabism) and nationalization of Suez Canal Iranian Revolution (1979, Shah of Iran vs. Ayatollah Khomeini) Iran-Iraq War and Gulf War (Desert Storm) al-Qaeda attacks of 9/11/2001 and U.S.-led “war on terror” (Iraq, Afghanistan) Arab Spring + Syrian civil war + ISIS
Africa	Civilian involvement in war (Italian terror bombing of Ethiopia, child soldiers, Boko Haram abductions) Negotiated vs. violent decolonization of Africa (Ghana and French West Africa vs. Algeria, Congo, and Biafra) Kwame Nkrumah and pan-Africanism (Organization of African Unity) Authoritarianism in Africa (Joseph Mobutu, Idi Amin, Muammar Gaddafi) Apartheid in South Africa (African National Congress, Nelson Mandela) Genocide (Rwanda, Darfur) Impact of HIV/AIDS on society and politics
East and Central Asia	Chinese Revolution (1911-1912, Sun Yat-sen, Chiang Kai-shek, and KMT) Japanese invasion of China (1931+) and World War II (1939-1945, East Asian Co-Prosperity Sphere) Civilian involvement in war (Nanjing, Tokyo firebombing, Hiroshima) Japan’s economic resurgence and Asia’s “little tigers” Mao Zedong and People’s Republic of China (1949+, Great Leap Forward, Cultural Revolution) Korean War (1950-1953) Deng Xiaoping (economic reform in China, Tiananmen Square protests) Economic growth and potential superpower status for Communist China Nuclear weapons in North Korea
South and Southeast Asia and Oceania	National liberation in India (Indian National Congress, Mohandas Gandhi and nonviolence) World War II (1939-1945, East Asian Co-Prosperity Sphere) Indochina and Vietnam wars (1945-1975, Ho Chi Minh) Indian and Pakistani independence (1947, Jawaharlal Nehru) Indonesian war of independence (1945-1949, Sukarno) Genocide (Khmer Rouge in Cambodia) Indo-Pakistani rivalry and nuclear weapons
Americas	U.S. sphere of influence in Latin America Mexican Revolution (1910-1920, PRI) Cold War rivalry (arms race and MAD, containment and domino principle, détente, fall of Berlin Wall) Authoritarianism in Latin America (Juan Perón, Augusto Pinochet, death squads) Genocide (Mayans in Guatemala) Cuban Revolution (1959, Fidel Castro, Bay of Pigs, Cuban Missile Crisis) Nicaraguan Revolution (1979, Sandinistas vs. Contras)
Global and Interregional	International organizations (League of Nations, United Nations, GATT/WTO, International Criminal Court) Total wars (civilian casualties, economic mobilization, conscription, restrictions on civil liberties) Ethnic violence and genocide World War I and World War II Global impact of Cold War (proxy wars and brushfire conflicts)

	Decolonization and national liberation Rise of terrorism (Black Hand, PLO, IRA, FLQ, Weather Underground, Hamas, al-Qaeda, ISIS) Asymmetrical warfare (WMDs and RMA vs. low-intensity and guerilla wars) Nuclear proliferation (“nuclear club” vs. Israel, India, Pakistan, North Korea, Iran)
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Cultural Developments and Interactions

- Mass media and mass communications technology transformed the cultural sphere. Cinema, radio, television, and other electronic media have been used to create high art.
- Mass media have also been used to create popular (or mass) culture: music, literature, and other forms aimed at a popular audience for purposes of entertainment.
- Governments increasingly used mass media to create propaganda, or art with political messages.
- The high art of the twentieth century was characterized by bold experimentation and the distortion, even abandonment, of traditional norms and conventions.
- During the first two-thirds of the 1900s, largely because of Europe’s decline, Freudian thought, and the two world wars, Western high art was marked by uncertainty and pessimism—in contrast to the exuberance and energy of popular, or mass, culture
- After World War II, Western culture began to move beyond the “modern” period into a newer “postmodern” era.
- Global cultures have mixed, interacted, and blended to an unprecedented degree. The celebration and acknowledgment of different traditions and styles is generally referred to as multiculturalism.
- Computer digitization and social media have shaped the production of art and culture worldwide.
- New forms of spirituality, many of then synthetically combining elements of old religions with new beliefs, appeared. Whether old or new, religious beliefs were in many cases used to advance political agendas. Religious fundamentalism has proved influential in many places throughout this period.

