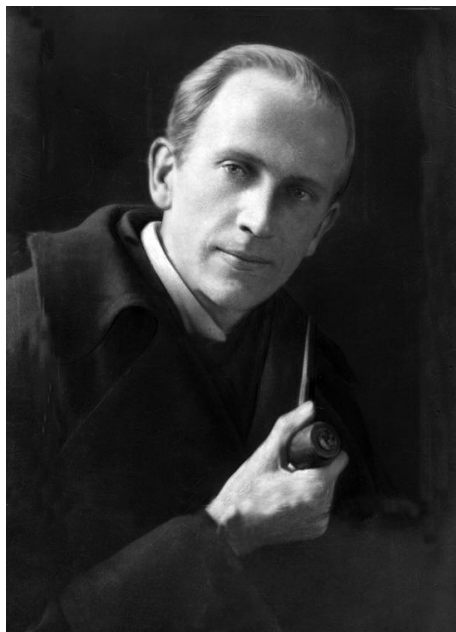


AP WORLD
HISTORY:
MODERN



"You are braver than you believe, stronger than you seem and smarter than you think."

~A.A. Milne



Alan Alexander Milne (1882 – 1956) was an English writer best known for his books about the teddy bear Winnie-the-Pooh.

This belongs to:

Advanced Placement **World History: Modern**


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UNIT 5

Revolutions 1750-1900



REVOLUTION

The Enlightenment, social unrest and increasing nationalism led to revolutions including the American, French, Haitian and various Latin American revolutions.

INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION

The Industrial Revolution started in Europe and spread to Russia, the United States and Japan causing decline in other economies around the world who were yet to industrialize.



CALLS FOR CHANGE

Capitalism and industrialization led to the rise of a new middle class; however, not all reaped the benefits. People called for more equitable pay and working conditions.

New ideologies like socialism and communism also emerged.



- 1- American Revolution 2 -French Revolution 3- Haitian Revolution
4- Latin American Revolutions 5- Russia 6-Japan

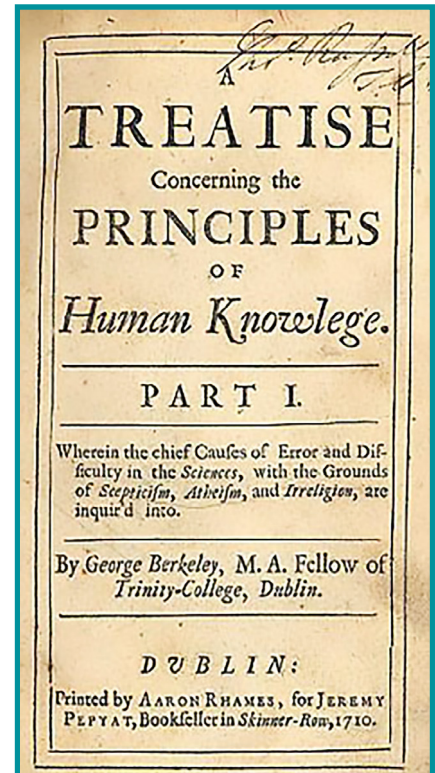
States listed in Unit 5 also overlap with Unit 6

THE ENLIGHTENMENT

Ideological shifts revolutionized the Atlantic world between 1750 and 1900 as **Enlightenment philosophies** reexamined the role of religion in public life and instead promoted **empiricist** thinking. As a result of these new ways of thinking, particularly in Europe and the Americas, novel understandings of human rights, the individual, and social hierarchies challenged traditional political and social structures. Reform movements arose that pushed for **women's suffrage**, the **abolition of slavery**, and the **end of serfdom**.

NATIONALISM AND REVOLUTIONS IN THE PERIOD FROM 1750 TO 1900

Governments around the world used people's sense of unity surrounding religion, language, and social customs to promote **nationalistic** ideologies that were manifest in state-building enterprises such as the **German** and **Italian unification** movements. At the same time, **discontent with monarchy and imperialism**, often inspired by liberal democratic ideals, led to rebellions and revolts against existing power structures such as the **American Revolution**, the **Haitian Revolution**, the **French Revolution**, and various **Latin American independence movements**.



Berkeley's Treatise Concerning the Principles of Human Knowledge.

THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTIONS

In the period from 1750 to 1900, a variety of environmental, societal, and technological changes led to growth in industrial production. **Urbanization**, **accumulation of capital**, and other factors accompanied the development of the **factory system** and more sophisticated



Haitian Revolution

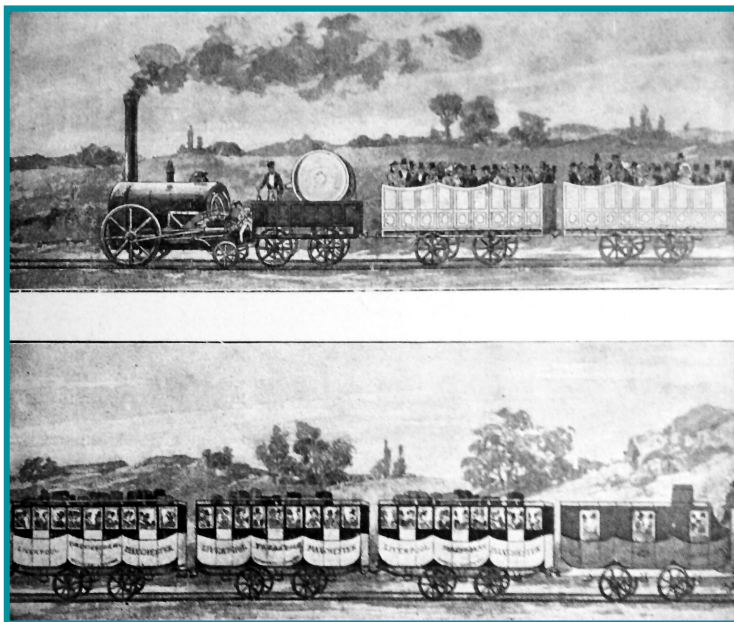
specialization of labor. In the United States and Europe, scientific innovations such as the creation of the **steam engine** led to the dominance of those regions in the manufacturing and industrial sectors, while Middle Eastern, Asian, and African nations lagged behind economically. Alongside the development of new machines, industrializing societies experienced an increased demand for and then reliance upon fossil fuels such as **coal and oil**. The "second industrial revolution" in the 19th century led to further innovations such as advancements in **chemicals**, **steel**, and **precision machinery**.

REVOLUTIONS, c. 1750 to c. 1900

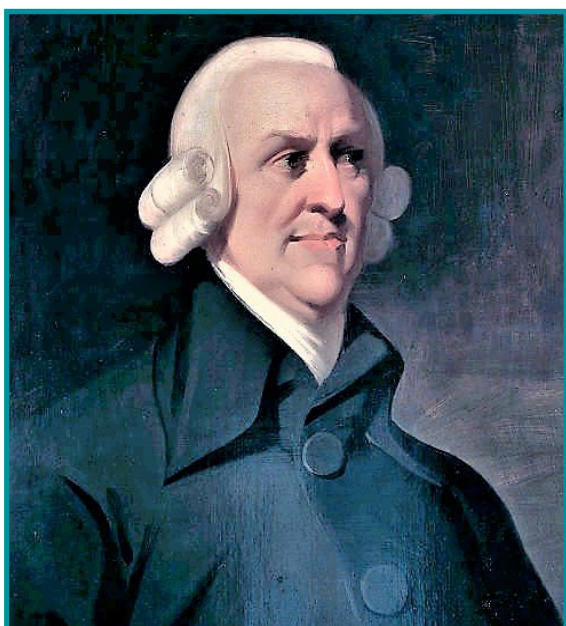
As these technologies became more widespread and readily available, **railroads**, the **steamship**, and the **telegraph** completely changed the ways in which individuals and goods were able to travel around the globe and made communication across regions simpler and cheaper.

ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENTS AND INNOVATION IN THE INDUSTRIAL AGE

As they developed, societies began to change their economic ideologies and the ways in which they conducted commerce. In Western Europe, the ideas of **Adam Smith** prompted a move away from long-standing **mercantilist policies** in favor of **laissez-faire capitalism** and **free markets**. Trade became more intertwined across the globe, as evidenced by the rise of international **stock markets** and **transnational businesses**. In industrialized nations, **labor unions** fought for better working conditions and higher wages, while intellectuals such as **Karl Marx** decried the excesses of capitalism and encouraged **socialist** or **communist** political reforms. Some governments, such as those of the **Ottoman Empire** and **Qing China**, sought to modernize their societies amid resistance from some members of traditionalist or elite groups.



First passenger railway in Europe, 1830



Adam Smith

SOCIETAL CHANGES IN THE INDUSTRIAL AGE

As a result of industrialization, new social groups such as the working class and middle class emerged. While men in most regions remained the primary wage earners, both women and children from working class families found low-wage employment in factories and other industrial activities across the globe. While industrialization led to an increased standard of living for many, including a rise in the availability and variety of **consumer goods**, it also had many harmful effects, including **pollution**, **overcrowding**, **poor sanitation**, **crime**, and **housing shortages**.

AP World History

“Must Know” Vocabulary Terms by Period/ Era

1750 CE – 1914/1900 CE

Abolition	Marxism
Alternative visions of society (Utopian socialism, Marxism, Anarchism)	Migrant support networks
American <i>Declaration of Independence</i>	Millenarianism (e.g. The Taiping Rebellion, The Ghost Dance, The Xhosa Cattle- Killing Movement)
Anticolonial movements (The Indian Revolt of 1857, The Boxer Rebellion)	Neocolonialism
Anti-imperial resistance	Pre-industrial
Bolivar’s <i>Jamaica Letter</i>	Proletariat
Bourgeoisie	Racism
Capitalism/global capitalism	Raw materials /production and export of single natural resources (Cotton, Rubber, Palm oil, Sugar, Wheat, Meat, Guano, Metals and minerals)
Capitulations/extraterritoriality	Rebellion/revolt
<i>Caudillos</i>	Reforms (State pensions, public health, suffrage, Public education)
Chinese Exclusion Acts	Reforms in imperial policies (The Tanzimat movement, The Self-Strengthening Movement)
Class Struggle	Revolutions
Conservative (not current US definition)	Self- Strengthening Movement (China)
Consumer markets	Settler colonies
Constitution	Slave resistance (Maroon societies)
Economic imperialism	Social Darwinism
Emancipation of serfs/slaves	Socialism
<i>Enclaves</i>	Spheres of influence
Exploitation	Suez Canal
Factory system	Suffrage
Financial instruments (Stock markets, Insurance, Gold standard, Limited liability corporations)	Temporary and seasonal migrants
Finished goods	Transnational businesses (large-scale - United Fruit Company, HSBC — Hong Kong and Shanghai Banking Corporation, zaibatsu)
French Declaration of the Rights of Man and Citizen	Transnational ideologies and solidarities
Hegemony	Transoceanic imperialism
Home society	White Australia Policy
Ideologies	Zionism
Imperialism/colonialism	
Independence	
Industrial Revolution/Industrialization	
Industrialized states	
<i>Intelligentsia</i>	
Laissez-faire	
Liberal/Liberalism/classical liberalism	

When we discuss “revolutions” in this unit, they mostly concern the **Atlantic Revolutions**. These include the Haitian Revolution, South American Revolutions, American Revolution, and French Revolution. However, global philosophical movements in this period, specifically those centering around the **Enlightenment and industrialization**, will spur revolutions around the world in many different forms.

Contextualizing the Unit

Changing global economy

In the last unit, we discussed the changing global economy after the **Columbian Exchange**, such as the mercantile maritime empires and the triangular trade system between the Americas, Africa, and Europe. European powers would trade manufactured goods to Africa in exchange for enslaved people who were transported to the Americas to work on plantations producing goods such as sugar, tobacco, and cotton. These goods were then brought back to Europe, completing the triangle.

Colonization

These economic systems encouraged colonization, hence why North America became a colony haven for European powers. These colonies, and the home countries, in some cases, became a boiling pot for rapid change. The influx of European goods, ideas, and people led to the displacement of indigenous populations and the forced labor of enslaved peoples, leading to a lasting legacy of economic and social inequality.



Reading of a tragedy by Voltaire. Image from Wikimedia

New systems of thought: the Enlightenment

During the 17th and 18th centuries, new philosophies and political ideas began to spread in the Enlightenment, a period of philosophical, economic, and political change primarily in Europe. It was characterized by a focus on reason, rationality, and individualism, as well as a rejection of traditional authority and dogmatism. Philosophers such as John Locke, Voltaire, Jean-Jacques

Rousseau, and many others developed ideas as a reaction to mercantilism and later industrialization. These included the ideas of natural rights to life, liberty, property, religious tolerance, relationships between rulers and subjects, branches of government, and many others that would help create the philosophical backbone for many of the revolutions we will discuss.

Industrial Revolutions

As wealth expanded and demand for goods reached an all-time high, new technology led to the Industrial Revolution. In World History, we study two major industrial revolutions. The first industrial revolution involved the transition from a cottage economy to one based around steam-powered mills. Industrialization began in Great Britain and spread through Europe for numerous reasons that we'll discuss in a bit. It made it possible to transport goods quickly and efficiently. The second industrial revolution builds upon the first and involves the development of oil technology, steel, electricity, and chemicals. Industrialization is a turning point that many consider being the biggest since the Agricultural Revolution in roughly 10000 BCE. Once the effects of industrialization met the new ideas established through the Enlightenment, the combination of progress pushed much of the world over the edge in terms of revolutionary ideas and progress. Their combinations led to social and political movements that would shape the world for centuries to come.

The Big Ideas Behind This Unit

Revolutions

The first revolution, and the one you are most likely most familiar with, is the **American Revolution**. This revolution began as a result of independence being a desire of colonists in the North American colonies of Great Britain. After unfair taxation following the Seven Years War, colonists, specifically those in the Northeast, staged a rebellion that eventually led to a war ending in 1783 with the independent United States.

After the American Revolution, the **French Revolution** began. Debt from the Seven Years War, along with involvement in the American Revolution, crippled France's economy and exacerbated existing social strata. The French Revolution primarily revolved around lower classes rising against the monarchy due to unfair political policies and economic inequality. The French Revolution follows multiple phases over almost 70 years, but for AP World, the most important aspects to know are those revolving around causes and effects on a global scale.

Notes and Observations:

The **Haitian Revolution** stands out as the only successful slave revolt in world history. Led by Toussaint Louverture, the Haitian Revolution began after enslaved people revolted in Haiti in the early 1800s. Although the French National Assembly abolished slavery in all French colonies in 1793, the enslaved people were determined to continue to fight for their freedom fully. After killing many of their masters, the enslaved people declared an independent Haiti, the first country in the world to be established by formerly enslaved people.



Haitian Revolution. Image from Wikimedia

Latin American Revolutions also occurred during this unit. Creoles, Americans born by Peninsulares (Spaniards that were born in mainland Spain but lived in Spanish colonies), rose against the Spanish government that favored peninsulares and discriminated against Creoles. Led by Simon Bolivar, these revolutions helped lead to newly independent states in Latin America.

Many of these revolutions also have important documents that you should know. For example, the American Revolution is famous for its Declaration of Independence; the French Revolution has its Declaration of the Rights of Man and the Citizen, and more from Latin America.

National movements also began during this time period as new ethnic and national identities began to form. The unification of Italy under Cavour, Mazzini, and Garibaldi and Germany under Otto Von Bismarck are typical examples of national movements.

The Industrial Revolution

During the time of the Atlantic Revolutions and nationalist movements, the growth of industrial technology marks a transitional time between 1750-1900. As discussed earlier, the first industrial revolution marked a shift from a cottage industry to steam-run factories. This change fundamentally shifted production and transportation methods for goods all around the world. This unit and unit 6 will discuss many of the social, economic, and political changes due to the industrial revolution. Industrialization is a turning point that can often be used as contextualization for essays during this time period because of the sheer impact of the event on humanity.

Conclusion

Unit 5 is an incredibly important unit in AP World. As the course rounds out its final two time periods, revolutions frame the developments in the future. The modern era began primarily due to the advent of industrial technology. Changes in manufacturing, shipping, and the production of goods turned the world upside down--nationalism movements, imperial powers, and new forms of government and resistance emerged. Studying these changes is incredibly important to units 5 and 6! Good luck!

Main Events

1762: Rousseau publishes the Social Contract

1765: James Watt invents the steam engine

1776: American Revolution begins

1789: French Revolution begins

1791: Haitian Revolution begins

1803-1815: Napoleonic Wars

1815: Latin American Revolutions begin

1839: Opium Wars between China and Britain

1848: Seneca Falls Convention organized by feminists & abolitionists

1861-1865: American Civil War

1868: Meiji Restoration

1870s: Scramble for Africa

1898: Spanish-American War

Major Trends

- Industrialization = increased productivity = consumer goods more affordable and available = economic growth, social and cultural changes
- Railroads increased the circulation of goods, people, and ideas
- States could industrialize through private investment (Britain, US) or state investment (Russia, Japan)
- Demand for raw materials increased, and new sources were acquired by steamship
- Capitalism prevailed in Western Europe, but made life hard for many
- Harsh working conditions led to labor unions for collective power
- The rich got richer, and the poor got poorer
- Women gained economic power with opportunities in factories
- People organized movements to advocate for government protections
- Voting rights expanded as a result of organized progressive movements
- Imperialism = colonies in the Americas, Africa, and Asia = resistance and rebellion against colonialism
- Nationalism = conflicts between different nations and ethnic groups



The Atlantic Revolutions

By Malcolm F. Purinton

Revolutions can be contagious. In five short decades from 1775 to 1825, several revolutions in the Americas and Europe brought down the colonial system and European monarchies that had been profiting from it.

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An Era of Revolutions

Between 1775 and 1825, revolutions broke out in Europe and the Americas. European countries wanted to get rid of kings and queens. American colonies wanted independence from European empires.

The American War of Independence was first. It was followed by the French Revolution. Next, people in Haiti rebelled against slavery and French rule in the Haitian Revolution. Finally, there were revolutions throughout Latin America.

These revolutions had many similarities. They all rejected European power. They also tried to set up new kinds of society. Revolutionaries were inspired by the Enlightenment. The Enlightenment was a philosophical movement. It placed value on freedom and equality.

The revolutions came at a time when Europe was weakened. The British and French had just fought the Seven Years' War. After, both countries were deep in debt. So, they passed new taxes on their colonies. Thousands of miles away, the colonists had little choice. Until then, the American colonists were practically in charge of themselves. Upset with the taxes, many challenged British rule.

The American Revolution

Beginning with the Stamp Act of 1765, Great Britain issued new taxes in the American colonies. Protests and riots soon broke out in the American colonies. A tax on tea in 1773 inspired the Boston Tea Party. Protestors threw British tea into the harbor. In response, Britain passed laws to restrict the colonists' freedom and close the Boston harbor. Protests and riots continued in the colonies. In April 1775, fighting broke out in Massachusetts.

In 1776, the Declaration of Independence was sent to the British king. A long and costly war followed. The French, Spanish, and Dutch supported the Americans. Finally, the British lost in 1783. They recognized the independence of the colonies in the Treaty of Paris. A new nation was born, but not everyone was equal. For example, the new government still allowed slavery.



A badly damaged British ship after a battle near Havana, Cuba. This kinda thing isn't cheap. By Rafael Monleón Torres, Public domain.



A painting depicting Bostonians tar and feathering a tax-collector while the Boston Tea Party takes place in the background. By John Carter Brown Library, public domain.

The French Revolution

After the Seven Years' War ended in 1763, the French government needed money. King Louis XVI wanted to raise taxes. To do so, he called a special meeting of the French legislators called the Estates General. It was a bit like a congress or parliament — just with less power. It hadn't met since 1614.

At the time, the French people were divided into three "estates." The First Estate was the Catholic church members. The Second Estate was the nobility. This was the ruling class that controlled the country's wealth. The Third Estate was everyone else. They paid all the taxes but had no power in the government. When the king called the Estates General, the Third Estate suddenly had a voice.

In May of 1789, the opening session was held. The delegates were sharply divided, and no agreement could be reached. So, in June, the Third Estate met alone. It declared itself the National Assembly.

King Louis XVI sent an army to Paris. People in Paris responded by storming the royal prison called the Bastille. They freed prisoners, seized weapons, and killed two officials. The country was in a state of revolt.

The National Assembly ended the nobility. In 1789, it passed the Declaration of the Rights of Man and of the Citizen. This declared that all citizens are equal before the law. A constitution was written, and a democratic system was set up.

The French empire strikes back

As the French Revolution spread, it became more dangerous. The new government took church lands and sold them. Peasants attacked castles. They burned records of their debts. There was widespread violence. In 1793, King Louis XVI and Queen Marie Antionette were killed. The first French Republic was declared.

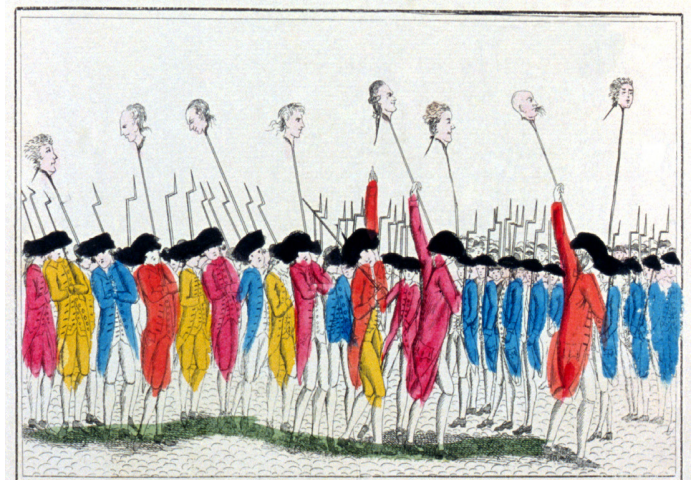
The first French Republic completely changed society. Peasants used to work on land they could never own. Now, they could own and work on their land. Slavery was also ended with new laws.

The republic did not last for long, though. A general named Napoleon Bonaparte soon rose to power. He declared himself emperor in 1799. His armies began taking over new land across Europe.



PRISE DE LA BASTILLE

*Par les Citoyens de Paris ayant à leurs têtes M^{rs} les Gardes Françaises, le 14. Juillet 1789
Cette Forteresse fut commencée en 1369 sous le règne de Charles V. Jacques Aubriot, Prevot de Paris en posa la 1^{re} Pierre elle ne fut entièrement achevée qu'en 1382. Il étoit natif de Dijon. Il y fut un des premiers renfermés sous prétexte d'hérésie. Il fut débauché par les Parisiens pendant les troubles qui agitoient la Capitale, et se sauva dans sa patrie.*



C'est ainsi que l'on Punait les Traîtres.

[The storming of the Bastille](#), royal prison in Paris to seize weapons and free political prisoners on July 14, 1789. From the Library of Congress, public domain.



Napoleon's army fighting the Russians during the Napoleonic Wars.
By Viktor Mazurovsky, public domain.

A revolt leads to a new nation

In the Americas, France owned a colony called Saint Domingue. Today, it is known as Haiti. Saint Domingue was the richest plantation colony in the world. There were around 8,000 plantations. Almost half of the world's sugar and coffee came from Saint Domingue. The colony made these profits through enslaved labor.

Enslaved workers made up 90 percent of the population. In 1791, the National Assembly in France ended slavery. In response, the enslaved people of Saint Domingue revolted.

The Haitian Revolution lasted many hard years. It was led by Toussaint Louverture. He was a brilliant general. He even defeated Napoleon.

The revolution was won in 1808. Haiti became the second independent republic in the Americas in 1804. It was the first independent nation-state ruled by people of African descent.

It was not just a fight for independence, though. It was about human rights and racial equality. Haitian leaders were rebelling against colonialism, racism, and slavery.



The colony of Saint Domingue on the western half of the island of Hispaniola that would soon become the nation of Haiti. By Aldan-2, CC BY-SA 4.0.

The Latin American revolutions

The Creoles led the revolutions at first. The Creoles were native-born descendants of Spanish and Portuguese settlers. In 1808, Napoleon conquered Spain and Portugal. These two powers had large colonies in Latin America. After Napoleon's invasion, the colonies found themselves with no ruling empire.

In 1810, peasants in Mexico revolted against the Spanish. They demanded land and cheaper food. But Creole landowners stopped the rebellion. They were wealthy descendants of Spanish and Portuguese settlers. In 1821, Mexico was given independence from Spain. But the Creole landowners kept their position at the top of Mexican society.

In other parts of Latin America, more revolutionary movements were underway. In the north, general Simón Bolívar freed large amounts of land from the Spanish. In 1819, he created a new nation called "Gran Colombia." It was made up present-day Colombia, Ecuador, Panama, and Venezuela. It was modeled after the United States. Gran Colombia only lasted until 1830.

General José de San Martín helped free Argentina, Chile, and Peru. Both Bolívar and San Martín had military success. But they did not create long-lasting democratic governments. Power eventually returned to rulers who cared more about power than democratic ideals.

An era of revolutions

Each of these revolutions was different. They were tied together, though, by three things. First, they were inspired by the ideas of the Enlightenment. Second, they rejected the power of the ruling class. Finally, they were influenced by the same political and economic network.

The era of revolutions transformed the world. Colonial powers shrank and new nations were formed. They created new kinds of governments and societies.



[Haitian revolutionaries fighting for independence in 1802.](#) By Auguste Raffet, public domain.



[José de San Martín being received by the congress of Buenos Aires in 1818.](#) From the Instituto Nacional Sanmartiniano, by Reynaldo Giúdice, public domain.

Notes and Observations:



The Industrial Revolution

By Cynthia Stokes-Brown (for BHP)

Abundant fossil fuels like coal led to innovative machines, like engines. These inventions launched an era of accelerated change that continues to transform human society.

1220L



The transformation of the world

Try to imagine your life without any machines working for you. Make a list of the machines in your house. You might be surprised how many there are. Now imagine young people who grew up before machines. How did they move from place to place? How did they communicate? What foods did they eat?

At one time, human communities provided most of their own energy. They ate plants and animals to fuel their bodies, burned wood for warmth and cooking, and used domestic animals for help with chores. Windmills and waterwheels captured some extra energy, but little could be saved. All life depended on the energy the Sun sent to the Earth.

However, in the 1700s, everything started to change with the onset of the Industrial Revolution. Now, people found an extra source of energy that could work for them. That source was fossil fuels—coal, oil, and natural gas. These fuels had been forming from the remains of plants and animals from much earlier geologic times. When they were burned, they released energy, originally from the Sun, that had been stored underground for hundreds of millions of years.

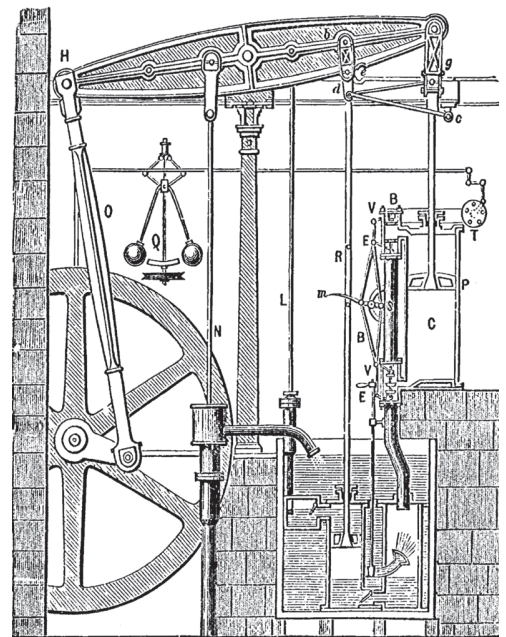
Take coal, for example. This useful fuel was formed when huge trees from the Carboniferous period (345 to 280 million years ago) fell and were covered with water, so that oxygen and bacteria could not decay them. As other materials covered them over time, they were compressed into dark, carbonic, burnable rock. Oil and gas were made from a similar recipe, formed over 100 million years ago from tiny animal skeletons and plant matter that fell to the bottom of seas or were buried in sediment. The weight of water and soil compressed this organic matter until it turned into the oil and gas that we now use for energy.

While coal, oil, and gas are relatively common on Earth, they are not evenly distributed. Some places have much more than others because of the diverse ecosystems that existed long ago. This uneven distribution of suddenly valuable resources, essential for industrialization, led to inequalities around the world that are still felt today.

Early steam engines

The story of the Industrial Revolution begins on the small island of Great Britain. By the early eighteenth century, people there had cut down most of their trees either to build houses and ships or to burn for heating and cooking. So now they needed something else to burn. They knew those hunks of black stone near the surface of the Earth were flammable, so they dug deeper to see how much there was. These coal mines were not an instant success. They were so deep in the Earth that they would fill with water as you were digging. Miners tried using horses to pull up buckets of water, but that was too slow. In 1712, Englishman Thomas Newcomen created a coal-powered steam engine capable of pumping water from the mines. More than fifty years later, James Watt, a Scottish instrument maker, designed a better version. This steam engine—which would have a long career powering trains, ships and other things—was first used to efficiently pump water out of coal mines. After his patent ran out in 1800, others further improved on his engine. By 1900, engines burned 10 times more efficiently than they had a hundred years before.

At the beginning of the nineteenth century, British colonies in North America were producing lots of cotton. Machines, which were usually powered by hardworking people in their homes but also by waterwheels and windmills situated near rivers, were used to spin the cotton thread



Engraving of Boulton and Watt's steam engine, 1781, from Robert Henry Thurston's A History of the Growth of the Steam Engine. New York: D. Appleton, 1878, p. 104. By Robert Henry Thurston, public domain.

on spindles (rods) and to weave it into cloth on looms. Attaching a steam engine to these machines was like trading a bicycle for a jumbo jet. The work went much, much faster. One steam engine could power many spindles and looms. But you can't park a jumbo jet in a bike rack. Now people had to leave their homes for work because the steam engines were so large and expensive. As a result, textile work shifted from a primarily home-based occupation to factories.

Early in the nineteenth century, the British also invented steam locomotives and steamships, which revolutionized travel. In 1851, they held the first world's fair where they exhibited telegraphs, sewing machines, revolvers, reaping machines, and steam hammers to demonstrate that they were the world's leading manufacturer of machinery. By this time, the characteristics of industrial society—smoke rising from factories, bigger cities and denser populations, railroads—loomed large in many parts of Britain.

Why Britain?

Britain wasn't the only place that had deposits of coal. So why didn't the Industrial Revolution begin somewhere else that had coal, like China? Did it start in isolation in Britain, or were there global forces at work that shaped it? Did geography or cultural institutions matter more? Historians have vigorously investigated these questions.

Possible reasons why industrialization began in Britain include:

- Shortage of wood and an abundance of convenient coal deposits
- Britain had "wet coal"—mines flooded and they had to devise a way to get the water out of the mines, which led to the invention of the steam engine
- Elites who were interested in business,
- A capitalist economic system, with very little government involvement; a monarch who had limited powers
- Government support for business projects and a strong navy to protect ships
- Cheap cotton produced by Africans enslaved in North America
- Profits from the transatlantic slave trade provided Britain with capital to invest in industrialization

Possible reasons why industrialization did not begin in China include:

- Location of China's coal—the north—while most economic activity was centered in the south
- China had "dry coal" that was deeper in the ground than Britain's "wet coal"
- A large, rapidly growing population, allowing for human labor instead of machines
- Confucian ideals that valued stability and discouraged experimentation and change
- Lack of Chinese government support for sea explorations, thinking its empire seemed large enough to provide everything it needed
- China's focus on defending itself from nomadic attacks from the north and west

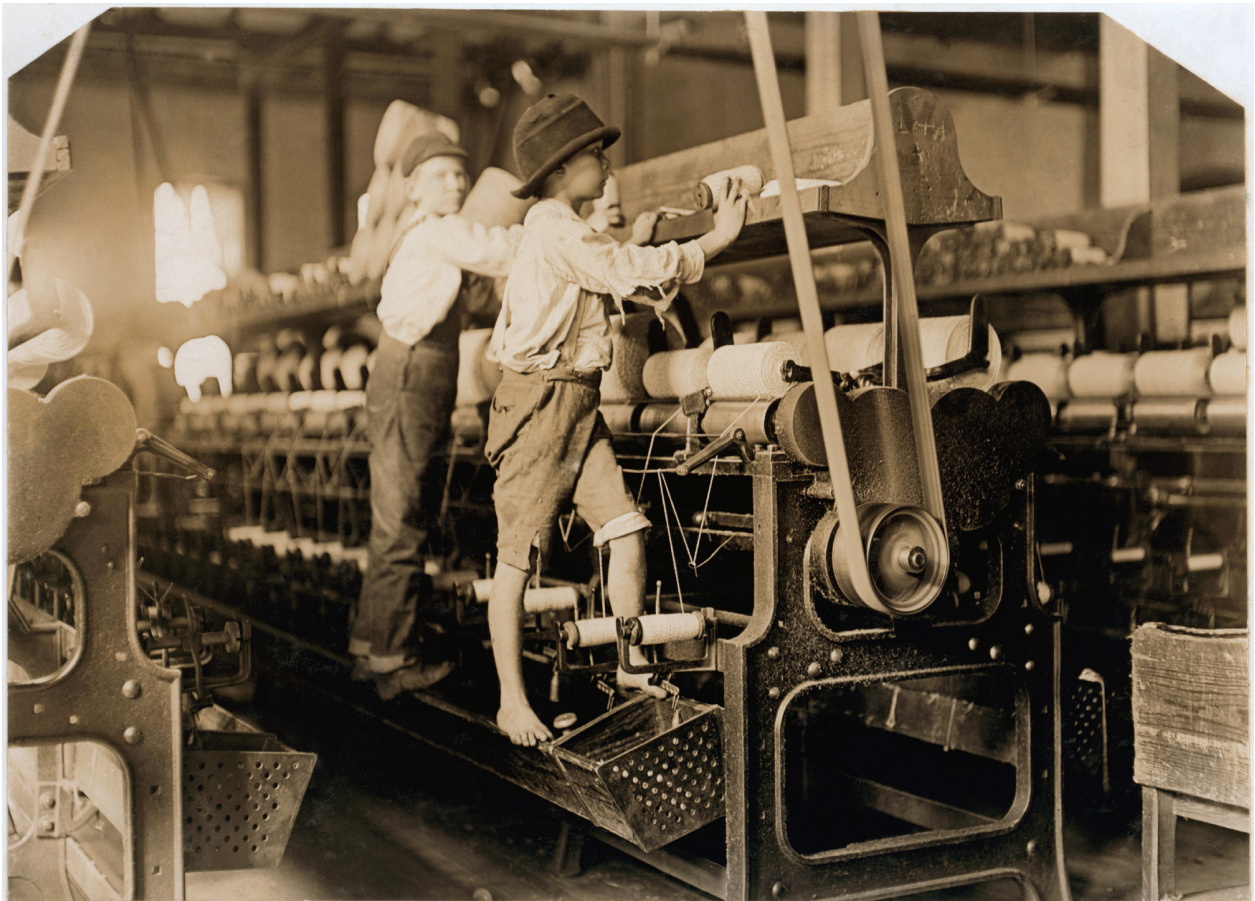
Global forces influencing the development of industrialization in Britain include:

- Britain's location on the Atlantic Ocean
- British colonies in North America, which provided land, labor, and markets
- Silver from the Americas, used in trade with China
- Social and ideological conditions in Britain, and new thoughts about the economy, that encouraged an entrepreneurial spirit

Of course, that burnable rock we call coal wasn't the only fossil fuel mentioned earlier. What roles did oil and natural gas play while coal was powering the Industrial Revolution? They had been discovered long before and were already in use, but mostly just for lamps and other light sources. It wasn't until the mid-twentieth century with the invention of the internal combustion engine that oil caught up—and surpassed—coal in use. And if you've ever been in a car that's not electric, you've used a combustion engine for transportation.

The spread of the Industrial Revolution

Britain wanted to keep secret how its machines were made. But visitors soon learned about them and took the techniques back home. Sometimes they smuggled machines out in rowboats while others memorized factory and machine plans. The first countries after Britain to develop factories and railroads were Belgium, Switzerland, France, and the states that became Germany, all between the 1830s and 1850s. Building a national railroad system was an essential part of industrialization, as trains could transport raw materials and coal to factories at an accelerated rate.



[Children working in a mill in Macon, Georgia, 1909.](#) By Lewis Hine, public domain.

Industrialization came to the United States in 1789. That was the year Samuel Slater left Britain for Rhode Island, where he set up the first textile factory on U.S. soil. He couldn't bring any notes or plans from Britain, so he had to set up the factory from memory. Once factories were built, railroad construction in America boomed from the 1830s to 1870s. The American Civil War (1861–1865) was the first truly industrial war in that factories mass-produced supplies and weapons for the war effort, troops were transported by rail, and the telegraph was used to send remarkably fast communications. The increasingly urbanized and factory-based North was fighting against the

agriculture-based South. After the war, industrialization grew explosively and by 1900, the United States had overtaken Britain in manufacturing, producing 24 percent of the world's output. Four decades before that, both Russia and Japan gave up their feudal systems to compete in the industrializing world. In Japan, the monarchy was flexible enough to survive early industrialization. But in Russia, a rural country, the czar and nobles tried to industrialize the country while keeping a grip on their dominance. You'll read more about industrialization in other regions of the world later in this era and in Era 7.

Consequences of the Industrial Revolution

As industrialization took off in Europe and the Americas, nations began to use their strong armies and navies to colonize many parts of the world that were not industrialized. The industrialized nations then began exploiting colonies for their natural resources, labor, and potential new markets. This would lead to the age of imperialism. The negative consequences of these activities would be felt for generations. These topics will be covered extensively in the remaining lessons of Era 6.

The effects of industrialization on global population are staggering. In 1700, before fossil fuels were in use, the world's population was 670 million. By 2011, it was 6.7 billion, a tenfold increase in only 300 years. In the twentieth century alone, the world's economy grew fourteenfold, per capita income grew almost fourfold, and the use of energy expanded at least thirteenfold. In addition, from 1900 to 2000, urban population growth increased substantially, as more people left rural areas for cities. This kind of growth has never before occurred in human history.

Region	1600	1700	1800	1900	2000
World	5%	5%	7%	16%	47%
Western Europe	12%	13%	21%	41%	75%
North America	1%	2%	7%	38.5%	79%
Africa	.5%	1.25%	3%	8.5%	39%
China	7%	6%	6%	7%	37%

Table 1: Percentage of urban population growth, 1600 to 2000 CE

Source: Population data adapted from Goldewijk, K.K., A. Beusen, and P. Janssen. "Long-term dynamic modeling of global population and built-up area in a spatially explicit way: HYDE 3.1." *The Holocene* 20, no. 4 (2010): 568.

Many people around the world today enjoy the benefits of industrialization. With extra energy flowing through the system, many of us do much less physical labor than earlier generations. Child mortality rates have decreased, as more people are able to feed their children and get medical care. Life expectancy has increased, with the largest gains having occurred after the 1850s. Many people vote and participate in modern states, and these states provide education, social security, and health benefits. Large numbers of people enjoy levels of wealth, health, education, travel, and life expectancy unimagined before industrialization.

The benefits of industrialization, however, have come at great cost. For one thing, the rate of change (acceleration) is now so rapid that individuals and social systems struggle to keep up. In addition, the natural resources that industrialization depends on are being undermined. Humans continue to use fossil fuels at rates that exceed the time it takes for these resources to replenish. The burning of these fuels also leads to environmental impacts that will continue to impact the Earth for generations to come.

Notes and Observations:

Notes and Observations:

Name: _____

Date: _____

The Enlightenment 5.1

Directions: Fill in the chart with the appropriate details about each Enlightenment Thinker.

	Country	Important Writings and Ideas
John Locke		
Thomas Hobbes		
Jean-Jacques Rousseau		
Thomas Paine		
Adam Smith		
Baron Montesquieu		
Voltaire		
Henri de Saint-Simon		

Name: _____

Date: _____

Nationalism and Revolutions 5.2

Directions: Fill in the causes and results of each revolution below.

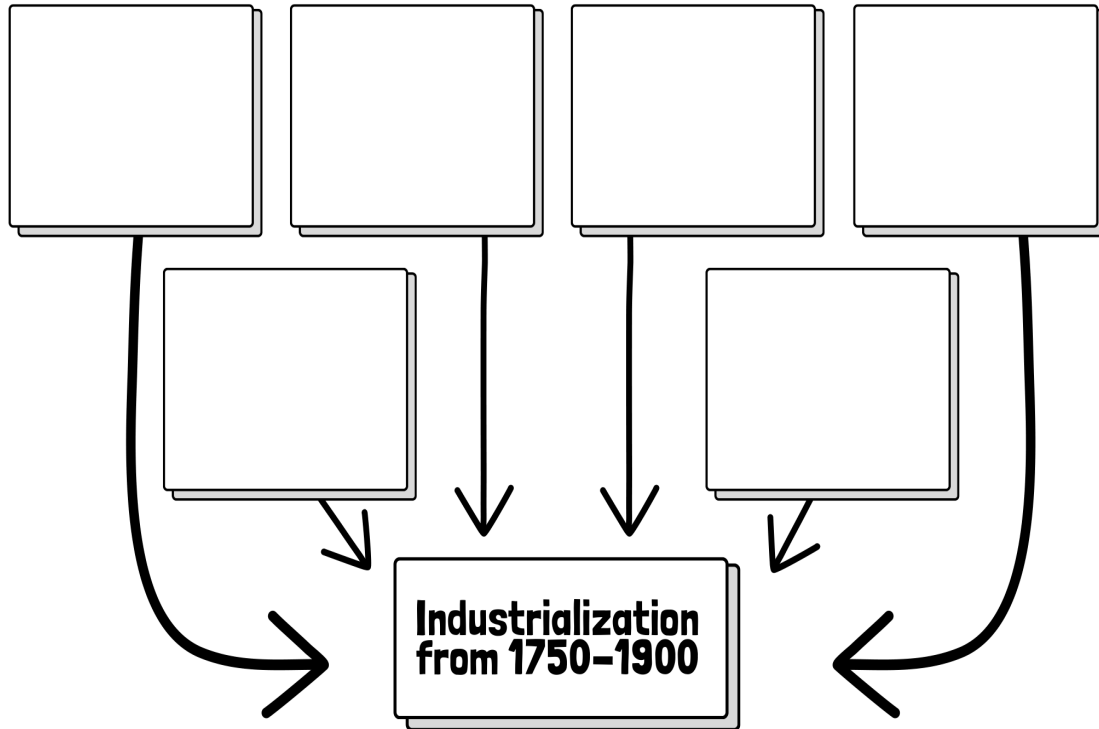
	Causes	Results (Short-term and Long-term)
American Revolution		
French Revolution		
Haitian Revolution		
Bolívar Revolutions		

Name: _____

Date: _____

Industrial Revolution Begins 5.3

What are six things that contributed to industrialization from 1750 to 1900?