Cultural Developments and Interactions, 1900 to the Present	
Europe	Uncertainty and anxiety in high culture (impact of world wars, Freudian thought) Mass media (high culture, entertainment, propaganda) Digitization and social media Sports professionalized and politicized Existentialism Synthetic spirituality (new age, Hare Krishna)
Middle East	Adoption and adaption of Western high culture Mass media (high culture, entertainment, propaganda) Digitization and social media Sports professionalized and politicized Americanization and Westernization of global culture (“coca-colonization”) Religious fundamentalism
Africa	Adoption and adaption of Western high culture Mass media (high culture, entertainment, propaganda) Digitization and social media Sports professionalized and politicized Americanization and Westernization of global culture (“coca-colonization”)
East and Central Asia	Adoption and adaption of Western high culture Mass media (high culture, entertainment, propaganda) Digitization and social media Sports professionalized and politicized Americanization and Westernization of global culture (“coca-colonization”) Synthetic spirituality (Falun Gong)
South and Southeast Asia and Oceania	Adoption and adaption of Western high culture Mass media (high culture, entertainment, propaganda)

	Digitization and social media Sports professionalized and politicized Americanization and Westernization of global culture (“coca-colonization”) Religious fundamentalism
Americas	Uncertainty and anxiety in high culture (impact of world wars, Freudian thought) Mass media (high culture, entertainment, propaganda) Digitization and social media Sports professionalized and politicized Existentialism Americanization and Westernization of Latin American culture (“coca-colonization”) Synthetic spirituality (new age, Hare Krishna) Religious fundamentalism Liberation theology
Global and Interregional	Modernity vs. postmodernity Multiculturalism (Marshall McLuhan’s “global village,” Bollywood, manga) Impact of global conflict on mass culture (James Bond, video games) Social media Sports professionalized and politicised (modern Olympics)

Technology and Innovation

- Scientific and technological advancement proceeded on a breathtaking scale, accelerating even beyond the rapid pace set during the industrial era of the 1800s.
- Breakthroughs in the realm of physics included the theory of relativity and quantum theory, both of which disrupted Newtonian physics and probed questions on the astronomical and subatomic levels.
- New sources of power became available, including nuclear energy, improved wind power, solar energy, and geothermal energy.
- Innovations in agricultural science and technology boosted food production and, in parts of Latin America and Asia, led to a so-called Green Revolution between the 1940s and 1970s.
- Advancement in military technology, spurred on by both world wars and the subsequent Cold War, vastly increased the destructive capabilities of military forces worldwide.
- New discoveries and inventions were pioneered in the fields of aviation, rocketry, and space science.
- Medical, pharmaceutical, and biotechnological advances—including the discovery of DNA—have extended human life expectancy and created the potential for genetic engineering.
- Consumer electronics and mass media have become central to modern life worldwide.
- Since the 1990s, the proliferation of personal computer technology—combined with the rise of the Internet, the World Wide Web, and social media—has led to a digital revolution in how modern societies work, communicate, and process information.

Technology and Innovation, 1900 to the Present	
Europe	Fastest and most thorough process in new scientific fields
Middle East	Ongoing progress in new scientific fields
Africa	Ongoing progress in new scientific fields
East and Central Asia	Fast and thorough progress in new scientific fields (mainly in postwar period)
South and Southeast Asia and Oceania	Ongoing progress in new scientific fields (fast and thorough in certain places)
Americas	Progress in new scientific fields (fastest and most thorough in North America)

Global and Interregional	Varying degrees of progress in new scientific fields Theoretical physics (relativity and quantum theory) Nuclear power + renewable energy (wind, solar, geothermal) Agricultural science and technology (Green Revolution) Aviation + rocketry and space science New weaponry Medical advances + genetic science (discovery of DNA) Consumer electronics + mass media + social media Computers and the digital (information) revolution
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Economic Systems