Consider the thematic focus of Humans and the Environment- "The environment shapes human societies, and as populations grow and change, these populations in turn shape their environments." How did environmental factors shape industrialization in this period? How did industrialization, in turn, shape the environment?

Name: _____

Date: _____

Industrial Revolution Spreads 5.4

How did the nations below industrialize? What goods did they manufacture that made them successful as industrializing nations?

France

Germany

United States

Japan

Russia

What are three items that were mined or manufactured in India that saw a decline as other parts of the world industrialized? What was the cause of the decline for each of these items?

Name: _____

Date: _____

Technology of the Industrial Age 5.5

What invention or innovation is each of the following people responsible for? What effect did each invention or innovation have on the Industrial Revolution?

Alexander Graham Bell

Invention:

Effect:

Guglielmo Marconi

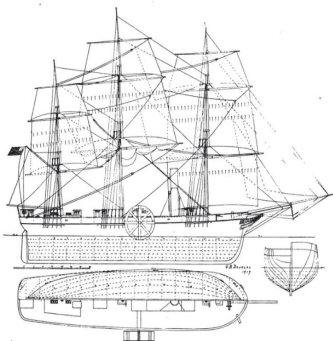
Invention:

Effect:

James Watt

Invention:

Effect:



SS Savannah 1818

What was the *SS Savannah* famous for?

What does the "SS" stand for?

What was one effect of steam powered ships replacing sailing ships?

First Industrial Revolution

Innovations:

Second Industrial Revolution

Innovations:

VS

Name: _____

Date: _____

Industrialization: Government's Role 5.6

Meiji Restoration

List the reforms adopted by the Japanese Meiji State.

What was the goal of the Meiji Restoration?

What was the result of the Meiji Restoration?

China in the Era of the Industrial Revolution

What were the reasons China did not industrialize during this period?

Russia in the Era of the Industrial Revolution

What reforms in Russia helped them to industrialize? What is one notable development from industrialization in Russia?

Name: _____

Date: _____

Economic Developments and Innovations 5.7

Give a brief summary/description of each of the economic developments below.

HSBC

Unilever

Stock Market

Consumerism

Monopoly

**Limited Liability
Corporations**

What were some of the results of industrial capitalism?

Reactions to the Industrial Economy 5.8

What were some things that led to the formation of labor unions?

**Labor
Unions**

What were some of the results of the formation of labor unions?

Explain the modernization and reform that occurred for the Ottoman Empire and Qing China in response to an industrializing world.

Ottoman Empire

Qing Dynasty

Explain the difference between *utilitarians* and *utopian socialists* in the context of responses to the industrial revolution.

Name: _____

Date: _____

Society and the Industrial Age 5.9

What two new social classes developed as a result of industrialization?

<div></div>	<div></div>
Describe the roles and working conditions for each new social class.	
<div></div>	<div></div>

Explain some of the differences between farm work before industrialization and factory work during industrialization.

Farm Work	Factory Work
<div></div>	<div></div>

Explain how the Industrial Revolution affected women and children. Consider different social classes in your response.

Name: _____

Date: _____

Continuity and Change in the Industrial Age 5.10

Directions: Answer the questions below with a paragraph each. Use relevant details from Unit 5 to support your answers.

Using specific examples, discuss the extent to which industrialization brought change in the 1750-1900 time period.

Choose one major rebellion or revolution from this period and evaluate its causes and effects.

Unit 5: Revolutions (1750-1900) Context Practice

Created by E. Adamson find more at
www.theadamsonadventure.net

Instructions: Write a contextual statement for each of the prompts below. This will not only help you review content from Unit 5 (1750-1900), but also help you practice writing context statements which, if done successfully, can earn you one point on both the DBQ and LEQ essays.

To earn this point, the response must relate the topic of the prompt to broader historical events, developments, or processes that occur before, during, or continue after the time frame of the question. This point is not awarded for merely a phrase or reference.

The final sentence of your context should narrow down to the topic of the prompt, tying your contextual statement to your thesis statement.

Prompt 1: Evaluate the extent to which the Enlightenment affected societies during the 1750 to 1900 time period

Prompt 2: Evaluate the extent to which the Atlantic Revolutions shared similar causes during the 1750 to 1900 time period.

Prompt 3: Evaluate the extent to which environmental factors contributed to the Industrial Revolution in the 1750 to 1900 time period.

Key Revolutionary Events

- American Revolution (1765-1783) overthrew British colonial rule and established the United States as an independent nation
- French Revolution (1789-1799) abolished the monarchy, established a republic, and led to the rise of Napoleon Bonaparte
 - Storming of the Bastille on July 14, 1789 marked the beginning of the revolution
 - Execution of King Louis XVI and Queen Marie Antoinette in 1793
- Haitian Revolution (1791-1804) was a successful slave revolt that led to the establishment of Haiti as the first independent black republic
- Latin American Revolutions (1808-1826) resulted in the independence of many Latin American countries from Spanish and Portuguese rule
 - Revolutions in Mexico, Argentina, Chile, Colombia, and Peru
- Revolutions of 1848 were a series of political upheavals across Europe that challenged traditional monarchies and sought liberal reforms
 - Revolutions in France, Germany, Italy, and the Austrian Empire

Causes and Catalysts

- Enlightenment ideas of natural rights, individual liberty, and popular sovereignty challenged traditional political and social structures
- Economic inequalities and social stratification led to growing discontent among the lower and middle classes
- Fiscal crises and heavy taxation burdened the population and fueled resentment towards ruling authorities
 - France's financial crisis due to excessive spending and the cost of supporting the American Revolution
- Influence of successful revolutions, such as the American Revolution, inspired others to seek change
- Nationalism and the desire for self-determination motivated colonized peoples to fight for independence
- Technological advancements, such as the printing press, facilitated the spread of revolutionary ideas
- Political oppression and lack of representation in government decision-making processes

Major Figures and Leaders

- George Washington, commander of the Continental Army and first President of the United States
- Thomas Jefferson, primary author of the Declaration of Independence and third President of the United States
- Maximilien Robespierre, a prominent figure in the French Revolution known for his role in the Reign of Terror
- Napoleon Bonaparte, a French military leader who rose to power in the aftermath of the French Revolution and established the First French Empire
 - Implemented significant reforms, such as the Napoleonic Code
- Toussaint L'Ouverture, a former slave who became a leader of the Haitian Revolution
- Simón Bolívar, a key figure in the Latin American independence movement, known as "The Liberator"
 - Played a crucial role in the revolutions of Venezuela, Colombia, Ecuador, Peru, and Bolivia
- José de San Martín, an Argentine general who fought for the independence of Argentina, Chile, and Peru

Ideologies and Philosophies

- Liberalism emphasized individual rights, limited government, and free markets
 - John Locke's ideas of natural rights and the social contract
 - Adam Smith's economic theories of laissez-faire and the "invisible hand"
- Republicanism promoted the idea of a government without a monarch, with power derived from the people
- Nationalism encouraged pride in one's nation and the belief that each nation should have its own independent state
- Socialism called for the collective ownership of the means of production and the distribution of goods based on need
 - Emerged as a response to the inequalities and exploitation brought about by industrialization
- Conservatism sought to maintain traditional social hierarchies and institutions, often in opposition to revolutionary changes
- Enlightenment thinkers, such as Voltaire, Montesquieu, and Rousseau, challenged traditional authority and advocated for reason, tolerance, and progress

Social and Economic Impacts

- Abolition of feudalism and the old regime in France, leading to a more egalitarian society
- Redistribution of land and property, as seen in the confiscation of church and noble lands during the French Revolution
- Expansion of political participation and the concept of citizenship, with the granting of suffrage to larger segments of the population
- Emergence of the middle class and the bourgeoisie as influential social and economic forces
- Industrialization and the growth of capitalism, facilitated by the removal of traditional economic barriers
 - Development of factory systems and the rise of the working class
- Urbanization and the growth of cities as people migrated from rural areas in search of employment
- Disruption of traditional social hierarchies and the decline of the aristocracy's power and influence
- Increased social mobility and opportunities for education and advancement

Political Transformations

- Shift from absolute monarchies to constitutional monarchies or republics
 - Establishment of the United States as a federal republic
 - France's transition from an absolute monarchy to a constitutional monarchy, and eventually to a republic
- Separation of powers and the development of checks and balances in government
- Adoption of written constitutions that outlined the rights and responsibilities of citizens and the limits of government power
 - U.S. Constitution (1787) and the Bill of Rights (1791)
 - French Declaration of the Rights of Man and of the Citizen (1789)
- Expansion of democratic principles and the idea of popular sovereignty
- Emergence of new forms of political participation, such as political parties and elections
- Decentralization of power and the granting of greater autonomy to local or regional governments
- Establishment of international diplomatic norms and the concept of national sovereignty

Global Connections and Influences

- Spread of revolutionary ideas and principles through trade, travel, and intellectual exchange
- Influence of the American Revolution on the French Revolution and other movements
- Emergence of the Atlantic World as a site of revolutionary fervor and the exchange of ideas
- Role of colonialism and imperialism in shaping revolutionary movements, particularly in Latin America and the Caribbean
- Diplomatic alliances and international support for revolutionary causes
- French support for the American Revolution
- British and Spanish involvement in the Latin American independence movements
- Economic interdependence and the global impact of revolutionary events on trade and commerce
- Circulation of pamphlets, books, and newspapers that disseminated revolutionary ideas across borders
- Emigration and exile of revolutionary figures, leading to the cross-pollination of ideas and strategies

Legacy and Long-term Effects

- Establishment of new nation-states and the redrawing of political boundaries
- Creation of the United States, Haiti, and various Latin American republics
- Inspiration for future revolutionary movements and struggles for independence, such as the decolonization movements of the 20th century
- Development of modern political ideologies and the shaping of contemporary political discourse
- Expansion of human rights and the recognition of individual liberties as fundamental principles
- Influence on the drafting of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (1948)
- Economic and social reforms that laid the foundation for modern societies
- Abolition of slavery and serfdom
- Improvements in education and public health
- Artistic and cultural expressions that reflected revolutionary themes and ideals
- Neoclassicism and Romanticism in art and literature
- Enduring symbols and commemorations of revolutionary events and figures
- July 4th celebrations in the United States
- Bastille Day in France

“Fear is the foundation of most government.”

~John Adams, second president of the United States from 1797 to 1801.

	Civilization	Civilization	Civilization
SOCIAL Development & transformation of social structures			
POLITICAL Statebuilding			
INTERACTIONS Between humans & the environment			
CULTURAL Development & interaction of cultures			
ECONOMY Creation, expansion and interaction of economic systems			
TECHNOLOGY Adapting for efficiency, comfort, security, and technological advances			

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5.2 Nationalism and Revolutions from 1750-1900

The period from 1750 to 1900 witnessed a powerful wave of revolutions that reshaped global politics. Influenced by Enlightenment ideals like liberty, natural rights, and the social contract, people across the world began to challenge monarchies, colonial rule, and social hierarchies. These revolutions sparked the formation of new nation-states and spread democratic ideals that reshaped national identities and global power structures.

Enlightenment: The Spark of Revolution

The Enlightenment was a philosophical movement in 18th-century Europe that emphasized reason, individualism, and natural rights.

Thinkers like John Locke, Jean-Jacques Rousseau, and Baron de Montesquieu promoted ideas such as:

- Government by consent of the governed
- Popular sovereignty
- Separation of powers
- Natural rights to life, liberty, and property

These ideas challenged the legitimacy of absolute monarchies and became the ideological backbone of many revolutionary movements.

Key Idea: Enlightenment principles inspired revolutions around the globe, promoting nationalism, democracy, and constitutionalism.

Atlantic Revolutions: A Chain Reaction

Revolution	Causes	Key Enlightenment Ideas	Outcomes
American (1775–83)	British taxation without representation	Popular sovereignty, natural rights	U.S. independence, constitutional republic
French (1789–99)	Inequality, debt, and the Estates system	Natural rights, equality before the law	End of monarchy, Declaration of Rights of Man, rise of Napoleon
Haitian (1791–1804)	Slavery and colonial exploitation	Liberty and equality for all	First successful slave revolt, first Black republic in the Americas
Latin American	Social/racial hierarchies, Creole resentment	Independence, popular sovereignty	Creation of new republics; abolition of slavery in some regions

The American Revolution (1775–1783)

British colonies in North America rebelled against imperial control. After the Seven Years' War, Britain imposed taxes on colonists to cover war debts.

Colonists demanded representation in Parliament ("No taxation without representation!")

The Declaration of Independence (1776) listed grievances against King George III and was inspired by Enlightenment ideals.

With help from France, the colonies won the war and created a republican democracy with a constitution and separation of powers.

The American Revolution set a global precedent for challenging monarchies and building representative governments.

The French Revolution (1789–1799)

France was deeply in debt and still reeling from its role in the American Revolution and the Seven Years' War. Social inequality under the Estates System further fueled unrest.

The Third Estate (commoners), who made up 97% of the population, had little power.

The National Assembly formed in protest and issued the Declaration of the Rights of Man and of the Citizen, asserting natural rights and democratic values.

Radicalism led to the Reign of Terror, with thousands executed by guillotine.

Napoleon Bonaparte rose to power, ending the revolution but spreading revolutionary ideals through his conquests.

The French Revolution reshaped the political and social fabric of Europe and introduced the idea of national citizenship.

The Haitian Revolution (1791–1804)

Inspired by events in France, enslaved Africans in Saint-Domingue (Haiti) launched a successful revolt.

Led by Toussaint L'Ouverture, maroon societies fought against French planters.

Haiti became the first post-colonial, Black-led republic, abolishing slavery and redistributing land.

Napoleon's attempts to reclaim the colony failed, as his focus shifted to Europe.

Haiti's revolution was the first and only successful slave uprising that established a nation.

Latin American/Creole Revolutions (1810–1830s)

Colonial Latin American society was deeply hierarchical.

Creoles (Europeans born in the Americas) resented Peninsulares (Europeans born in Spain).

Influenced by Enlightenment ideals and earlier revolutions, Latin Americans sought independence.

Simón Bolívar led independence movements in northern South America.

His Jamaica Letter (1815) emphasized unity and liberty for Latin Americans.

Despite success, the region did not unite into a single nation (unlike the U.S.).

While Creoles gained power, Indigenous and Afro-descended peoples remained marginalized.

Puerto Rico & Cuba: Calls for Freedom

Spain's last American colonies—Puerto Rico and Cuba—also saw revolutionary movements.

Lola Rodríguez de Tió, a Puerto Rican poet, used Enlightenment themes in her writing to call for independence.

Both colonies were freed from Spanish rule by 1900, but U.S. imperialism soon followed (e.g., Guantanamo Bay in Cuba).

Enlightenment-inspired revolutions also influenced Caribbean and island nationalist movements.



Simón Bolívar. Image Courtesy of Wikimedia

New Zealand Wars (1845–1872)

The Māori, indigenous peoples of New Zealand, resisted British colonization.

British industrialization and imperialism pushed them to annex land.

The Māori developed a stronger shared identity and nationalism in response to conquest.

After 40 years of resistance, the British defeated them by 1872.

Colonial resistance often produced new forms of nationalism among indigenous peoples.

Nationalism and Unification Movements in Europe

Nationalism also fueled unification efforts in Europe, leading to the formation of new nation-states.

Italian Unification

Italy had been divided into kingdoms since the fall of Rome.

Count Camillo di Cavour used diplomacy and Realpolitik (pragmatic politics) to unify the north.

Giuseppe Garibaldi and Giuseppe Mazzini helped unify the south.

National identity (common language, history, and religion) became a unifying force.

German Unification

Led by Otto von Bismarck, who also used Realpolitik.

He engineered wars with Denmark, Austria, and France to unite German-speaking peoples.

In 1871, the German Empire was declared.

German unification laid the groundwork for nationalism-fueled tensions in the 20th century.

Balkan Nationalism and the Ottoman Decline

The Ottoman Empire was a multiethnic empire in decline by the 19th century.

Nationalist movements grew among Balkan peoples like Greeks, Serbs, Bulgarians, and Romanians.

These groups demanded independence based on shared culture, language, and religion.

The Ottomans struggled to maintain control amid internal divisions and external pressure.

Region	Empire Ruling Before	Nationalist Group(s)	Outcome
Greece	Ottoman Empire	Greek nationalists	Independence in 1830
Serbia	Ottoman Empire	Serbian nationalists	Autonomy by mid-19th century
Bulgaria	Ottoman Empire	Bulgarian nationalists	Independence by early 20th century
Romania	Ottoman Empire	Romanian nationalists	United in 1859; independence in 1877

Nationalism both unified and fragmented regions depending on context.

Key Terms to Review (46)

American Revolution: The American Revolution was a colonial revolt against British rule that lasted from 1775 to 1783, resulting in the independence of the thirteen American colonies and the formation of the United States. This revolution was heavily influenced by Enlightenment ideas, leading to the establishment of democratic principles and the questioning of traditional authority.

Balkan Nationalism: Balkan Nationalism refers to the movement among various ethnic groups in the Balkan Peninsula during the 19th and early 20th centuries, advocating for self-determination and independence from empires like the Ottoman and Austro-Hungarian. This rise of national identity was influenced by a mix of cultural revival, historical grievances, and the spread of Enlightenment ideas, leading to significant political upheaval in the region.

British North America: British North America refers to the territories in North America that were under British control during the colonial period, primarily from the 17th century until the American Revolution in the late 18th century. This term encompasses various colonies, including Canada and parts of the present-day United States, which became central to discussions of nationalism, identity, and governance in the context of revolutions and movements for independence during the late 18th and 19th centuries.

Bulgaria: Bulgaria is a country located in Southeast Europe, which emerged as a significant national entity during the 19th century, driven by rising nationalism and movements for independence from Ottoman rule. The Bulgarian struggle for autonomy and later independence is a key example of how nationalism fueled revolutions in the region, while its geopolitical significance played a critical role in the tensions leading up to World War I.

Constitutional Government: A constitutional government is a system of governance in which the powers of the government are limited by a constitution, ensuring that the rights of individuals and the rule of law are upheld. This form of government emerged as a response to absolute monarchies and is characterized by the separation of powers, checks and balances, and the protection of civil liberties. The rise of constitutional governments during the period from 1750 to 1900 was closely tied to revolutionary movements and the quest for national identity.

Count di Cavour: Count di Cavour was an Italian statesman and a key figure in the unification of Italy during the 19th century. As Prime Minister of the Kingdom of Sardinia, he played a crucial role in diplomatic and military strategies that led to the unification of various Italian states into a single nation. His political vision and pragmatic approach to governance were significant in fostering nationalism and driving the revolutionary movements that characterized this period.

Creoles: Creoles were people of European descent born in the Americas, particularly during the colonial period. They played a significant role in shaping the social, political, and economic landscape of the Spanish and Portuguese colonies, often feeling a sense of superiority over those born in Europe while simultaneously being marginalized by the colonial authorities.

Declaration of Independence: The Declaration of Independence is a historic document adopted on July 4, 1776, declaring the American colonies' separation from British rule. It articulated the Enlightenment principles of individual rights, government by consent, and the right of the people to overthrow an unjust government, which fueled the spirit of nationalism and revolution across the globe.

Enlightenment: The Enlightenment was an intellectual and philosophical movement that emerged in the late 17th and 18th centuries, emphasizing reason, individualism, and skepticism of traditional authority. It sought to challenge established norms and promote ideas such as liberty, equality, and scientific inquiry, influencing revolutions and societal changes worldwide.

Estates General: The Estates General was a representative assembly in France that consisted of three estates: the clergy, the nobility, and the common people. This assembly played a crucial role in the lead-up to the French Revolution, as it highlighted the inequalities between these groups and the grievances of the Third Estate, which ultimately fueled demands for political reform and social change during a time of rising nationalism and revolutionary fervor.

French Revolution: The French Revolution was a period of radical social and political upheaval in France from 1789 to 1799, which profoundly affected French and global history. It marked the end of absolute monarchy, the rise of democratic ideals, and the emergence of nationalism, influencing revolutions around the world.