- During the first half of the 1900s, most of Europe, Canada, and the United States fully industrialized. Certain other parts of the world achieved significant degrees of modernization and industrialization, including Japan, parts of Latin America, and China.
- During the 1930s, the Great Depression, emanating from the United States, negatively affected the economies of most of Europe and Latin America as well as Asia and Africa.
- Fascist and authoritarian regimes typically relied on state-directed forms of capitalism to regulate their economies with varying degrees of heavy-handedness.
- A number of countries experimented with communist economies: the Soviet Union, some Eastern European nations, China, North Korea, Cuba, Vietnam, and others.
- After World War II, the primary form of political and economic organization in North America and Western Europe was the democratic state with a capitalist system, although capitalism was modified to varying degrees by social welfare systems. During the Cold War, a wide split separated these economic systems from those of the communist blocs led by the Soviet Union and China.
- A different split emerged between the developed world, whose prosperity steadily grew (with some regressions, as during the 1970s), and the nondeveloped or developing world (or Third World), which lagged behind. Because so many nondeveloped and developing nations are located near or south of the equator, this disparity is sometimes referred to as the north-south split.
- Also after World War II, an elaborate system of international economic organizations appeared, influential mainly in the West and in the Third World, including the General Agreement on Trade and Tariffs (GATT), the World Bank, and the International Monetary Fund (IMF).
- After the 1950s and 1960s, Western economies began to move from industrial production to postindustrial production, based less on manufacturing and more on service, high-tech fields, and computers. This trend continues.
- During the 1970s, a general economic crisis, characterized by oil shortages, recession, and unemployment, struck the capitalist West. A general rise in prosperity—associated with an emphasis on free-market economics but not necessarily equitably distributed throughout society—took place in Western economies during the 1980s and 1990s. The same was true in China. The Soviet bloc experienced a severe economic downturn.
- The 1980s and 1990s were an era of greater economic globalization as international trade, economic regionalization (as typified by NAFTA and the European Union), and the clout of multinational corporations became increasingly important. This trend continues.
- A worldwide financial crisis, arguably the worse since the Great Depression, struck in 2007. Its effects still linger.

Economic Systems, 1900 to the Present	
Europe	Impact of Great Depression (low exports, mass unemployment) Economic intervention: Soviet nationalization (five-year plans) + state capitalism (syndicalism) in fascist nations + democracies' relief and welfare programs (Keynesian Theory) Bretton Woods system (World Bank, IMF, GATT) Marshall Plan vs. Soviet economic zone in Eastern Europe Economic union in Western Europe (European Coal and Steel, European Economic Community, European Union) 1970s economic crisis (gold standard, oil embargo, stagflation)