German Unification: German Unification refers to the process of uniting various independent German states into a single nation-state under the leadership of Prussia in the late 19th century. This movement was fueled by a rising sense of nationalism, economic integration driven by industrialization, and political maneuvering by key figures like Otto von Bismarck. The culmination of this unification was the proclamation of the German Empire in 1871, which marked a significant shift in European politics and national identities.

Giuseppe Garibaldi: Giuseppe Garibaldi was an Italian general, nationalist, and key figure in the unification of Italy during the 19th century. Known for his military campaigns and passionate commitment to the cause of Italian nationalism, Garibaldi played a crucial role in the formation of the Kingdom of Italy, embodying the spirit of the revolutionary movements that characterized this era of national unification across Europe.

Giuseppe Mazzini: Giuseppe Mazzini was an influential Italian nationalist and revolutionary who played a key role in the unification of Italy during the 19th century. He founded the political movement known as Young Italy, which aimed to promote the idea of a unified Italian nation and encouraged the people to fight for their national identity and freedom from foreign domination. His ideas contributed significantly to the rise of nationalism in Europe during this era.

Great Britain: Great Britain is an island nation located off the northwestern coast of mainland Europe, consisting of England, Scotland, and Wales. Its historical influence shaped global political, economic, and cultural landscapes, particularly during periods of nationalism, imperialism, and industrialization.

Greece: Greece is a country located in southeastern Europe known for its rich history and cultural heritage, particularly as the cradle of Western civilization. In the context of nationalism and revolutions during the 18th and 19th centuries, Greece was a focal point for nationalist movements that sought independence from Ottoman rule, reflecting broader themes of identity, self-determination, and national pride.

Haitian Revolution: The Haitian Revolution was a successful anti-slavery and anti-colonial insurrection that took place between 1791 and 1804, resulting in the establishment of Haiti as the first independent black republic and the second independent nation in the Americas. This revolution was influenced by Enlightenment ideals and the wave of nationalism sweeping through the world, marking a significant challenge to European colonialism and slavery.

Italian Unification: Italian Unification, also known as the Risorgimento, was the political and social process that consolidated the various states of the Italian peninsula into the single nation of Italy during the 19th century. This movement was driven by nationalism, a growing sense of cultural identity among Italians, and the desire for political independence from foreign rule and

internal fragmentation.

[Jamaica Letter](#): The Jamaica Letter is a document written by Simón Bolívar in 1815, expressing his thoughts on the struggles for independence in Latin America and the future of the region. In this letter, Bolívar articulates his vision for a united Latin America and reflects on the challenges faced by revolutionary movements, connecting his ideas to the broader themes of nationalism and revolutions during the 19th century.

[Latin American Creole Revolutions](#): The Latin American Creole Revolutions were a series of uprisings and movements that occurred in the early 19th century, leading to the independence of various Latin American territories from Spanish colonial rule. Fueled by Enlightenment ideas, nationalistic sentiments, and dissatisfaction with colonial governance, these revolutions were primarily led by Creoles, people of European descent born in the Americas, who sought to establish their own authority and reject the dominance of Peninsulares, or those born in Spain.

[Lola Rodríguez de Tío](#): Lola Rodríguez de Tío was a Puerto Rican poet, journalist, and political activist known for her strong advocacy for Puerto Rican independence and her promotion of nationalism through her literary works. Her writings were significant during a time when many Latin American countries were struggling for independence from colonial powers, and they resonated deeply with the sentiments of nationalism and the quest for self-determination.

[Maori Tribes](#): Maori tribes, known as iwi, are the indigenous Polynesian people of New Zealand, characterized by their rich cultural heritage, language, and social organization. These tribes played a significant role in shaping New Zealand's identity and were heavily influenced by nationalist movements during the 19th century, especially as European colonization intensified.

[Maroon Communities](#): Maroon communities were settlements established by enslaved Africans who escaped from plantations in the Americas and the Caribbean, forming their own societies in remote areas. These communities often sought to maintain their cultural identities and resist colonial oppression, becoming symbols of resistance against slavery during the period of nationalism and revolutions from 1750 to 1900.

[Mestizos](#): Mestizos are individuals of mixed European and Indigenous American ancestry, who emerged as a distinct social class in the colonial societies of Latin America. This blending of cultures and races was a significant result of European colonization, leading to new social hierarchies and cultural identities that would play a critical role in shaping nationalist movements and class relations in the region.

[Napoleonic Codes](#): The Napoleonic Codes, formally known as the Civil Code of 1804, were a set of laws established under Napoleon Bonaparte that reformed the legal framework in France. This legal code aimed to create a unified and rational system of laws that emphasized principles such as equality before the law, secular authority, and property rights. The codes played a crucial role in shaping modern legal systems and reflected the rise of nationalism during a time of revolutions across Europe.

[National Assembly](#): The National Assembly was a key political body formed during the early stages of the French Revolution in 1789, representing the common people and challenging the authority of the monarchy. It marked a significant shift towards representative democracy and the establishment of constitutional government in France, embodying the rise of nationalism and revolutionary sentiments that swept across Europe during this period.

[Natural Rights](#): Natural rights are the fundamental human rights that individuals possess simply by being human, often considered to be universal and inalienable. These rights include life, liberty, and property, and form the philosophical basis for individual freedom and democratic governance. The concept gained prominence during the Enlightenment, significantly influencing revolutionary movements and the development of modern political thought.

[New Zealand Wars](#): The New Zealand Wars were a series of conflicts fought from the 1840s to the 1870s between British colonial forces and various Māori groups in New Zealand. These wars were rooted in issues of land ownership and sovereignty, reflecting the broader themes of nationalism and colonialism during a time when many indigenous populations were asserting their rights against colonial expansion.

5.3 Industrialization Begins

The Industrial Revolution marked a pivotal shift in global economic production, driven by human innovation and access to natural resources. Beginning in **Great Britain** in the mid-18th century and spreading to places like **France**, **Germany**, and the **United States**, industrialization transformed societies by concentrating production, introducing new technologies, and fundamentally altering the relationship between humans and the environment.

Environmental and Economic Causes of Industrialization

Industrialization would not have been possible without favorable **environmental conditions** and **economic incentives**. Several interrelated factors helped launch this revolution in production:

Proximity to waterways (rivers and canals) provided energy and cheap transportation.

Abundant natural resources, especially **coal**, **iron**, and **timber**, supplied the raw materials for industry.

Improved agricultural productivity (from the Agricultural Revolution) freed labor for factories.

Legal protections for private property encouraged innovation and investment.

Urbanization created concentrated labor forces.

Access to foreign markets and resources through colonies enabled capital accumulation.

Capitalism and profit motives fueled entrepreneurial efforts and factory growth.

Geography Matters: Britain's location atop major coal deposits and its expansive network of navigable rivers gave it a critical edge. The ability to extract and transport fuel and materials easily helped power early factories.

Agricultural Advances and Labor Shifts

Increased agricultural efficiency meant fewer workers were needed on farms, leading to **rural-to-urban migration**. New methods like **crop rotation**, the **seed drill**, and the widespread cultivation of the **potato** improved food supply and population growth.

The Enclosure Movement in Britain forced small farmers off common lands, concentrating land ownership and pushing rural populations into growing industrial cities.

Colonial Wealth and Capital Accumulation

European powers like Britain used their colonies to extract both raw materials (such as cotton, sugar, and rubber) and wealth, which were then reinvested in industrial development.

Colonies served as sources of raw materials and new markets for manufactured goods.

The accumulation of capital from overseas trade enabled investment in new machinery, infrastructure, and factories.

Factor	Role in Industrialization
Waterways & Rivers	Provided power, transportation, and waste disposal for factories
Coal and Iron	Fueled steam engines and built machines/infrastructure
Agricultural Productivity	Freed up labor, increased food supply
Urbanization	Supplied concentrated factory labor
Private Property Laws	Incentivized innovation and factory investment
Colonies	Offered raw materials and markets for goods
Capital Accumulation	Financed industrial expansion and technological development

The Factory System and Specialization of Labor

The hallmark of industrialization was the rise of the **factory system**—a model where goods were produced under one roof, powered by machines and organized labor.

Centralized Production

Prior to industrialization, goods were often made by hand in the home (the **cottage industry**). Factories centralized and mechanized this process, boosting efficiency.

Workers were **brought into a single location**, often near water for power.

Production was **mechanized**, increasing both volume and speed.

Cities grew rapidly as people moved closer to factory jobs.

Specialization of Labor

To maximize productivity, the **division of labor** was implemented. Instead of crafting entire products, workers focused on one repetitive task—a key feature of **assembly line production**.

Pre-Industrial Labor	Industrial Labor (Factory System)
Skilled artisans	Unskilled factory workers
Home-based (cottage)	Centralized in factories
Flexible work hours	Rigid schedules and time discipline
Full-product craftsmanship	Repetitive, task-specific specialization

Efficiency vs. Autonomy: Specialization of labor increased productivity but often stripped workers of craftsmanship and independence, making them dependent on factory jobs.

Broader Social and Economic Effects

The Industrial Revolution created **winners and losers**. On one hand, it spurred the rise of a **middle class**, consumer goods, and urban growth. On the other, it introduced **harsh working conditions**, environmental degradation, and growing **economic inequality**.

Middle Class Growth: Factory owners, merchants, and professionals gained wealth and social mobility.

Working Class Hardships: Long hours, low wages, and unsafe conditions defined factory life.

Urbanization: Rapid city growth led to overcrowding, poor sanitation, and public health issues.

Environmental Impact: Coal-burning and industrial waste drastically altered the natural environment.

Key Terms to Review

Access to Foreign Resources: Access to foreign resources refers to the ability of a nation or region to obtain raw materials, goods, and technologies from outside its own borders. This access was crucial during periods of industrialization, as it enabled countries to fuel their economic growth and enhance their manufacturing capabilities by importing essential commodities and innovations not available domestically.

Assembly Line: An assembly line is a manufacturing process in which individual parts of a product are assembled in a sequential manner along a conveyor belt or production line, allowing for mass production and increased efficiency. This method revolutionized the manufacturing industry by enabling faster production rates and lowering costs, significantly impacting the economy and labor practices during industrialization and later in global conflicts.

Britain: Britain refers to the island nation that became a global powerhouse during the Industrial Revolution, particularly in the 18th and 19th centuries. Its vast maritime empire and innovative industrial practices positioned it as a leader in economic, political, and cultural spheres, influencing global dynamics and interactions across different regions.

Capitalism: Capitalism is an economic system characterized by private ownership of the means of production, where goods and services are produced for profit in a competitive marketplace. This system encourages innovation, consumer choice, and investment, shaping social and economic structures throughout history.

Coal: Coal is a combustible black or brownish-black sedimentary rock primarily composed of carbon, used extensively as a fuel source during the Industrial Revolution and beyond. Its importance grew as industrialization began, driving energy production and powering steam engines, which in turn led to massive economic and social changes.

Cotton Gin: The cotton gin is a mechanical device invented by Eli Whitney in 1793 that quickly separates cotton fibers from their seeds. This invention revolutionized the cotton industry by significantly increasing the speed of cotton processing and making it more profitable, which in turn fueled the growth of the plantation system in the American South and contributed to the broader patterns of industrialization and technological advancement during this period.

Crop Rotation: Crop rotation is an agricultural practice that involves alternating the types of crops grown on a particular piece of land over successive seasons. This method helps improve soil fertility, control pests and diseases, and optimize the use of nutrients, leading to more sustainable farming practices. Its significance is particularly noted during periods of early industrialization and transformations in agricultural techniques from 1450 to 1750.

Enclosure Act: The Enclosure Act refers to a series of laws passed in England between the 18th and 19th centuries that consolidated small landholdings into larger farms. This process

transformed communal lands into privately owned plots, which were fenced off and cultivated more efficiently. The Enclosure Acts played a significant role in the agricultural revolution, leading to increased productivity and setting the stage for industrialization as displaced rural workers moved to cities in search of employment.

Factory System: The Factory System refers to a method of manufacturing that emerged during the Industrial Revolution, characterized by the centralized production of goods in large-scale factories. This system replaced traditional artisanal and home-based production methods, enabling mass production and significantly increasing efficiency and output through the use of machinery and division of labor.

France: France is a country in Western Europe known for its rich history, cultural influence, and significant role in global events. Throughout history, France has been a major player in political, social, and economic changes, impacting areas such as industrialization, imperialism, world wars, and decolonization.

Geographic Distribution of Natural Resources: Geographic Distribution of Natural Resources refers to how different natural resources, such as coal, iron, oil, and fertile land, are spread across various regions of the world. This distribution is crucial in understanding the economic development and industrialization patterns of countries, as access to these resources often determines a nation's ability to grow industries and expand its economy.

Germany: Germany is a nation-state in Central Europe that became a unified country in 1871, playing a crucial role in various global events and conflicts from the late 19th century onwards. Its industrial growth, nationalistic movements, and political ambitions significantly influenced the course of European history, particularly during major wars and economic developments.

Improved Agricultural Activity: Improved Agricultural Activity refers to advancements in farming techniques, tools, and crop management that increase productivity and efficiency in agriculture. These improvements played a crucial role in supporting population growth and urbanization, particularly during the early phases of industrialization, as they allowed for more food to be produced with less labor, freeing people to work in factories and other urban jobs.

Industrial Revolution: The Industrial Revolution was a transformative period that began in the late 18th century, marked by the transition from agrarian economies to industrialized ones, primarily driven by technological innovations and changes in production methods. This shift had profound impacts on social structures, economies, and the global landscape, influencing responses to industrialization, societal changes, and the expansion of imperialism.

Iron and Coal: Iron and coal are crucial resources that served as the backbone of industrialization, particularly during the 18th and 19th centuries. Iron was essential for building machinery, infrastructure, and tools, while coal was the primary fuel source for powering steam engines and factories. Together, these resources fueled the transformation of economies from agrarian to industrial, driving advancements in technology and production processes.

Legal Protection of Private Property: Legal protection of private property refers to the laws and regulations that safeguard individuals' rights to own, use, and transfer property without interference from others or the government. This concept became especially significant during the onset of industrialization, as it laid the groundwork for economic development and investment by ensuring that individuals could confidently engage in business and trade, knowing their assets were protected.

Middle Class: The middle class refers to a social group that emerged prominently during the Industrial Revolution, characterized by their economic stability and influence, typically positioned between the working class and the upper class. This group played a vital role in shaping societal norms, values, and politics during significant historical transitions.

Potato: The potato is a starchy tuber that originated in the Andean region of South America and became a staple food crop worldwide. Its introduction to Europe in the late 16th century sparked agricultural and economic changes, especially during the early stages of industrialization, by providing a reliable food source that contributed to population growth and urbanization.

Power Loom: The power loom is a mechanized loom that revolutionized the textile industry by enabling the mass production of woven fabric through the use of steam or water power. This innovation played a key role in the Industrial Revolution, facilitating the shift from manual labor to machine-based production and significantly increasing efficiency and output in textile manufacturing.

Proximity to Waterways: Proximity to waterways refers to the geographical closeness of a region or settlement to rivers, lakes, and oceans, which significantly impacts transportation, trade, and industrial growth. This factor played a crucial role during the onset of industrialization as it facilitated access to raw materials and markets while also enabling efficient transportation of goods.

Seed Drill: The seed drill is an agricultural invention that allows for the efficient planting of seeds in well-spaced rows at the correct depth. This technology was crucial during the Agricultural Revolution, significantly enhancing crop yields and promoting the shift towards larger-scale farming, which laid the groundwork for the Industrial Revolution.

Specialization of Labor: Specialization of labor refers to the process where individuals or groups focus on specific tasks or roles in production, leading to increased efficiency and productivity. This concept was crucial during the onset of industrialization, as it allowed for greater output and improved quality of goods, ultimately transforming economies and societies.

Steam Engine: The steam engine is a heat engine that converts the thermal energy from steam into mechanical work, playing a crucial role in the Industrial Revolution. It powered factories, trains, and ships, significantly transforming transportation and industry while facilitating a massive shift from agrarian economies to industrialized societies.

Steam Power: Steam power refers to the energy generated by steam, typically used to drive engines and machinery. This innovation played a crucial role in transforming industries, transportation, and economies during the Industrial Revolution, leading to widespread changes in production methods, global trade, and environmental impacts.

Textile Industry: The textile industry involves the production of fabrics and cloth, primarily through the processes of spinning, weaving, and finishing. This industry was a crucial catalyst for industrialization, significantly influencing economic growth and social change during the 18th and 19th centuries.

United States: The United States is a federal republic established in 1776, formed from thirteen British colonies in North America. It has been a significant player in global politics, economics, and culture, influencing various movements related to nationalism, industrialization, and international conflicts throughout its history.

Urbanization: Urbanization refers to the process by which an increasing percentage of a population comes to live in urban areas, often as a result of industrialization and economic development. This shift has profound effects on society, culture, and the economy, altering traditional lifestyles and prompting new social dynamics.

No Taxation without Representation: No Taxation without Representation is a political slogan that emerged in the 18th century, primarily among the American colonists, asserting that it is unjust to impose taxes on individuals without their consent through elected representatives. This principle became a rallying cry for those opposing British taxation policies and is closely linked to the broader movements of nationalism and revolutions during this period, highlighting the importance of political representation in governance and fueling demands for self-determination.

Otto von Bismarck: Otto von Bismarck was a German statesman who served as the first Chancellor of the German Empire from 1871 to 1890. He is best known for his role in unifying Germany through a series of strategic wars and diplomatic maneuvers, which were driven by nationalist sentiments and aimed at consolidating power under Prussian leadership.

Ottoman Empire: The Ottoman Empire was a vast and influential Islamic state that existed from the late 13th century until the early 20th century, encompassing parts of Europe, Asia, and Africa. It played a crucial role in shaping political, cultural, and economic landscapes across these regions, particularly as it navigated challenges related to modernization, nationalism, and imperialism.

Peninsulares: Peninsulares were individuals born in Spain or Portugal who held high social, political, and economic status in the colonies of Latin America during the colonial period. They represented the top tier of the social hierarchy, often controlling the wealth and power of the colonial administration, which created tensions with other social classes, particularly Creoles, leading to revolutionary movements later on.

Polynesian Migration Patterns: Polynesian Migration Patterns refer to the movement of Polynesian peoples across the Pacific Ocean, beginning around 1500 BCE and continuing through the early modern period. These migrations led to the settlement of numerous islands in the Pacific, including Hawaii, New Zealand, and Easter Island, and are significant for understanding cultural exchange, adaptation, and social organization within these communities during periods of change and upheaval.

Puerto Rico & Cuba: Puerto Rico and Cuba are two Caribbean islands with rich histories that became focal points of nationalist movements and revolutions in the late 19th century. Both islands were under colonial rule, with Puerto Rico as a territory of Spain and later the United States, while Cuba fought for independence from Spanish rule. Their struggles for autonomy reflect broader themes of nationalism and anti-colonial sentiments that defined the era.

Realpolitik: Realpolitik refers to a pragmatic and strategic approach to politics that prioritizes practicality over ideology or moral considerations. This approach emerged prominently during the 19th century, particularly in the context of statecraft and diplomacy, influencing various nationalist movements and revolutions by emphasizing the importance of power dynamics and national interests over ideals.

Romania: Romania is a nation-state located in Southeastern Europe, formed in the 19th century through the unification of the principalities of Wallachia and Moldavia. This emergence was fueled by nationalistic sentiments and revolutions that swept across Europe, embodying the struggle for national identity and self-determination during a period marked by political upheaval and the decline of empires.

Separation of Powers: Separation of Powers is a political doctrine that divides the responsibilities and powers of government into distinct branches to prevent any one branch from gaining too much power. This system, often characterized by the division into executive, legislative, and judicial branches, promotes accountability and checks and balances within a government structure, which was heavily influenced by Enlightenment thinkers. The principle was adopted in various revolutionary movements as societies sought to create fairer governance based on reason and individual rights.

Serbia: Serbia is a landlocked country located in Southeast Europe, known for its rich cultural history and significant role in the Balkan region. Throughout the 19th century, Serbia emerged as a national entity driven by nationalism, leading to its independence from the Ottoman Empire and playing a key role in the tensions that ignited World War I.

Seven Years' War: The Seven Years' War was a global conflict that lasted from 1756 to 1763, involving major world powers like Britain, France, Spain, and Portugal. Often referred to as the first 'world war,' it was marked by battles in Europe, North America, the Caribbean, West Africa, and India. The outcomes of the war had significant implications for colonial empires and fueled nationalist sentiments in various regions.

Simon Bolivar: Simon Bolivar was a South American revolutionary leader who played a key role in the independence movements of several Latin American countries from Spanish rule in the early 19th century. Known as 'El Libertador', he is celebrated for his vision of a united Latin America, reflecting the rise of nationalism and the push for independence during this period of revolutions.