	<p>1980s free-market reform and economic liberalization (Margaret Thatcher and theories of Milton Friedman; Mikhail Gorbachev and perestroika)</p> <p>Globalization in 1990s and 2000s</p> <p>G7/G8</p> <p>EU and the euro (“eurozone”)</p> <p>2007 economic crisis + 2016 Brexit vote</p>
Middle East	<p>Bretton Woods system (World Bank, IMF, GATT)</p> <p>State intervention: Nasser’s nationalization of the Suez Canal</p> <p>OPEC</p> <p>1970s economic crisis (gold standard, oil embargo, stagflation)</p> <p>Globalization in 1990s and 2000s</p> <p>North-South split</p> <p>2007 economic crisis and aftereffects</p>
Africa	<p>Bretton Woods system (World Bank, IMF, GATT)</p> <p>1970s economic crisis (gold standard, oil embargo, stagflation)</p> <p>Globalization in 1990s and 2000s</p> <p>African Free Trade Zone</p> <p>North-South split</p> <p>2007 economic crisis and aftereffects</p>
East and Central Asia	<p>Economic intervention: state capitalism (zaibatsu) in imperial Japan</p> <p>Impact of Great Depression (low exports, mass unemployment)</p> <p>Bretton Woods system (World Bank, IMF, GATT) + Asia’s economic “tigers”</p> <p>1970s economic crisis (gold standard, oil embargo, stagflation)</p> <p>G7/G8 (Japan)</p> <p>Economic intervention: Mao’s Great Leap Forward</p> <p>1980s free-market reform and economic liberalization (Deng Xiaoping’s limited capitalism in China)</p> <p>Asia-Pacific Economic Cooperation group</p> <p>Globalization in 1990s and 2000s</p> <p>Some nations affected by the north-south split</p> <p>2007 economic crisis and aftereffects</p>
South and Southeast Asia and Oceania	<p>Bretton Woods system (World Bank, IMF, GATT)</p> <p>1970s economic crisis (gold standard, oil embargo, stagflation)</p> <p>Globalization in 1990s and 2000s</p> <p>North-South split</p> <p>2007 economic crisis and aftereffects</p>
Americas	<p>U.S. origins of Great Depression (Smoot-Hawley Tariff Act)</p> <p>Economic intervention: New Deal (Keynesian theory) + Cárdenas’s nationalization of Mexico’s oil industry</p> <p>Impact of the Great Depression on Latin America (low exports, mass unemployment)</p> <p>Bretton Woods system (World Bank, IMF, GATT)</p> <p>1970s economic crisis (gold standard, oil embargo, stagflation)</p> <p>G7/G8</p> <p>1980s free-market reform and economic liberalization (Ronald Reagan, Augusto Pinochet, and theories of Milton Friedman)</p> <p>Globalization of 1990s and 2000s</p> <p>NAFTA + Mercosur</p> <p>2007 economic crisis and aftereffects</p>
Global and Interregional	<p>Partial or widespread industrialization of nondeveloped and developing world</p> <p>Dominance of postindustrial and service economies in developed world</p> <p>Observance of Bretton Woods system by majority of noncommunist world</p> <p>Growing importance of multinational corporations</p> <p>Rise of regional economic associations and free-trade zones</p>

Social Interactions and Organization

- In the West, labor unions grew in power during the first half of the century. During the 1920s and especially during the Great Depression of the 1930s, many capitalist societies adopted social welfare policies (the British “dole,” the U.S. New Deal, Scandinavia’s “third way”) to provide a social safety net.
- The middle class became more dominant and numerous in developed societies by World War II, and this trend depended during the postwar era. In communist societies, class divisions were minimized, at least in theory. In the developing world, class divisions between the elite and the rest of society were very wide.
- Gender equality made great strides during the twentieth century in the developed world. Most women there received the right to vote after World War I. Job opportunities increased, partly due to world wars, especially World War II.
- The postwar development of reliable contraception, especially birth-control pills, gave women unprecedented control over pregnancy and sexuality. The gradual legalization of abortion, while controversial, did the same.
- During the 1960s and 1970s, a powerful feminist movement agitating for women’s liberation and equal rights swept Canada, the United States, and most of Europe. Since then, women’s movements have sought to achieve more than simple legal equality and the right to vote. Their goals have been full cultural and economic equality and deeper changes in social norms and behaviors.
- Progress toward equal treatment of women has been uneven in other parts of the world.
- Migration has remained as much of a global reality in this era as during the 1800s. Work opportunities continue to motivate migration, but refugees and displaced persons have migrated in huge numbers because of war. In addition, many Western nations have allowed significant levels of migration from their former colonies. Anti-immigration sentiment remains common.
- Racial tensions divided many communities and nations. Racial segregation and ethnic violence—official and unofficial—plagued societies throughout this era.
- The collapse of communism in Eastern Europe and the USSR forced a number of countries to make the painful social and economic transitions from communism to free-market capitalism.
- Many parts of the West, including the United States, experienced a general rise in prosperity from the 1980s through the financial collapse of 2007. However, this was accompanied by a growing split between rich and poor and increased burdens on the middle class.
- Globally, the world still struggles with a north-south split, meaning that economic prosperity and access to cutting-edge technology, medical care, and social stability tend to be concentrated in the developed world, with many parts of the developing world lagging behind and still impoverished.