Social Contract: The Social Contract is a philosophical concept that suggests individuals consent, either explicitly or implicitly, to surrender some of their freedoms and submit to the authority of a governing body in exchange for protection of their remaining rights. This idea became foundational during the Enlightenment, influencing revolutionary thought and the development of modern political systems focused on individual rights and national sovereignty.

Storming the Bastille: The Storming of the Bastille was a significant event that occurred on July 14, 1789, when revolutionaries in Paris stormed the fortress-prison known as the Bastille, symbolizing the end of the king's absolute power and the beginning of the French Revolution. This event is often viewed as a key turning point in the rise of nationalism and revolutionary fervor across Europe, as it inspired other movements seeking liberty and equality.

Tabula Rasa: Tabula Rasa is a philosophical concept that suggests individuals are born as a 'blank slate,' with no innate knowledge or preconceptions, and that all understanding comes from experience and perception. This idea emphasizes the importance of environment and education in shaping human behavior and thought, which aligns with the values of reason and individualism during a period focused on enlightenment, as well as the rise of national identities and revolutionary sentiments fueled by the belief in human potential and societal reform.

Three Estates: The Three Estates refer to the social hierarchy in pre-revolutionary France, consisting of the First Estate (clergy), the Second Estate (nobility), and the Third Estate (commoners). This division played a crucial role in shaping French society and politics, contributing to widespread discontent that eventually fueled revolutionary movements during the period of nationalism and revolutions from 1750 to 1900.

Toussaint L'Ouverture: Toussaint L'Ouverture was a prominent leader of the Haitian Revolution who played a crucial role in leading enslaved Africans in Saint-Domingue (now Haiti) to fight for their freedom and independence from French colonial rule. His leadership marked a significant moment in the rise of nationalism and the quest for independence during a time when revolutions were reshaping societies across the globe.

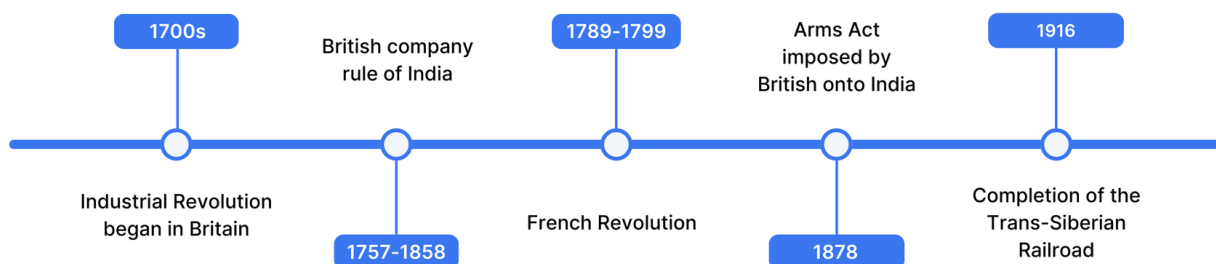
United States: The United States is a federal republic established in 1776, formed from thirteen British colonies in North America. It has been a significant player in global politics, economics, and culture, influencing various movements related to nationalism, industrialization, and international conflicts throughout its history.

Topic 5.4 Industrialization Spreads

Main Idea

Industrialization began in Britain during the 1700s and slowly spread around the world through colonialism. Britain's colonies, namely India, did not benefit from industrialization until later on due to Britain's restrictive regulations and taxes. However, industrialization did create new global manufacturers and world powers and led to the building of new railroads.

Key Timeline



Things to Know

Spread of Industrialization

Industrialized countries like Britain possess water transportation, capital, and natural resources.

France and Germany:

- Industrialization was delayed in France because they had low populated urban centers. Additionally dealing with the French Revolution and consecutive wars that followed, they were busy with that.
- Industrialization was also delayed in Germany because it was fragmented into numerous smaller states. Soon after they unified, Germany became a dominant producer of steel and coal.

United States

- The United States' **Industrial Revolution** began in the 19th century and was a leading force by the 1900s.
- Immigrants came to the U.S. to get away from political conflict and poverty in their home country, which provided a lot of **human capital** in factories.

Russia:

- Russia began to industrialize and focused primarily on railroads, leading to the creation of the long **Trans-Siberian Railroad** that connected Russia to East Asia.
- As railroads were being built, steel and coal industries were starting to develop, but Russia's economy continued to stay agricultural until 1917.

Japan:

- Even though Japan had the least contact with Europe, Japan was the first to industrialize in East Asia.
- Japan adopted Western modern defensive technologies and strategies to protect their domestic tradition and culture.
- They emerged as a world power in the late 1800s.

Shifts in Manufacturing

Middle Eastern and Asian countries still produced manufactured goods, but their power in global trade declined.

Shipbuilding in India and Southeast Asia:

- Shipbuilding resurged in India during the 17th century but suffered due to the British's mismanagement of resources
- The **British East India Company** chose certain ships as part of the Indian Navy, which later demobilized and turned into the Royal Navy.

Iron Works in India:

- During the period of British **company rule**, the British closed down Indian mines because they thought the mines were used to get lead for ammunition due to the Rebellion of 1857.

- Fear of another uprising led to the **Arms Act of 1878**.
- These regulations led to the mining industry almost going extinct in 19th century India.
- Due to a lack of technological access and innovation during British rule, mining only resurged in India during the early 20th century.

Textile Production in India and Egypt:

- India and Egypt were the first to engage in textile production, but the British made it unprofitable for them.
- Bombay textile mills were making more than Lanchester textile mills, so they pushed for the British into setting a 5% equalizing tax on Indian textiles which led to no more profit.
- Europe's extreme growth in textile production led to the decline of Egypt's textile exports to Europe after the 18th century.

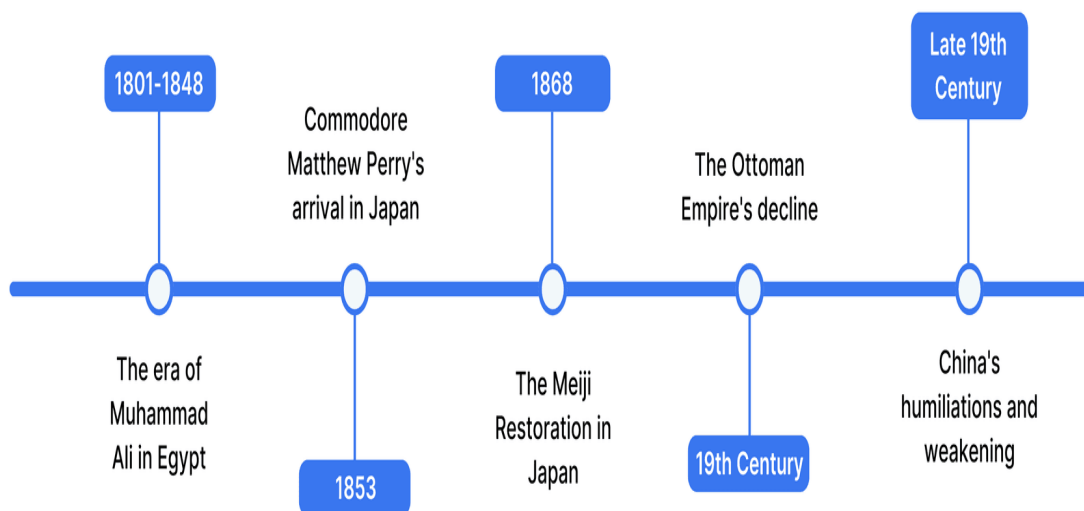
5.6 Industrialization: Government's Role

Topic 5.6 Environmental Consequences of Connectivity

Main Idea

★ Industrialization and modernization had different impacts on various nations. Some embraced Western technology and innovation to varying degrees, while others struggled due to weak governance or external pressures.

Key Timeline



5.5 Technology in the Industrial Age

Harnessing Fossil Fuels and the Rise of Machine Power

The **Industrial Revolution** introduced machines that dramatically altered the scale, speed, and scope of human production. Among the most transformative innovations were the **steam engine** and **internal combustion engine**, which allowed societies to harness **energy from fossil fuels** like **coal** and **oil** on a massive scale.

□ European nations, notably Russia, perceived chances for territorial expansion as the These new technologies expanded industrial capabilities, reshaped transportation, and laid the groundwork for a globalized economy. The result was a shift away from human- and animal-powered systems toward machines that could operate continuously and independently of environmental conditions.

China

The Steam Engine: Powering Industry and Expansion

into “spheres of influence”.

The **steam engine**, refined in the 18th century by James Watt, became the backbone of the first phase of industrialization. Its ability to generate consistent, reliable energy had far-reaching implications:

□ The central government’s weakness and inability to respond effectively to Western **Transportation**: Steam engines powered **trains** and **steamboats**, allowing faster, more predictable travel and trade across continents and oceans.

Japan

Industrial Production: Factories used steam power to operate looms, mills, and other machinery, which increased productivity and reduced dependence on manual labor.

□ **Mining**: Steam engines enabled deeper extraction of coal and minerals, fueling a feedback loop of more energy production.

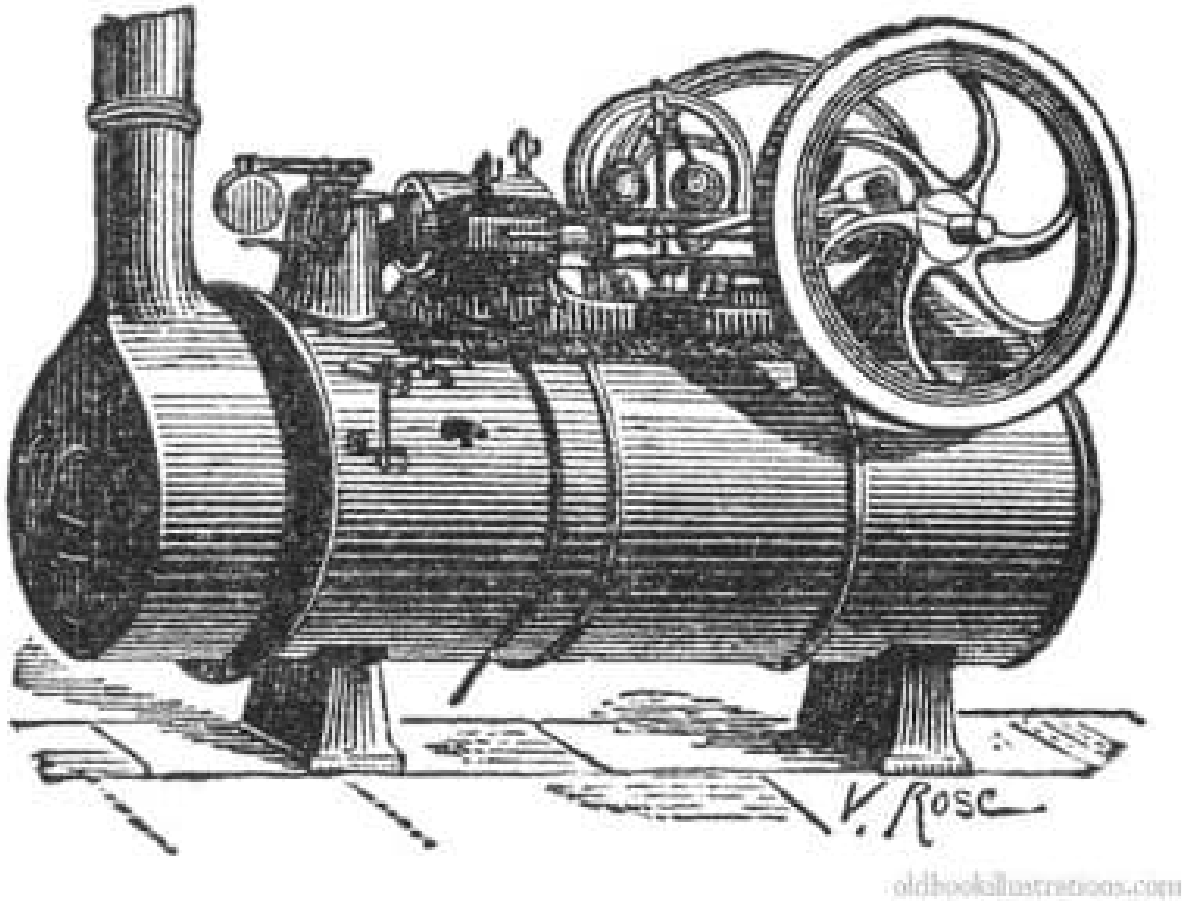
□ **Urban Infrastructure**: As cities grew, steam-powered machinery supported the expansion of water pumping, heating, and manufacturing.

the Meiji Restoration.

Muhammad Ali (Ottoman) and Egyptian Industrialization

- Muhammad Ali, an Albanian Ottoman officer, gained prominence and became the new governor of Egypt.
- Ali’s semi-independence from the Ottoman sultan allowed him to undertake reforms.
- Reforms included modernizing the military, establishing schools, and starting an official newspaper.
- Taxation of peasants at high rates to gain control of cotton production and agricultural products.
- State-sponsored industrialization, with textile factories, armament production, and shipbuilding.
- Muhammad Ali’s vision of state-sponsored industrialization positioned him as Egypt’s first great modern ruler.

Meiji Restoration (Japan)



Steam Engine. Image courtesy of Bibliotheca Alexandrina.

Unchained from Nature: Unlike windmills or water wheels, steam engines could operate anywhere—revolutionizing when and where work could be done.

The Internal Combustion Engine: A New Era of Mobility

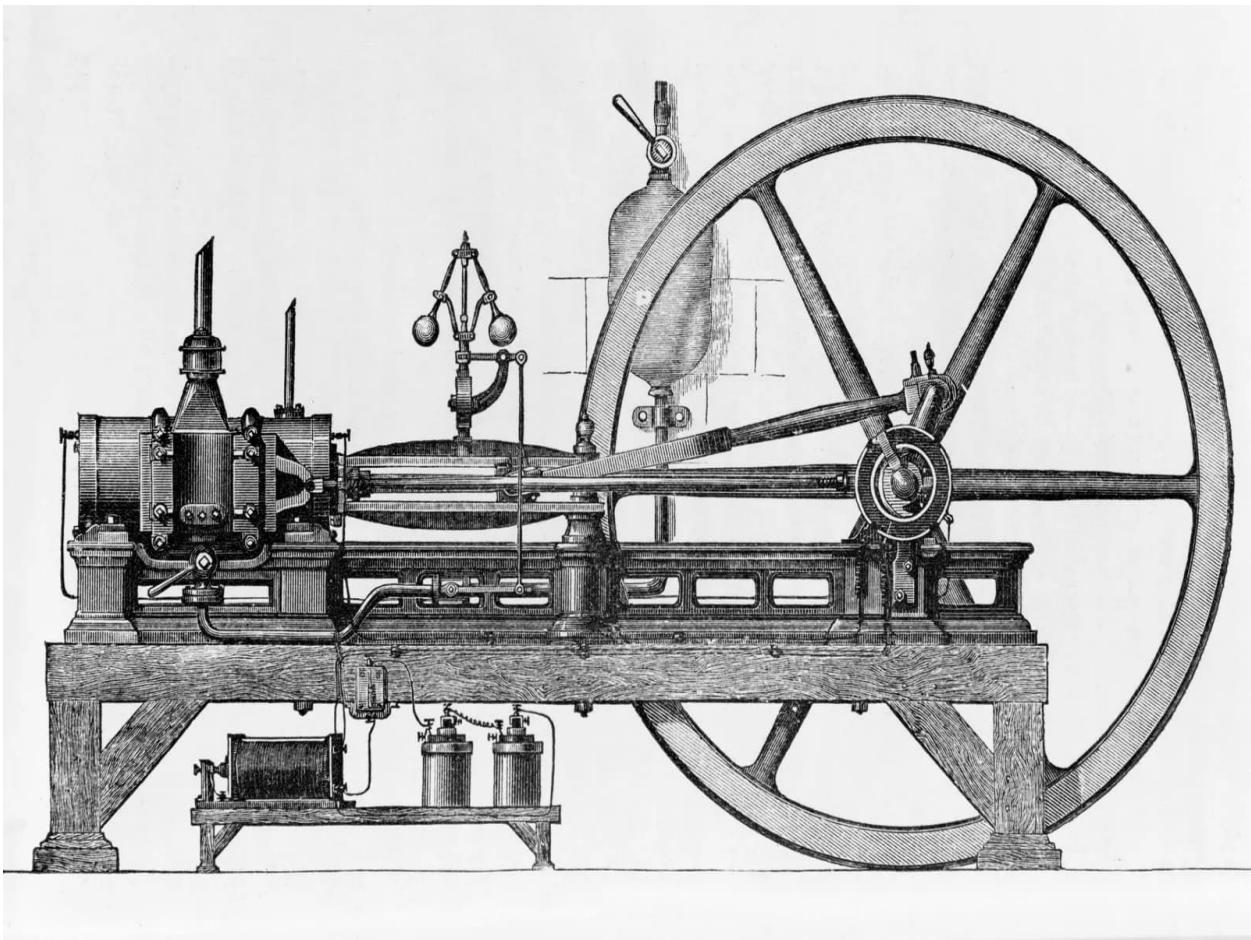
Developed in the 19th century, the **internal combustion engine** sparked a second energy revolution by making mobility more flexible and efficient. It relied on **petroleum-based fuels**, such as gasoline or diesel, and powered a wide range of innovations:

Automobiles: Transportation became more individualized and mobile, leading to infrastructure changes like paved roads and traffic systems.

Industry: Factories could now install smaller engines where steam engines were impractical, increasing flexibility and layout options.

Military: Armies utilized tanks, trucks, and later airplanes—greatly enhancing mobility and strategy.

Electric Power Generation: Internal combustion engines also became generators for local electrical grids in rural or industrial areas.



Internal combustion engine. Image courtesy of Encyclopedia Britannica.

The Second Industrial Revolution (c. 1870–1914)

The **Second Industrial Revolution** built on earlier technological advances but introduced new sources of energy and entirely new industries. It was characterized by innovations in **steel**, **chemicals**, **electricity**, and **precision machinery**.

New Materials and Production Techniques

The **Bessemer Process** allowed for mass production of **steel**, a stronger and more flexible alternative to iron.

Steel was essential in building **railroads**, **bridges**, **ships**, and **skyscrapers**.

The use of **assembly line manufacturing** (pioneered by companies like Ford) boosted productivity and lowered costs.

Electricity and Industrial Efficiency

Steam turbines were repurposed to generate **electricity**, replacing older waterwheels and steam engines in many settings.

Electric lighting extended factory hours and illuminated public spaces.

Electricity also powered **streetcars**, **subways**, and **communication networks**, transforming urban life.

Transportation and Communication Innovations

New forms of transportation and communication connected the globe in ways never before possible. These technologies were especially critical for expanding industrial economies into interior territories and for improving administrative efficiency.

Transportation

Railroads enabled nations to access inland resources and facilitated **migration**, trade, and state control.

Steamships reduced travel times across oceans and allowed upriver navigation, promoting the development of port cities and colonies.

Innovations in construction materials, such as **steel** and **concrete**, improved the durability and scale of transportation infrastructure.



10 January 1863: trial trip on the London Underground. Image courtesy of Odd Salon.

Communication

The **telegraph**, developed in the 1830s and 1840s, revolutionized communication by allowing near-instant transmission of information.

Telegraph lines followed railroad tracks and shipping routes, connecting colonies to imperial centers and markets to manufacturers.

A Shrinking World: The telegraph reduced the time it took to send messages from weeks or months to minutes—ushering in a new age of global communication.

Economic Impact of New Technology

The technologies of the Industrial Age transformed **trade**, **migration**, and **economic production**. Steamships and railroads expanded global commerce and facilitated the movement of goods and people, while the telegraph connected distant regions to central authorities and markets.

Economic Effects of New Technology

Technology	Economic Impact
Steam Engine	Increased industrial output; enabled faster, cheaper transportation
Internal Combustion Engine	Expanded mobility; increased efficiency in transport and factories
Bessemer Steel Process	Allowed mass construction of infrastructure
Electricity	Increased productivity; extended work hours
Telegraph	Improved communication; accelerated global trade

“If you’re really truthful with yourself, it’s a wonderful guidance.”

~Charlie Chaplin from a 1966 interview with Richard Meryman.

Comparing the First and Second Industrial Revolutions

While both phases of industrialization transformed global economies and societies, they occurred in different time periods and focused on different innovations. The **First Industrial Revolution** (c. 1750–1850) centered on **textile machinery**, **steam power**, and **iron**, whereas the **Second Industrial Revolution** (c. 1870–1914) introduced **electricity**, **steel**, **chemical industries**, and **precision machinery**.

The table below outlines key differences:

Feature	First Industrial Revolution (c. 1750–1850)	Second Industrial Revolution (c. 1870–1914)
Main Energy Source	Coal and steam	Electricity and petroleum
Key Industries	Textiles, iron, coal mining	Steel, chemicals, electricity, precision machinery
Major Innovations	Spinning jenny, water frame, steam engine	Bessemer process, electric light, internal combustion engine
Transportation Advances	Railroads and steamships	Subways, electric streetcars, automobiles
Communication Advances	Early telegraph (late stage)	Global telegraph networks, telephone
Geographic Focus	Britain, Western Europe	Germany, U.S., Japan
Economic Impact	Urbanization, factory system	Mass production, global corporations

Two Phases, One Revolution: The Second Industrial Revolution didn't replace the first—it built upon it. Together, they launched the modern industrial world.