Social Interactions and Organization, 1900 to the Present	
Europe	<p>Features of Western and developed societies (transition to postindustrial and service-oriented lifestyles)</p> <p>Rise of BRIC nations</p> <p>Social activism: 1968 global protests + Solidarity and Eastern European anticommunist protests</p> <p>Ethnic violence and anti-immigration sentiment (anti-Semitism and the Holocaust, persecution of Roma, former Yugoslavia, animosity toward “guest workers” and Muslim refugees)</p> <p>Migration from former colonies and spheres of influence (India, Pakistan, Caribbean, Indonesia, Africa)</p> <p>Extension of vote to women (near total)</p> <p>Feminism and significant progress toward gender equality (Simone de Beauvoir)</p> <p>Emerging gay and lesbian rights</p>
Middle East	<p>Partial transition to industrial or postindustrial lifestyles</p> <p>Ethnic violence and anti-immigration sentiment (Turkish massacre of Armenians, Arab-Israeli conflict)</p> <p>Extension of vote to women (limited to partial)</p>

	Limitations on gender equality
Africa	<p>Partial transition to industrial or postindustrial lifestyles</p> <p>Social activism: antiapartheid movement in South Africa</p> <p>Ethnic violence and anti-immigration sentiment (Rwanda, Darfur)</p> <p>Extension of the vote to women (partial)</p> <p>Limitations on gender equality</p>
East and Central Asia	<p>Partial transition to postindustrial and service-oriented lifestyles</p> <p>Rise of BRIC nations</p> <p>Social activism: Tiananmen Square protests</p> <p>Extension of the vote to women (widespread)</p> <p>Many limitations to gender equality removed</p>
South and Southeast Asia and Oceania	<p>Partial transition to postindustrial and service-oriented lifestyles</p> <p>Rise of BRIC nations</p> <p>Ethnic violence and anti-immigration sentiment (Indo-Pakistani violence)</p> <p>Indian caste system weakened</p> <p>End of White Australia policy</p> <p>Social activism: self-immolation of Thich Quang Duc</p> <p>Extension of vote to women (widespread)</p> <p>Some limitations on gender equality</p>
Americas	<p>Features of Western and developed societies (transition to postindustrial and service-style lifestyles; full in North America, partial in Latin America)</p> <p>Rise of BRIC nations</p> <p>Social activism: Jim Crow laws vs. civil rights movement in United States + 1968 global protests</p> <p>Ethnic violence and anti-immigration sentiment (Mayans in Guatemala, U.S “melting pot” ideal vs. nativist impulses)</p> <p>Migration from former colonies and spheres of influence (Puerto Rico, Philippines)</p> <p>Extension of the vote to women (near total)</p> <p>Feminism and significant progress toward gender equality (Gloria Steinem, Betty Friedan, NOW)</p> <p>Emerging gay and lesbian rights</p>
Global and Interregional	<p>Rapid population growth</p> <p>Social equality vs. hierarchy</p> <p>Urbanization and suburbanization</p> <p>Undeveloped vs. industrial vs. postindustrial lifestyles (north-south split)</p> <p>Growing importance of social activism (national liberation, civil rights and racial equality, opposition to war, 1968 global protests, feminism)</p> <p>Ethnic violence and anti-immigration sentiment</p> <p>Extension of vote to women (widespread)</p> <p>Uneven progress toward gender equality</p>

Humans and the Environment

- Population growth, caused above all by improvements in medicine and public health, reached unprecedented levels and continues to accelerate.
- Medical innovations lengthened life spans in many parts of the world.
- Escalating industrialization, increased fossil-fuel and resource consumption, massive engineering projects, and the production of toxic, chemical, and nuclear wastes have exponentially increased humanity’s impact on the environment.
- Diseases associated with poverty, such as malaria, tuberculosis, and cholera, persisted in many parts of the world.
- Better and faster transportation hastened the global spread of new epidemic diseases such as Ebola, HIV/AIDS, and many new strains of influenza, starting with the “Spanish flu,” which killed millions at the end of World War I.