Key Terms to Review

Agriculture: Agriculture refers to the practice of cultivating soil, growing crops, and raising animals for food, fiber, and other products used to sustain and enhance human life. This foundational economic activity has evolved significantly over time, impacting social structures, economies, and technological advancements throughout history.

Assembly Line Techniques: Assembly line techniques are a manufacturing process where a product is assembled in a sequential manner, with each worker or machine performing a specific task to complete a part of the overall production. This method significantly increases efficiency and productivity by breaking down the production process into simpler, repetitive steps, allowing for faster output and reduced costs.

Automobiles: Automobiles are self-propelled vehicles designed primarily for transportation on roads, typically powered by internal combustion engines or electric motors. Their invention and mass production transformed society by making personal mobility more accessible, changing urban planning, and influencing economies and industries around the world.

Bessemer Process: The Bessemer Process is a method for producing steel by blasting air through molten iron to remove impurities. This innovative technique drastically lowered the cost of steel production and allowed for the mass production of stronger and more durable

materials, which fueled advancements in construction, transportation, and machinery during the Industrial Age.

Chemicals: Chemicals are substances composed of atoms or molecules that have distinct properties and behaviors. During the Industrial Age, the development and application of chemicals transformed various industries, leading to innovations in manufacturing processes, agriculture, and medicine.

Coal: Coal is a combustible black or brownish-black sedimentary rock primarily composed of carbon, used extensively as a fuel source during the Industrial Revolution and beyond. Its importance grew as industrialization began, driving energy production and powering steam engines, which in turn led to massive economic and social changes.

Concrete and Steel Infrastructure: Concrete and steel infrastructure refers to the systems of construction and engineering that utilize concrete and steel as primary materials for building structures like bridges, roads, railways, and skyscrapers. This type of infrastructure became a hallmark of the Industrial Age, as it allowed for larger, stronger, and more durable constructions compared to previous methods that relied on wood or stone. The development of concrete and steel infrastructure revolutionized urbanization, transportation, and industrial productivity during this period.

Electricity: Electricity is a form of energy resulting from the presence and flow of electric charge, playing a crucial role in powering machines, lighting homes, and facilitating communication. The development and application of electricity marked a significant turning point during the Industrial Age, leading to revolutionary technological advances that transformed everyday life and industrial practices.

Electrical Industry: The electrical industry encompasses the production and distribution of electrical power, including the manufacturing of electrical equipment, generation of electricity, and the infrastructure needed to deliver power to consumers. This industry played a critical role in transforming societies during the Industrial Age by enabling technological advancements and facilitating the growth of urban centers.

Energy Production: Energy production refers to the process of generating energy, typically in the form of electricity or mechanical power, using various resources and technologies. This process was revolutionized during the Industrial Age, where innovations such as steam engines and coal-fired power plants significantly increased efficiency and output, transforming economies and societies worldwide.

Fossil Fuels: Fossil fuels are natural energy sources formed from the remains of ancient plants and animals that have undergone chemical transformations over millions of years. These fuels, primarily coal, oil, and natural gas, became crucial to the technological advancements and industrial growth during the Industrial Age, fundamentally altering energy consumption patterns and driving economic expansion.

Industrial Revolution: The Industrial Revolution was a transformative period that began in the late 18th century, marked by the transition from agrarian economies to industrialized ones, primarily driven by technological innovations and changes in production methods. This shift had profound impacts on social structures, economies, and the global landscape, influencing responses to industrialization, societal changes, and the expansion of imperialism.

Internal Combustion Engine: The internal combustion engine is a heat engine that converts fuel into mechanical energy through the process of combustion. This technology played a crucial role in the Industrial Age, powering vehicles, machinery, and significantly impacting transportation and manufacturing processes.

Light Bulb: The light bulb is an electric device that produces light when electricity passes through a filament or gas. It revolutionized the way people illuminated their homes and workplaces, marking a significant advancement in technology during the Industrial Age. This invention not only enhanced productivity by extending working hours but also transformed social and cultural practices related to light and energy consumption.

Mining: Mining refers to the process of extracting valuable minerals or other geological materials from the earth, which became increasingly important during the Industrial Age. This

surge in mining was driven by the demand for resources such as coal, iron, and precious metals, which fueled industrial growth and technological advancements. The development of new mining techniques and machinery not only enhanced extraction efficiency but also played a crucial role in transforming economies and societies during this period.

Oil and Gas Industry: The oil and gas industry refers to the global economic sector involved in the exploration, extraction, refining, transportation, and sale of oil and natural gas products. This industry plays a critical role in shaping modern economies and technologies, as oil and gas serve as key energy sources and raw materials for various products, impacting industries ranging from transportation to manufacturing.

Precision Machinery: Precision machinery refers to highly accurate and meticulously crafted machines that are designed for specific tasks with minimal tolerance for error. These machines play a critical role in manufacturing processes, enabling mass production of complex parts and products with consistent quality. The development and use of precision machinery marked a significant advancement in industrial technology, particularly during the Industrial Age, revolutionizing various sectors including textiles, manufacturing, and engineering.

Railroad: A railroad is a mode of transportation that uses tracks to facilitate the movement of trains, which can carry passengers and freight over long distances. This technology revolutionized travel and trade during the Industrial Age, significantly contributing to economic expansion and societal changes, making it a cornerstone of technological advances in modern history.

Second Industrial Revolution: The Second Industrial Revolution, occurring roughly from the late 19th century to the early 20th century, marked a phase of rapid industrial growth and technological innovation that transformed economies and societies. It was characterized by advancements in steel production, electricity, and chemical processes, leading to new forms of transportation and communication that reshaped global interactions and economic structures.

Steamship: A steamship is a vessel that is propelled by steam power, typically generated by burning coal in a boiler. This innovation represented a major advancement in marine technology during the Industrial Age, allowing for faster and more reliable transportation of goods and people across water. The steamship's efficiency and ability to navigate upstream on rivers revolutionized trade and travel, enabling global commerce to flourish like never before.

Steam Engine: The steam engine is a heat engine that converts the thermal energy from steam into mechanical work, playing a crucial role in the Industrial Revolution. It powered factories, trains, and ships, significantly transforming transportation and industry while facilitating a massive shift from agrarian economies to industrialized societies.

Steel: Steel is an alloy made primarily of iron and carbon, known for its high tensile strength and durability. During the Industrial Age, advancements in steel production techniques significantly transformed industries like construction, transportation, and manufacturing, leading to rapid urbanization and the rise of modern infrastructure.

Telegraph: The telegraph was a revolutionary communication device that allowed messages to be transmitted over long distances using electrical signals. It transformed communication in the 19th century, greatly enhancing the speed and efficiency of information exchange, which in turn influenced various aspects of society, economy, and technology.

Textile Mills: Textile mills are industrial facilities where raw materials, primarily cotton, wool, and synthetic fibers, are processed and transformed into finished textile products, such as fabrics and clothing. These mills played a crucial role in the Industrial Age by facilitating mass production, significantly increasing efficiency and output in the textile industry, and contributing to the economic growth of nations.

Trade and Commerce: Trade and commerce refer to the exchange of goods, services, and resources between individuals, businesses, and nations. This concept plays a crucial role in shaping economies, fostering connections, and driving technological advancements during the Industrial Age, leading to significant transformations in production, transportation, and communication.

Transportation: Transportation refers to the systems and methods used to move people, goods, and information from one place to another. Its evolution has profoundly influenced economic development, social structures, and patterns of migration throughout history.

Urban Cities: Urban cities are densely populated areas characterized by significant infrastructure, economic activities, and cultural institutions. They emerged as centers of innovation, commerce, and social interaction during the Industrial Age, driven by technological advancements and the migration of people from rural areas seeking work and better living conditions.

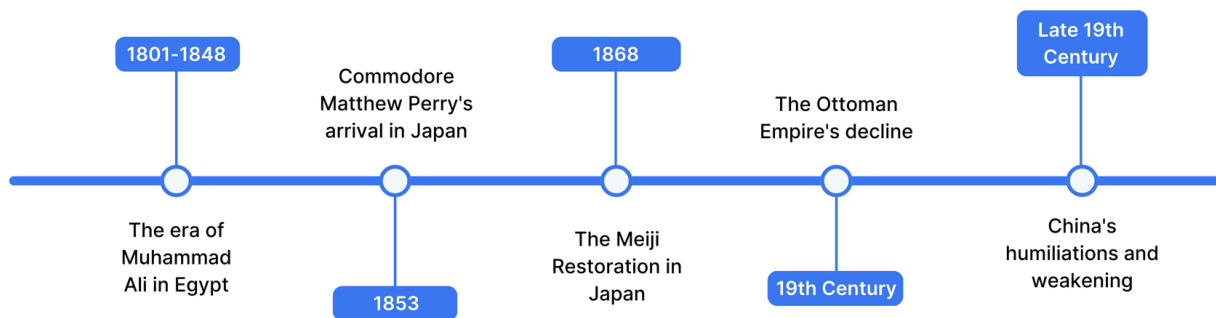
5.6 Industrialization: Government's Role

Environmental Consequences of Connectivity

Main Idea

Industrialization and modernization had different impacts on various nations. Some embraced Western technology and innovation to varying degrees, while others struggled due to weak governance or external pressures.

Key Timeline



Timeline of key events during industrialization and Western interactions in the 19th and early 20th centuries

Things to Know

Ottoman Empire

The Ottoman Empire declined due to corruption, territorial losses, and ethnic nationalism.

European nations, notably Russia, perceived chances for territorial expansion as the Ottoman Empire weakened, seizing opportunities for territorial gains.

Dissolution of the Ottoman Empire after World War I, leading to the emergence of the Republic of Turkey and independent nations.

China

Suffered two humiliations in the 19th century: the Opium War and the split into "spheres of influence".

Foreign domination in the 19th century left China's central government too weak to promote industrialization effectively for decades.

The central government's weakness and inability to respond effectively to Western challenges.

Japan

Japan's isolation from 1600 to 1854 and limited contact with the rest of the world.

Arrival of Commodore Matthew Perry in 1853, demanding trade privileges and foreign trade.

Threat posed by Western powers led to Japanese realization of the danger they faced.

Overthrow of the shogunate and restoration of imperial rule in 1868, known as the Meiji Restoration.

Muhammad Ali (Ottoman) and Egyptian Industrialization

Muhammad Ali, an Albanian Ottoman officer, gained prominence and became the new governor of Egypt.

Ali's semi-independence from the Ottoman sultan allowed him to undertake reforms.

Reforms included modernizing the military, establishing schools, and starting an official newspaper.

Taxation of peasants at high rates to gain control of cotton production and agricultural products.

State-sponsored industrialization, with textile factories, armament production, and shipbuilding.

Muhammad Ali's vision of state-sponsored industrialization positioned him as Egypt's first great modern ruler.

Meiji Restoration (Japan)

Overthrow of the shogunate and restoration of imperial rule in Japan in 1868.

Japan's rapid transition to a modern, industrialized country within a short period.

Comprehensive reforms based on Western innovations to protect traditional culture.

Abolition of feudalism, establishment of a constitutional monarchy, and equality before the law.

Reorganization of the military, expansion of educational opportunities, and development of infrastructure.

Subsidized industrialization in key industries, stimulating rapid economic growth.

Role of private investments, including zaibatsu, in fostering innovation and industrial development in Japan.

Terms to Remember

Term	Definition + Significance
"Sick Man of Europe"	A derogatory nickname given to the declining Ottoman Empire, highlighting its weakness, corruption, and vulnerability to external influence, notably from European powers.
Opium War	A conflict between China and Britain (1839-1842) over the opium trade, which resulted in Chinese humiliation, territorial losses, and the weakening of the central government.
"Spheres of Influence"	Regions within China where foreign powers had significant control and influence, leading to further humiliation and the weakening of Chinese sovereignty.
Centralized Government in Japan	A strong and unified government structure in Japan during the Meiji Restoration, which played a crucial role in implementing reforms, modernization, and industrialization.
Muhammed Ali	An Albanian Ottoman officer who became the governor of Egypt and implemented a series of modernization and industrialization efforts, making Egypt a more powerful and industrialized region.
Industrialization in Ottoman Empire	The process of adopting modern industrial methods and technologies within the Ottoman Empire, primarily initiated by Muhammad Ali in Egypt, with the aim of increasing economic and military strength.
Meiji Restoration	A period of radical political, social, and economic reforms in Japan following the overthrow of the shogunate and the restoration of imperial rule in 1868, leading to Japan's rapid industrialization and modernization.
Charter Oath	A set of five general principles issued in 1868 during the Meiji Restoration, formally abolishing feudalism and outlining key reforms aimed at modernizing and transforming Japan into a more centralized and industrialized state.
Zaibatsu	Powerful Japanese family business conglomerates that played a significant role in the industrialization and modernization of Japan, controlling key industries and contributing to the country's economic growth.
Toyoda Loom Works	A company founded by a carpenter in 1906, which later evolved into the Toyota Motor Company, showcasing the impact of private investments and entrepreneurship on Japan's industrial development.

5.7 Economic Developments and Innovations in the Industrial Age

From Mercantilism to Capitalism: A New Economic Era

The Old System: Mercantilism

From roughly 1500 to 1750, European nations embraced **mercantilism**, an economic philosophy in which governments controlled trade to maximize national wealth. Under mercantilist policies:

- States imposed **tariffs** to limit imports and protect domestic production.

- Colonial economies were tightly controlled to serve the needs of the metropole.

- Navigation Acts and exclusive trade agreements restricted access to markets and goods.

- The accumulation of **gold and silver** was a sign of national strength, and exporting more than importing was considered ideal.

Governments played a dominant role in shaping economic activity and regulating commerce within and across their empires.

The New System: Laissez-Faire Capitalism

By 1750, this system began to give way to **laissez-faire capitalism**—a philosophy promoting **free trade**, **private property**, and **limited government interference**. This transformation was largely inspired by **Adam Smith**, whose landmark 1776 work *The Wealth of Nations* laid the foundation for modern economics.

Key tenets of Smith's economic thought included:

- The Invisible Hand:** The belief that individuals pursuing their own self-interest unintentionally benefit society as a whole.

- Division of Labor:** Specialization increases productivity and leads to greater economic output.

- Free Trade:** Nations prosper by producing goods in which they have a comparative advantage and trading for others.

- National Wealth:** Defined not by gold reserves but by productivity and national income.

- Minimal State Interference:** The market, not the government, should regulate economic activity.

Smith's capitalism offered a stark alternative to mercantilism—prioritizing individual freedom, open markets, and industrial innovation over state control.

Business Innovations and Financial Systems

As industrial capitalism expanded, businesses developed new **structures**, **financial tools**, and **banking systems** to manage rising capital and production needs.

Corporate Structures and Banking

The rise of **joint-stock companies** allowed many investors to pool funds and share in profits and risks.

The introduction of **limited liability** meant investors were only responsible for the amount they had invested—not the company's total debt.

Banks such as **HSBC** (founded in 1865) emerged as major transnational institutions, managing vast flows of capital, especially in colonial economies.

The expansion of **insurance**, **investment trusts**, and **credit systems** provided businesses and individuals more tools to protect assets and access funds.

Financial Instruments and Globalization

Industrial capitalism drove innovations in global finance. These included:

Stock markets, where investors could buy shares of companies, enabling the growth of large-scale industrial ventures.

Investment trusts, which allowed for pooled investing across companies, reducing individual risk.

Insurance markets, which helped mitigate risks for shipping, property, and capital investment.

Transnational Corporations

Several companies during this period operated across borders, becoming **transnational businesses**. For example:

HSBC (Hongkong and Shanghai Banking Corporation) operated as a British financial institution in China, profiting significantly from trade—especially the opium trade.

These firms created **factories**, **shipping routes**, and **railways**, intertwining financial and industrial infrastructure across empires.

Innovation/Institution	Description and Impact
Joint-stock companies	Enabled large-scale business ventures with shared investment risk
Limited liability	Protected investors from total financial loss
HSBC	Example of a transnational corporation in colonial markets
Stock exchanges	Centralized buying/selling of company shares
Insurance industry	Provided security against financial risks
Investment trusts	Pooled investment funds for diversified portfolios

Capitalism's Cultural and Social Consequences

Rising Standards of Living and Mass Consumerism

Industrial capitalism produced dramatic increases in **wealth**, especially for the emerging **middle class**. With more disposable income and cheaper goods, people engaged in **consumerism**—buying products for leisure and comfort, not just survival.

Leisure culture expanded: boating, biking, and attending sporting events became common.

Entertainment venues like music halls and amusement parks thrived.

Mass production made goods accessible to more than just elites.

Marketing and advertising became new industries, fueling demand for products.

Mass consumerism reshaped urban life—fostering shared public experiences and new expressions of identity tied to material goods.

The Cost: Socioeconomic Inequality

While industrial capitalism enriched many, it also **deepened economic inequality** and **exploited laborers**, especially in rapidly industrializing cities.

Factory workers faced long hours, dangerous conditions, and minimal pay.

The working class lived in **crowded tenements** with poor sanitation.

Factory owners accumulated vast wealth, often controlling entire industries (monopolies).

The **lack of regulation** led to child labor, environmental degradation, and urban crises.

The **wealth gap** between capitalists and workers generated rising social tensions and laid the foundation for labor movements and socialist critiques.

Class	Living/Working Conditions	Economic Role
Industrial Capitalists	Lavish lifestyles; political influence	Owned factories, capital, and resources
Urban Middle Class	Comfortable housing; white-collar jobs	Managers, professionals, small business
Working Class	Tenement housing; long factory shifts	Factory laborers, miners, servants

Key Terms to Review

Adam Smith: Adam Smith was an 18th-century Scottish economist and philosopher, best known for his book 'The Wealth of Nations,' which laid the foundations for modern economics and capitalism. His ideas on free markets, self-interest, and the 'invisible hand' significantly influenced economic thought and practice during the Enlightenment and the Industrial Age.

Consumerism: Consumerism refers to the cultural and economic phenomenon that encourages the acquisition of goods and services in ever-increasing amounts. It is closely tied to industrialization, as the mass production of goods led to greater availability and accessibility, fostering a consumer culture that values consumption as a means of social status and identity.

Corporations: Corporations are legal entities that are separate from their owners, allowing them to operate as a single entity for business purposes. This structure enables corporations to raise capital, limit the liability of their shareholders, and pursue profit-driven goals, which significantly influenced economic dynamics during industrialization.

Division of Labor: Division of labor refers to the process of breaking down a job into smaller tasks, each completed by different workers. This concept became crucial during the Industrial Revolution as industries began to adopt more efficient methods of production, leading to increased productivity and specialization. As workers focused on specific tasks, it allowed for greater efficiency, quicker production times, and the development of expertise in certain areas.

Financial Instruments: Financial instruments are contracts that represent a legal agreement involving any kind of monetary value, including cash, equity, and debt. They serve as essential tools in the economy, facilitating investments, savings, and risk management, particularly during the period of industrialization when the need for capital became paramount to support expanding industries and infrastructures.

Free Trade: Free trade is an economic policy that allows goods and services to be traded across international borders with minimal government intervention, tariffs, or quotas. This concept promotes competition and can lead to lower prices for consumers while also stimulating economic growth. In the context of industrialization, free trade played a crucial role in expanding markets for manufactured goods, while during the age of imperialism, it often facilitated the exploitation of colonies and their resources.

HSBC Bank (Hongkong and Shanghai Banking Corporation): HSBC Bank, also known as the Hongkong and Shanghai Banking Corporation, is a multinational banking and financial services organization founded in 1865. It was established to facilitate trade between Europe and Asia, particularly in the context of the growing economic interconnectedness brought about by industrialization and globalization.

Industrialists: Industrialists are individuals or business leaders who own, manage, or operate industrial enterprises, particularly during the period of industrialization that began in the late 18th century. They played a crucial role in transforming economies from agrarian societies to industrial powerhouses by investing in factories, machinery, and technology, significantly influencing labor practices and economic structures.

Insurance Industry: The insurance industry refers to the system of providing financial protection against potential future losses or damages through various forms of insurance policies. This

industry plays a critical role in modern economies by allowing individuals and businesses to manage risks, enabling them to recover from unforeseen events such as accidents, natural disasters, and health issues, thus supporting economic stability and growth.

Investment Trusts: Investment trusts are publicly traded companies that pool funds from multiple investors to purchase a diversified portfolio of assets, typically in stocks and bonds. They provide individual investors access to a professionally managed investment strategy while allowing for liquidity, as shares can be bought and sold on stock exchanges. This financial instrument emerged during the period of industrialization, playing a crucial role in the economic landscape by facilitating capital accumulation and investment in burgeoning industries.