- Diseases associated with sedentary lifestyles and new dietary habits, including heart disease, diabetes, and obesity, became more common. Extension of longevity placed larger numbers of people at risk of diseases associated with old age, such as Alzheimer's.
- Periodic famines, both natural and human-caused, struck various parts of the world, including the USSR in the 1930s (caused by Stalin's collectivization of agriculture), India in the early 1940s, China during the 1950s (caused by Mao's Great Leap Forward), and Ethiopia in the 1980s.
- In Canada and the United States during the 1930s, the "dust bowl" crisis—which caused thousands of square miles of fertile soil to be lost to aridity and giant windstorms—severely affected agriculture and added to the stress of the Great Depression.
- Between the late 1940s and 1970s, a Green Revolution spread advanced agricultural techniques around the world, leading to a huge rise in the production of food. Mexico, where it is considered to have originated, played a key role in this development, and its impact spread not just through Latin America but to India, China, and other regions that had previously suffered damaging famines. However, the environmental impact of agriculture increased as a result of the Green Revolution thanks to greater water consumption, the clearing of more land, and the extensive use of pesticides.
- Habitats like wetlands, rainforests, and polar ecosystems have been badly threatened during this era. Large numbers of species in these and other ecozones faced extinction or endangerment.
- Environmental awareness in the West grew steadily but slowly during the early 1900s and then expanded after World War II. Green movements and nongovernmental organizations (NGOs) devoted to environmental issues have grown in size and influence.
- Climate change, or global warming, dramatically increased throughout the twentieth century and is considered by overwhelming scientific consensus to have been caused by the human-produced emission of greenhouse gases (especially carbon dioxide). It reached unprecedented levels in the 1990s and early 2000s. The best known international efforts to reverse this trend are the Kyoto Protocol (1997) and the Paris Agreement (2015).
- Warfare in the twentieth and twenty-first centuries has had a growing impact on the environment.
 - Radiation from nuclear-weapons testing
 - Biological and chemical warfare between Iran and Iraq during the 1970s
 - Defoliation of forests during the Vietnam War
 - Destruction of oil wells during times of armed conflict.
- Natural disasters and energy-related crises demonstrate how contemporary society can still be affected by the environment and how technology now allows them to affect the environment more deeply than before
 - Hurricane Katrina, Southeast Asian tsunami, Superstorm Sandy
 - Chernobyl, Three Mile Island, Bhopal incident, Exxon Valdez, Fukushima nuclear disaster, Gulf of Mexico oil spill
 - Melting of Arctic ice

Humans and the Environment, 1900 to the Present	
Europe	Comprehensive vaccination (eradication of polio and smallpox) Diseases associated with lifestyle and longevity (diabetes, Alzheimer's) Famine in Stalin's USSR Modern environmentalism (recycling, NGOs, green parties) Strongest environmental regulations Environmental disasters (Chernobyl)
Middle East	Oil industry and environmental impact of fossil fuels Agricultural impact of Green Revolution Aswan High Dam
Africa	Ebola HIV/AIDS (origination and particular severity) Famine in Ethiopia and elsewhere Green Belt movement

East and Central Asia	Diseases associated with lifestyle and longevity (diabetes, Alzheimer's) Famine in Mao's China Agricultural impact of Green Revolution Three Gorges Dam Environmental disasters (Fukushima)
South and Southeast Asia and Oceania	Spanish flu pandemic (particular severity) Famine in India Agricultural impact of Green Revolution Environmental disasters (Bhopal incident, Southeast Asia tsunami)
Americas	Comprehensive vaccination in North America (eradication of polio and smallpox) Diseases associated with lifestyle and longevity (diabetes, Alzheimer's) "Dust bowl" crisis in United States and Canada Agricultural impact of Green Revolution (Latin America) Modern environmentalism (John Muir, Rachel Carson, Earth Day, Greenpeace, recycling) Strongest environmental regulations (North America) Environmental disasters (dust bowl crisis, Three Mile Island, Exxon Valdez, Hurricane Katrina, Deepwater, Superstorm Sandy)
Global and Interregional	Vaccination campaigns Spanish flu pandemic HIV/AIDS pandemic Rapid population growth (fastest in nondeveloped and developing worlds) Environmental impact of fossil-fuel dependency Pollution and ecosystem destruction + ozone depletion Species endangerment Global warming (Kyoto and Paris agreements vs. climate-change denial)