Invisible Hand Theory: The Invisible Hand Theory, introduced by economist Adam Smith, posits that individuals pursuing their own self-interest unintentionally benefit society as a whole through economic activities. This concept emphasizes how market forces and competition guide resources to their most efficient uses, leading to overall economic growth and prosperity without the need for direct intervention by governments or other authorities.

Joint-Stock Banks: Joint-stock banks are financial institutions that raise capital by selling shares of stock to the public, allowing multiple investors to contribute funds for the bank's operations. This system was essential during the Industrial Revolution, as it facilitated the pooling of resources necessary for large-scale investments in industries and infrastructure, reflecting a shift toward more complex financial systems and economic growth.

Laissez-faire: Laissez-faire is an economic philosophy advocating for minimal government intervention in the economy, allowing free markets to regulate themselves. This concept emphasizes that the best outcomes for the economy and society arise when individuals and businesses are free to pursue their own interests without interference. The rise of laissez-faire principles coincided with the Industrial Revolution, where the need for increased production and innovation became paramount.

Labor Unions: Labor unions are organized groups of workers who come together to collectively negotiate for better wages, working conditions, and benefits. These organizations emerged as a response to the exploitation of workers during industrialization, advocating for labor rights and social reforms to improve their members' lives.

Leisure Time: Leisure time refers to the hours when individuals are free from work or other obligations, allowing them to engage in activities of their choice for enjoyment or relaxation. With the advent of industrialization, the concept of leisure time evolved significantly as people began to have more structured work hours and disposable income, leading to new forms of recreation and entertainment that shaped social and cultural life.

Limited Liability: Limited liability is a legal structure that protects an investor's personal assets from being used to cover the debts and obligations of a company. This concept encourages investment in businesses by reducing the financial risk faced by individuals, which is particularly significant during periods of economic transformation, as it allows for the growth of corporations and industrial ventures without the fear of losing personal wealth.

Mercantilism: Mercantilism is an economic theory and practice that emerged in Europe during the 16th to 18th centuries, advocating that a nation's strength is directly related to its wealth, particularly in gold and silver. This theory promoted government regulation of the economy to enhance state power and wealth through a favorable balance of trade, where exports exceed imports.

Monopoly: A monopoly is a market structure in which a single seller or producer dominates the supply of a good or service, allowing them to set prices without competition. This lack of competition can lead to higher prices and reduced quality for consumers. In the context of industrialization, monopolies often emerged as companies grew larger and consolidated their power, shaping the economic landscape.

National Income: National Income is the total value of all goods and services produced in a country over a specific period, usually measured annually. It serves as a crucial indicator of a country's economic health, reflecting the overall productivity and wealth generated within an economy. Understanding National Income helps in analyzing the economic effects

of industrialization, as it demonstrates how industries contribute to the growth of a nation's economy.

Navigation Acts: The Navigation Acts were a series of laws enacted by the English Parliament in the 17th century to regulate colonial trade and ensure that it benefited England. These laws required that certain goods produced in the colonies could only be shipped to England or other English colonies, ultimately reinforcing the mercantilist policies of the time and impacting economic relationships within maritime empires.

Social Movements: Social movements are organized efforts by groups of people to create, resist, or bring about social change. They often arise in response to perceived injustices or inequalities and can manifest through protests, advocacy, and other forms of collective action. In the context of industrialization, social movements became crucial as they addressed the economic disparities and labor issues created by rapid industrial growth.

Social Norms: Social norms are the unwritten rules and expectations that govern behavior within a society or group. They dictate what is considered acceptable or unacceptable in various contexts, influencing interactions, relationships, and societal structure. These norms evolve over time and can vary between different cultures and social groups, reflecting shared values and beliefs.

Stock Markets: Stock markets are platforms where shares of publicly traded companies are bought and sold, playing a crucial role in the global economy. They serve as indicators of economic health and provide companies with capital for growth by allowing them to sell ownership stakes to investors. The rise of stock markets during industrialization reflected increased investment in businesses and expansion of industries, marking a significant shift in economic structures.

Tariffs: Tariffs are taxes imposed by governments on imported goods and services, aimed at regulating trade and generating revenue. They can influence economic behavior by making imported goods more expensive, thereby encouraging consumers to buy domestically produced items. The use of tariffs has been a crucial aspect of economic policy, particularly during periods of industrialization, globalization, and responses to economic changes.

The Wealth Of Nations: The Wealth Of Nations is a seminal work by Adam Smith, published in 1776, which lays the foundations of classical economics. It emphasizes the importance of free markets and competition in promoting economic growth and prosperity. This influential text argues that individuals pursuing their self-interest can lead to greater societal benefits, making it crucial for understanding the economic effects of industrialization and the shift towards capitalism during this period.

Transnational Businesses: Transnational businesses are corporations that operate across multiple countries, managing production and marketing in various regions to optimize their resources and increase profits. These businesses often establish subsidiaries or joint ventures to adapt to local markets while maintaining a cohesive global strategy, significantly influencing economic dynamics in both industrialized and developing nations.

Wealth Gap: The wealth gap refers to the unequal distribution of assets and wealth among individuals or groups within a society. This disparity often leads to significant differences in quality of life, access to resources, and overall economic power. In the context of economic effects from industrialization, the wealth gap highlights how industrial growth can benefit certain classes or regions while leaving others behind, creating social tensions and contributing to long-term economic inequality.

Working Class: The working class refers to a social group primarily engaged in manual labor or industrial work, often characterized by low wages and limited job security. This class emerged prominently during the Industrial Revolution as factories and urban centers grew, creating a distinct social and economic identity. The working class played a critical role in the economic landscape and societal changes of this period, influencing labor movements and societal reforms.

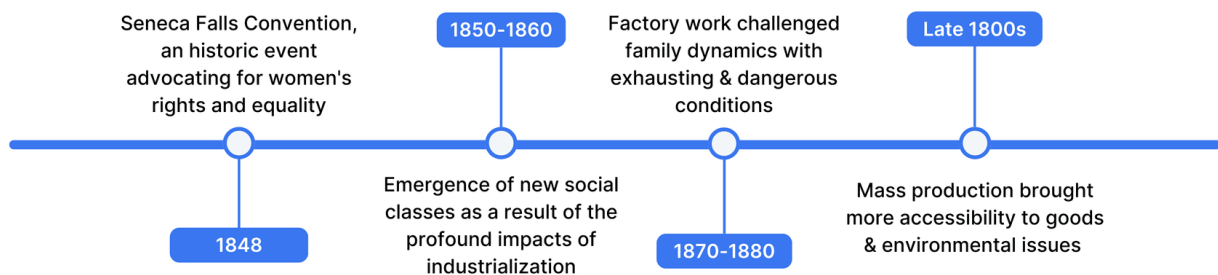
Notes and Observations:

Topic 5.9 Society and the Industrial Age

Main Idea

Industrialization led to an emerging middle class that enjoyed economic prosperity, while also creating a working class where poor urban workers faced harsh conditions. Urban women's roles increased, as they took up jobs in textiles and domestic service, reducing time spent at home. Leisure activities like attending sports games, concerts, and theaters also increased, transforming the middle-class lifestyle.

Key Timeline



Timeline of events following Society and the Industrial Age

Things to Know

Effects on Urban Areas

Tenements

- Working families had to live in crowded conditions
 - Diseases spread quickly
- These buildings were owned by factory owners
- Located in low-income areas called slums
 - Crime rates increased

Conditions Led To:

- Development of sewage and drainage systems
- Improved sanitation
- More clean water

Effects on Class Structure

Classes of Society in Britain

- Bottom: Working Class

- Worked in factories and coal mines
- Received low wages
- Middle Class
 - Factory and office managers (white-collar workers)
 - Literate and educated
- Top: Industrialists
 - Owners of big companies
 - “Captains of Industry” - overshadowed others

Farm Work vs. Factory Work

Farm Work

- Before industrialization, women could work from home
- People used to work near each other
- Relaxed work schedules

Factory Work

- Industrialized machines made everyone go into factories
- Long-hour shifts - 14 hours a day, 6 days a week
- Injuries and deaths increased

Effects on Children

Children as young as 5 worked in textile mills and coal mines

Exposed to dangerous conditions:

- Heated conditions
- Carried heavy materials
- Breathed in coal/factory dust
- Collapsing mines and flooding

Effects on Women's Lives

Working-class women worked in coal mines

Primary laborers in textile factories

Paid women 1/2 of what they paid men

Becoming a housewife = status symbol

- This meant that the husband was capable of being the only provider
- “Cult of domesticity” - idealized female homemaker

Feminism also rose

- 1848 - Seneca Falls, New York
 - Equality for women

Effects on the Environment

Pollution

- Air
 - Fossil fuels - coal, petroleum, and natural gas
 - Burning wood
 - Smog led to respiratory problems
- Water
 - Industries dumped waste into bodies of water nearby
 - Led to cholera, typhoid, and other diseases

Legacy of the Industrial Revolution

Mass production made goods cheaper, available, and easily produced

Factory growth inspired movement from rural areas to the city

- Urban shift for work

Led to pollution of air and water

Relationship between workers and owners

- Pay and inequality
 - Bad living conditions led to diseases and deaths

“The raging monster upon the land is population growth. In its presence, sustainability is but a fragile theoretical concept.”

~ E.O. Wilson, entomologist and conservationist (1929-2021).

Terms to Remember

Term	Definition + Significance
Tenements	Poorly maintained apartment buildings in urban areas, which symbolized unsanitary and inadequate living conditions for the working class.
Slums	Impoverished urban neighborhoods, which were often overcrowded and highlighted socio-economic disparities during industrialization
White-Collar Workers	The middle-class population who worked in office-based jobs. This highlighted the diversity of jobs amongst the middle class during industrialization.
Working Class	People who worked in manual and industrial labor industries. They faced various challenges like unsafe working and living conditions.
Industrialization	Shift from farming-based economy to factories. More mechanized technologies brought about various economic and societal changes.
Hierarchy	Social structure during the Industrial Age. Middle-class and factory owners rose in status, while the urban poor faced hardship.

UNIT 6

Consequences of Industrialization 1750-1900



IMPERIALISM

Different ideologies were used to justify imperialism as states expanded into Africa and Asia. While some imperialistic actions looked like colonization, others used indirect rule or diplomacy to benefit their home country to obtain raw materials to support their industries.

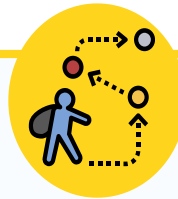
MIGRATION

While many European nations outwardly ended African slavery, new coerced and semi-coerced labor systems were utilized and caused people to move around the world for the purpose of work. This led to xenophobia and the creation of ethnic enclaves.



RESISTANCE TO EXPANSION

Many indigenous people groups resisted imperialist expansion and directly fought expanding powers. Others attempted to negotiate with Europeans as they lacked their military technologies.



- 1- French Imperialism 2 -British Imperialism 3- King Leopold / Belgium's Imperialism
4- German Imperialism 5- Dutch Imperialism

States listed in Unit 5 also overlap with Unit 6

UNIT SIX: CONSEQUENCES OF INDUSTRIALIZATION, c. 1750 to c. 1900**RATIONALES FOR IMPERIALISM AND STATE EXPANSION FROM 1750 TO 1900**

A variety of ideologies were used to rationalize and justify the imperialistic policies and attitudes that served as the foundation for state expansion between 1750 and 1900. **Social Darwinists** believed that **Charles Darwin's** theories had implications beyond biology and that the concept of natural selection and survival of the fittest applied to societal organization and politics. As such, many American and European thinkers thought it appropriate that wealthy, powerful countries should increase their wealth and power at the expense of those that were less developed. Accompanying this worldview was often a belief that Americans and Europeans looking to expand their spheres of influence were acting for the benefit of those they believed to be culturally or civilizationally inferior to themselves, and that their imperialism was part of a **civilizing mission**.



England as imperialist octopus

STATE EXPANSION AND INDIGENOUS RESPONSES FROM 1750 TO 1900

Mechanisms of state power shifted around the world as some nations strengthened control over preexisting colonies and others gained new territories. In the Congo, ownership shifted from **King Leopold II** to the **Belgian Government**, while in **Indonesia**, the **Dutch Government** wrested control from the privately-held **Dutch East India Company**. The **British** and **French** expanded their territories in West Africa, and the **United States**, **Russia**, and **Japan** all conquered and subsequently settled both neighboring territories and



Sioux ghost dance

far-away islands. Around the globe, anti-imperialist and anti-colonial movements formed in response to state expansion, such as **Túpac Amaru II's** unsuccessful uprising against the Spanish in Peru, **Samory Touré's** fight against French colonialists in West Africa, and the **Ghost Dance** religious movement in North America, designed to drive away white settlers and restore traditional pre-European ways of life.

Unit 6 – Industrialization’s Impact (1750-1900)

The Industrial Revolution, spanning from 1750 to 1900, transformed society through mechanization, urbanization, and economic growth. This period saw the rise of factories, steam power, and new technologies that increased productivity and reshaped social structures. Industrialization’s impact was far-reaching, affecting economics, politics, and the environment. It led to the growth of capitalism, new social classes, and global trade networks. However, it also brought challenges like labor exploitation, pollution, and colonial expansion.

Study Guides for Unit 6 – Industrialization’s Impact (1750-1900)

Key Concepts and Timeline

- Industrialization began in Britain in the late 18th century (1750s-1780s) and spread to other parts of Europe and North America in the 19th century
- Key developments included mechanization of production, rise of factories, urbanization, and improved transportation networks
- The Industrial Revolution marked a shift from manual labor to machine-based manufacturing, leading to increased productivity and economic growth
- The period from 1750 to 1900 saw rapid technological advancements, social changes, and global economic integration
 - First Industrial Revolution (1750-1850) focused on textile production, steam power, and iron manufacturing
 - Second Industrial Revolution (1850-1900) introduced steel production, electricity, and chemical industries
- Industrialization led to the rise of capitalism, characterized by private ownership of means of production, wage labor, and competitive markets
- The process of industrialization occurred at different times and rates across the world, with some regions lagging behind others

Technological Innovations

- The steam engine, invented by James Watt in 1776, revolutionized manufacturing and transportation
 - Steam power enabled the mechanization of factories and the development of steamships and locomotives
- The spinning jenny (1764) and power loom (1785) mechanized textile production, increasing output and efficiency
- The Bessemer process (1856) allowed for the mass production of steel, which became a key material in construction and manufacturing
- The telegraph (1837) and telephone (1876) improved long-distance communication, facilitating business transactions and information exchange
- Innovations in agriculture, such as the seed drill and reaping machine, increased food production and supported population growth
- The internal combustion engine (1860s) and electricity (1870s) laid the foundation for further

Name: _____

Date: _____

Rationales for Imperialism 6.1

Define Imperialism:

Define Colonialism:

How are imperialism and colonialism related? What is the difference between the two?

Directions: Identify imperialized areas and explain the rationales for imperialism in the 1750–1900 time period for each country listed below.

Country	Places Imperialized	Rational for Imperialism
Britain		
France		
Japan		

Name: _____

Date: _____

State Expansion 6.2

Directions: Fill in the organizer below. Include the areas, countries, or regions each imperialist country expanded into then give the relevant details of that expansion for the 1750–1900 time period.

Imperialist Country	Expanded to...	Details– When, Why, and Results of Imperialism
Britain		
France		
Belgium		
Netherlands		
United States		

Name: _____

Date: _____

Indigenous Responses to State Expansion 6.3

Directions: Fill in the organizer below. Include the location of the resistance, when it occurred, who it was against, and the results.

Resistance Leader/Group	Location	Details– When, Against Who, and Results of Resistance
Túpac Amaru II		
Cherokee Nation		
Sepoys		
Samory Touré		
José Rizal		
Maori		
Yaa Asantewaa		
Muhammad Ahmad		

Name: _____

Date: _____

Global Economic Development 6.4

Directions: Fill in the organizer below. Include the location of the resistance, when it occurred, who it was against, and the results.

Exported Item	Exported From		Exported To
Cotton		----->	
Rubber		----->	
Palm Oil		----->	
Guano		----->	
Meat		----->	
Diamonds		----->	
Ivory		----->	

What effects did the following technological advancements have on the global economy in the 1750-1900 time period? Give a specific examples.

Railroads

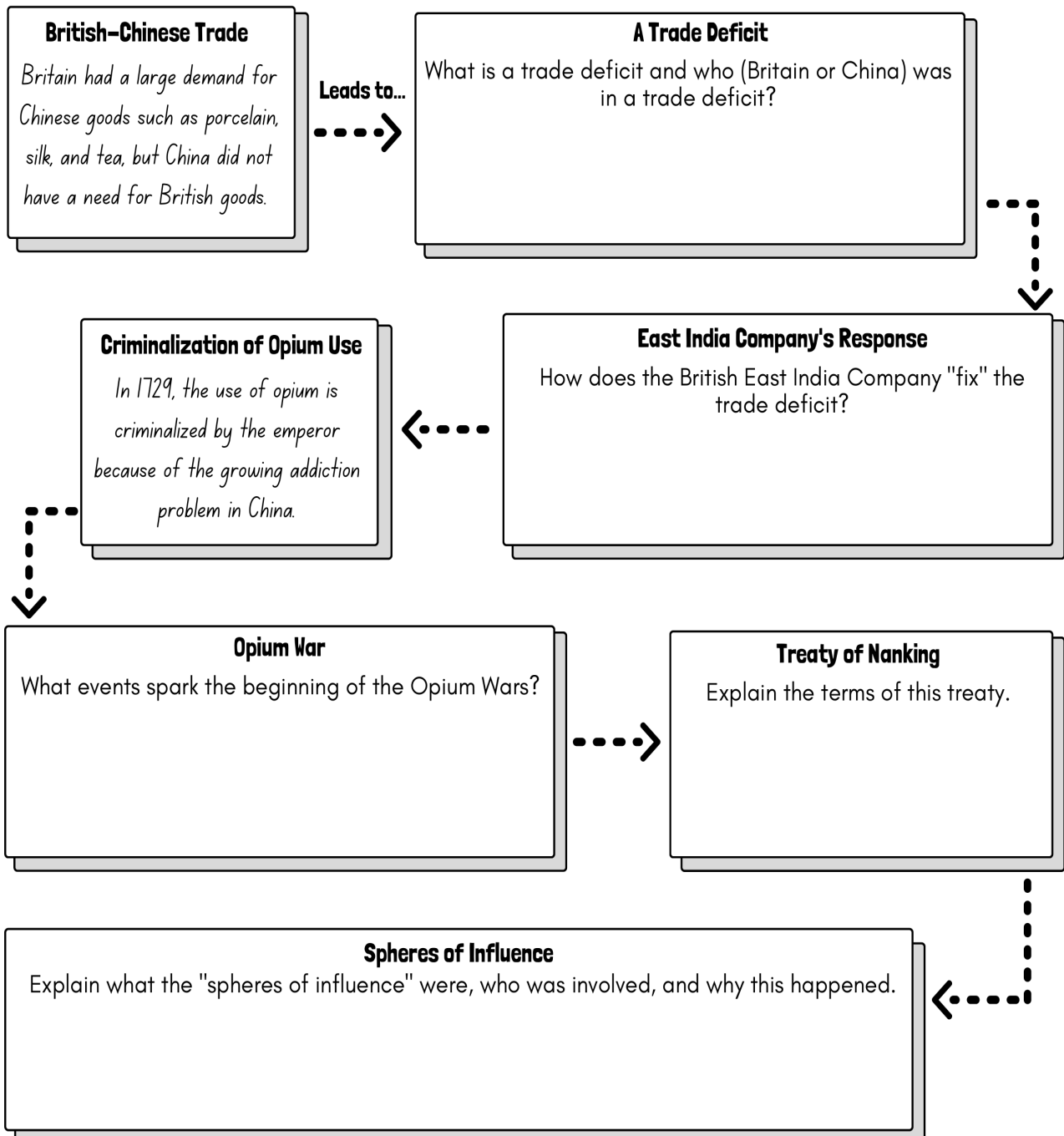
Telegraph

Steamships

Economic Imperialism 6.5

Define: Economic Imperialism

Directions: Fill in the flow chart about economic imperialism in China below.



Name: _____

Date: _____

Causes of Migration in an Interconnected World 6.6

Directions: Provide a specific example of migration in the 1750–1900 time period through each of the labor systems below. Include relevant details such as where people came from, moved to, and what industry they worked.

Migration Through Labor Systems			
Slavery	Indentured Servitude	Contract Labor	Penal Colonies

Diaspora

refers to mass emigrations that result in populations that are scattered across regions which are separate from the geographic place of origin.

Directions: Describe the cause for each diasporic group below.

	Causes/Reasons for Migration
Chinese --> U.S.	
Irish --> Various Countries	
Italians --> Various Countries	
Indians --> Various Countries	

Directions: Give relevant details about the settler colonies in the countries listed below.

New Zealand	Argentina	Mexico

Name: _____

Date: _____

Effects of Migration 6.7

Chinese Exclusion Act

What was the Chinese Exclusion Act, and where and to whom did it apply?

What were the effects of the Chinese Exclusion Act?

Chinese Immigration Act

What was the Chinese Immigration Act, and where and to whom did it apply?

What were the effects of the Chinese Immigration Act?

Influx of Chinese Restriction Act

What was the Influx of Chinese Restriction Act, and where and to whom did it apply?

What were the effects of the Influx of Chinese Restriction Act?

Name: _____

Date: _____

Causation in the Imperial Age 6.8

Directions: Answer the questions below with a paragraph each. Use relevant details from Unit 6 to support your answers.

Using specific examples, explain the role of industrialization in the spread of imperialism in the 1750-1900 time period.

Using three specific examples, discuss some of the causes and effects of migration in this time period.

Unit 6 – Industrialization’s Impact (1750-1900)

The Industrial Revolution, spanning from 1750 to 1900, transformed society through mechanization, urbanization, and economic growth. This period saw the rise of factories, steam power, and new technologies that increased productivity and reshaped social structures. Industrialization’s impact was far-reaching, affecting economics, politics, and the environment. It led to the growth of capitalism, new social classes, and global trade networks. However, it also brought challenges like labor exploitation, pollution, and colonial expansion.

Study Guides for Unit 6 – Industrialization’s Impact (1750-1900)

Key Concepts and Timeline

Industrialization began in Britain in the late 18th century (1750s-1780s) and spread to other parts of Europe and North America in the 19th century

Key developments included mechanization of production, rise of factories, urbanization, and improved transportation networks

The Industrial Revolution marked a shift from manual labor to machine-based manufacturing, leading to increased productivity and economic growth

The period from 1750 to 1900 saw rapid technological advancements, social changes, and global economic integration

- First Industrial Revolution (1750-1850) focused on textile production, steam power, and iron manufacturing
- Second Industrial Revolution (1850-1900) introduced steel production, electricity, and chemical industries

Industrialization led to the rise of capitalism, characterized by private ownership of means of production, wage labor, and competitive markets

The process of industrialization occurred at different times and rates across the world, with some regions lagging behind others

Technological Innovations

The steam engine, invented by James Watt in 1776, revolutionized manufacturing and transportation

Steam power enabled the mechanization of factories and the development of steamships and locomotives

The spinning jenny (1764) and power loom (1785) mechanized textile production, increasing output and efficiency

The Bessemer process (1856) allowed for the mass production of steel, which became a key material in construction and manufacturing

The telegraph (1837) and telephone (1876) improved long-distance communication, facilitating business transactions and information exchange

Innovations in agriculture, such as the seed drill and reaping machine, increased food production and supported population growth

The internal combustion engine (1860s) and electricity (1870s) laid the foundation for further technological advancements in the 20th century

Advancements in medicine, such as the development of vaccines and anesthesia, improved public health and life expectancy

Economic Transformations

Industrialization led to the growth of cities as people moved from rural areas to work in factories (urbanization)

The factory system replaced the domestic system of production, centralizing labor and resources in large-scale manufacturing units

The rise of capitalism and free-market economics encouraged entrepreneurship, investment, and global trade

- Joint-stock companies and stock exchanges emerged to facilitate capital accumulation and investment

Industrialization increased productivity and output, leading to economic growth and rising living standards for some segments of society

The expansion of transportation networks, including railroads and canals, facilitated the movement of goods, people, and ideas

Specialization and division of labor became common in factories, leading to increased efficiency but also monotonous work

Income inequality and economic disparities grew as the gap between factory owners and workers widened

Social Changes

Industrialization led to the emergence of new social classes, including the industrial bourgeoisie (factory owners) and the proletariat (factory workers)

Urbanization resulted in overcrowding, poor living conditions, and public health issues in cities

The growth of the middle class, consisting of professionals, managers, and small business owners, reshaped social hierarchies

Women and children entered the industrial workforce in large numbers, often working long hours in poor conditions for low wages

- This challenged traditional gender roles and family structures, as women gained some economic independence

The working class faced exploitation, low wages, and hazardous working conditions, leading to the emergence of labor movements and trade unions

Industrialization contributed to the spread of education, as literacy and technical skills became increasingly important

Social reformers and intellectuals critiqued the negative aspects of industrialization, such as poverty, child labor, and inequality

Political Developments

Industrialization influenced political ideologies and movements, such as liberalism, socialism, and Marxism

- Liberalism advocated for individual rights, free markets, and limited government intervention
- Socialism called for collective ownership of means of production and equal distribution of wealth
- Marxism, developed by Karl Marx, critiqued capitalism and predicted a proletarian revolution

Governments played a role in promoting and regulating industrialization through policies, subsidies, and tariffs

The growth of industrial cities and the working class led to increased political participation and demands for reform

- The Chartist movement in Britain and the Revolutions of 1848 in Europe reflected growing political consciousness

Trade unions and labor parties emerged to represent the interests of workers and advocate for better working conditions and rights

Industrialization contributed to the rise of nationalism, as countries sought to protect their domestic industries and compete in the global market

Colonialism and imperialism intensified as industrialized nations sought raw materials, markets, and investment opportunities abroad

Environmental Impact

Industrialization had significant environmental consequences, including air and water pollution, deforestation, and resource depletion

- Factory emissions and coal burning led to smog and respiratory issues in industrial cities
- Untreated industrial waste and sewage contaminated rivers and water sources

The demand for raw materials, such as timber and coal, led to the exploitation of natural resources and environmental degradation

Urbanization and the expansion of cities encroached on natural habitats and agricultural land

The transportation revolution, particularly the growth of railroads, contributed to land clearing and altered landscapes

The use of fossil fuels, such as coal and oil, increased carbon emissions and laid the foundation for future climate change concerns

The environmental impact of industrialization was not fully understood or addressed during the 19th century, leading to long-term ecological consequences

Global Connections and Trade

Industrialization facilitated the expansion of global trade networks and economic integration

- The development of steamships and railroads enabled faster and more efficient

transportation of goods

- The opening of the Suez Canal (1869) and the Panama Canal (1914) revolutionized maritime trade routes

The British Empire, as the first industrialized nation, established a vast colonial network and dominated global trade

- British manufactured goods flooded international markets, often at the expense of local industries in colonized regions

The Atlantic slave trade, which supplied labor to plantations in the Americas, was gradually abolished during the 19th century

- However, forced labor and exploitative practices persisted in many colonial settings

The global demand for raw materials, such as cotton, rubber, and precious metals, led to the exploitation of resources and labor in colonized regions

International economic competition and the scramble for colonies intensified tensions among industrialized nations

The gold standard, adopted by many countries in the late 19th century, provided a stable monetary system for international trade

The rise of multinational corporations and foreign investment expanded economic influence beyond national borders

Legacy and Long-Term Effects

Industrialization had far-reaching and lasting impacts on societies, economies, and the environment

The industrial revolution laid the foundation for modern economic systems based on mass production, consumption, and global trade

Technological advancements and innovations from the industrial era continued to shape the 20th century and beyond

- The automobile, airplane, and modern communication technologies trace their roots to industrial-era inventions

Industrialization contributed to the rise of consumerism and the growth of a global middle class

The social and economic inequalities that emerged during industrialization persisted and continue to shape debates on wealth distribution and social justice

Labor movements and social reforms that originated in the industrial era influenced the development of modern welfare states and workers' rights

The environmental impact of industrialization, particularly the use of fossil fuels, contributed to ongoing challenges of pollution, climate change, and sustainability

Industrialization's legacy includes ongoing debates on the balance between economic growth, social welfare, and environmental protection

Notes and Observations:

6.1 Rationales for Imperialism

Between 1750 and 1900, European powers, along with the United States and Japan, expanded their influence across the globe. This era of imperialism was justified not only by economic and strategic motives but also by a series of cultural, racial, religious, and scientific ideologies that helped rationalize domination and colonization. These justifications weren't just explanations—they were powerful tools that encouraged further expansion and made imperialism seem noble or even necessary.

Ideological Justifications for Empire

Imperial powers believed they had a right—if not a duty—to conquer, dominate, and “civilize” others. These rationales often emerged from pseudoscientific racism, ethnocentrism, and national pride.

Social Darwinism

Social Darwinism adapted **Charles Darwin's** theory of natural selection to human societies—falsely. According to this view, just as nature selected the strongest species to survive, so too did history favor the strongest nations and races. Europeans used this logic to argue that their global dominance was natural and deserved.

Key beliefs of Social Darwinism included:

- “**Survival of the fittest**” among nations and races

- Stronger societies had a **duty** or **natural right** to dominate weaker ones

- Justified **imperialism**, **racism**, and even **genocide**

This ideology dehumanized colonized people and depicted conquest as part of an evolutionary process. It also justified neglect and brutality, suggesting that struggling peoples were simply “less evolved.”

Phrenology and Scientific Racism

Other pseudoscientific methods, like **phrenology**, attempted to rank races based on skull measurements. These “racial sciences” claimed that Europeans were biologically superior. Though completely discredited today, they played a powerful role in shaping imperial policy and public opinion during the 19th century.

Social Darwinism made imperial conquest seem natural—casting it as a scientific necessity, rather than a political or economic strategy.

Civilizing Mission

Another major justification was the **civilizing mission**—the belief that Western powers had a moral duty to uplift “less advanced” societies. This notion became especially prominent in France, where it was known as the *mission civilisatrice*.

Core ideas included:

Spreading **Western values** like Christianity, education, and hygiene

Replacing “primitive” customs with “civilized” norms

Imposing **European languages, dress, and government structures**

While some imperialists genuinely believed they were helping colonized peoples, the results were often destructive:

Suppression of indigenous languages and religions

Forced labor, resource extraction, and cultural erasure

Educational systems that promoted loyalty to the empire, not self-determination

The civilizing mission masked exploitation under the language of uplift—its impact was more destructive than enlightening.

Religious Motivations

Missionary work was another major motivation, especially for **British** and **American** imperialists. Many Christians saw empire as a means to spread the Gospel and “save souls.” Religious organizations:

Built **churches, schools, and hospitals** in colonies

Translated the **Bible** into local languages

Framed conversion as a path to “civilization” and “morality”

Though missionaries often provided real social services, they also disrupted traditional religious and spiritual practices and were closely tied to imperial structures.

Nationalism and Imperial Pride

Nationalism—the belief in the superiority and unity of one’s nation—was deeply connected to empire-building.

Colonies were seen as **symbols of national strength**

Possessing overseas territory became a **measure of global power**

Citizens were taught to **celebrate conquest** and **view imperialism as patriotic**

As nations competed for overseas territory, imperialism became a matter of pride and prestige. The **“Scramble for Africa”**, for instance, was driven not just by resources but also by nationalist rivalries between Britain, France, and Germany.

Ideology	Key Beliefs	Justification for Imperialism
Social Darwinism	Survival of the fittest; racial superiority	Stronger races should dominate weaker ones
Civilizing Mission	Duty to uplift and Westernize other cultures	Colonization helps “lesser” peoples
Religious Conversion	Salvation through Christianity	Empire spreads true faith and morality
Nationalism	National superiority and pride	Colonies show power, prestige, and expand influence
Scientific Racism	Biological differences determine intelligence and value	Europeans are biologically superior and deserve control

Conclusion

Imperialism was not just built with guns and factories—it was built with **ideas**. These ideas shaped public opinion, justified domination, and defined how empires treated the people they colonized. Whether through science, faith, or patriotism, imperial powers wrapped conquest in a moral or intellectual veil, turning exploitation into duty.

Understanding the ideologies behind imperialism reveals how cultural beliefs can be weaponized—and reminds us that ideas can be as powerful as armies.

Key Terms to Review

Charles Darwin's On the Origin of Species: Charles Darwin's *On the Origin of Species* is a groundbreaking work published in 1859 that introduced the theory of evolution through natural selection. This book fundamentally changed the understanding of biology and has had profound implications for various fields, including anthropology, sociology, and even imperialism, as it provided a scientific justification for the domination of 'stronger' societies over 'weaker' ones.

Christianity: Christianity is a monotheistic religion based on the life and teachings of Jesus Christ, emphasizing belief in one God and the importance of faith, love, and redemption. It spread rapidly throughout the Roman Empire and beyond, influencing cultures, societies, and political systems across different regions.

Civilizing mission: The civilizing mission refers to the belief that European powers had a moral obligation to spread their culture, religion, and way of life to non-European societies, which were often seen as 'primitive' or 'backward.' This idea was used to justify imperialism and colonial expansion, promoting the notion that imperial powers were bringing progress and enlightenment to the world.

Eugenics: Eugenics is a set of beliefs and practices aimed at improving the genetic quality of a human population, often through selective breeding and sterilization. This ideology gained traction in the late 19th and early 20th centuries, frequently used to justify imperialist policies under the guise of promoting 'racial superiority' and 'national strength'. It reflected a broader mindset that devalued certain groups, making it a rationalization for imperialism as nations

sought to assert dominance over others based on perceived genetic worth.

Forced Labor: Forced labor refers to work that people are compelled to perform against their will, often under threat of punishment or coercion. This practice has been utilized throughout history, particularly during imperial expansion, as colonizers sought to exploit local populations for economic gain and resource extraction, reflecting underlying power dynamics and rationales for domination.

Imperialism: Imperialism is the policy or practice of extending a country's power and influence through diplomacy or military force. It often involves the domination of one nation over another, which can lead to the exploitation of resources and people, shaping global politics, economics, and cultures in significant ways.

Land Expropriation: Land expropriation refers to the process by which a government takes private land for public use, often with compensation to the landowner. This practice is closely tied to imperialism, as colonial powers frequently expropriated land from indigenous populations to establish settlements, extract resources, and expand their economic and political influence.

Mission civilisatrice: Mission civilisatrice, or 'civilizing mission', was a justification used by European powers for their imperialist expansions, claiming a moral obligation to spread Western civilization and culture to 'less developed' societies. This idea framed colonization as a benevolent act aimed at uplifting indigenous peoples through education, religion, and modernization, while often masking the exploitative nature of imperialism.

Nationalism: Nationalism is a political ideology that emphasizes the interests and culture of a particular nation or group, often advocating for self-determination and the belief that individuals' loyalty should be to their nation above all else. This strong sense of national identity can influence political movements, cultural developments, and conflicts, shaping the course of history in profound ways.

Phrenology: Phrenology is a pseudoscience that emerged in the early 19th century, which posits that the shape and size of the skull can determine an individual's character and mental faculties. This belief was used to rationalize imperialism by suggesting that certain races or cultures were inherently superior based on cranial measurements, linking physical traits to intellectual capabilities.

Racism: Racism is the belief that different races possess distinct characteristics, abilities, or qualities that justify discrimination and prejudice against certain racial groups. This ideology has been a driving force behind imperialistic expansion, often used to legitimize the domination and exploitation of colonized peoples by depicting them as inferior or uncivilized.

Resource Extraction: Resource extraction refers to the process of retrieving natural resources from the environment, often for economic gain. This practice became a major rationale for imperialism, as powerful nations sought to acquire valuable resources from colonized territories, including minerals, timber, and agricultural products, to fuel their industrial economies and enhance their global dominance.

Social Darwinism: Social Darwinism is a social theory that emerged in the late 19th century, asserting that human societies and cultures evolve through the same natural selection process as biological species. This ideology was often used to justify imperialism and the belief in racial superiority, leading to the idea that stronger nations had the right to dominate weaker ones. It also contributed to justifications for mass atrocities by suggesting that certain groups were naturally superior and more fit for survival.

Territorial Expansion: Territorial expansion refers to the process of a state or empire extending its boundaries by acquiring new lands, often through military conquest, colonization, or diplomacy. This expansion is driven by various motivations, including economic interests, political power, and cultural influence, which can significantly impact both the expanding power and the regions affected.

6.2 Expansion of Imperialism

State Expansion and Imperial Strategies

Between 1750 and 1900, state power expanded and shifted through various processes. European powers and emerging industrial states consolidated and extended their control over vast territories using a range of strategies:

Colonialism: Powers like Britain and France established direct control over foreign lands, displacing indigenous populations and reshaping political and economic systems to serve imperial interests.

Imperialism: Beyond colonies, states dominated regions politically, economically, and militarily. This often involved controlling trade, extracting resources, and asserting political hegemony.

Industrialization: The demand for raw materials and new markets drove imperial expansion, particularly in Africa and Asia.

Nationalism: National pride and the belief in cultural superiority fueled efforts to expand empires and “civilize” subject peoples.

Warfare and Diplomacy: Imperial expansion was accomplished through military conquest, treaties, and negotiation, with rival powers often clashing over strategic regions.

Imperialism in Africa

European imperialism in Africa intensified in the 19th century, driven by economic interests, strategic competition, and racial ideologies.

British Control in Africa

Egypt and the Suez Canal: Britain invaded Egypt in 1882 to secure control over the Suez Canal, vital for trade with India. Egypt became a British protectorate, though nominally still under the Ottoman Empire.

British West Africa: Britain established colonies in Ghana, Nigeria, Sierra Leone, and The Gambia. Palm oil, gold, and other raw materials were extracted, often using forced labor.

French Control in Africa

France expanded its colonial empire across West and Central Africa, including modern-day Senegal, Mali, Chad, and Ivory Coast. French rule emphasized centralization, assimilation, and military dominance.

The Scramble for Africa and the Berlin Conference

The “Scramble for Africa” was a competitive rush by European nations to claim African territories in the late 1800s. It culminated in the **Berlin Conference (1884-1885)**, where:

European powers (and the U.S.) met to divide Africa without African input.

The doctrine of “effective occupation” required powers to demonstrate control before claiming a region.

By 1900, most of Africa was under European control, and arbitrary borders drawn at the conference still shape the continent today.

Imperialism in South Asia

British Rule in India

Began with the Battle of Plassey (1757) and the dominance of the British East India Company.

Gradually transitioned to direct British rule under the **British Raj (1858)** after the Indian Rebellion of 1857.

Britain imposed taxation, used Indian soldiers (sepoys) in military campaigns, and de-industrialized India by flooding markets with British goods.

Imperialism in East Asia

British and French Interests

Britain dominated **Hong Kong** and established trade rights in **China** through the **Opium Wars**.

France controlled **French Indochina** (Vietnam, Laos, Cambodia), enforcing assimilation policies and resource extraction.

American Expansion

Acquired the Philippines, Guam, and Puerto Rico in 1898 from Spain.

Annexed Hawaii the same year, strengthening U.S. presence in the Pacific.

Japanese Imperialism

Meiji Restoration (1868) marked Japan's modernization and industrialization.

Japan expanded into **Taiwan, Korea, and Manchuria** through war and treaties, becoming a rising imperial power.

United States Imperialism in Latin America and the Pacific

Latin America

U.S. interventions in **Nicaragua, Honduras, and Panama** protected American commercial interests.

Acquired **Puerto Rico and Guam** after the **Spanish-American War (1898)**.

The Philippines and the Pacific

After defeating Spain, the U.S. suppressed Filipino independence movements and established a colonial government.

Annexed Hawaii and expanded economic and naval influence throughout the Pacific.

Conclusion

From 1750 to 1900, imperialism reshaped global political boundaries, altered economies, and deeply influenced the societies of colonized regions. European states, the U.S., and Japan

expanded territorial control using a mixture of military force, diplomacy, and ideology. The legacy of imperialism remains visible in modern political and social structures worldwide.

Key Terms to Review

African Imperialism: African Imperialism refers to the late 19th and early 20th century period when European powers aggressively expanded their control over African territories, driven by economic, political, and cultural motives. This phase of imperialism was marked by the scramble for Africa, where countries like Britain, France, Germany, and Belgium divided the continent among themselves, often disregarding indigenous cultures and political structures.

American imperialism in East Asia: American imperialism in East Asia refers to the United States' expansionist policies and military interventions in the region during the late 19th and early 20th centuries. This period was characterized by America's desire to compete with European powers for influence, establish trade relations, and promote American values abroad, leading to significant events such as the Open Door Policy and the annexation of territories like the Philippines.

Battle of Plassey: The Battle of Plassey was a decisive military engagement fought on June 23, 1757, between the British East India Company and the Nawab of Bengal, Siraj-ud-Daula. This battle marked a significant turning point in the expansion of British imperial power in India, as it established British dominance over Bengal and laid the groundwork for the eventual establishment of British rule throughout India.

Berlin Conference of 1884-1885: The Berlin Conference of 1884-1885 was a meeting among European powers to establish rules for the colonization and trade in Africa, fundamentally shaping the continent's future. This conference marked a significant moment in the expansion of imperialism, as it facilitated the rapid partitioning of Africa among European nations, often disregarding indigenous populations and their cultures.

British control of Egypt: British control of Egypt refers to the period when Britain established significant political and military influence over Egypt, particularly from the late 19th century to the mid-20th century. This control was largely driven by strategic interests in the Suez Canal, which served as a critical trade route connecting Europe to Asia, and was an essential aspect of the broader expansion of imperialism during this era.

British India: British India refers to the period of British colonial rule over the Indian subcontinent from the mid-18th century until 1947. This era was marked by significant economic exploitation, cultural exchange, and social change, deeply influencing both British imperial ambitions and the eventual push for independence among Indians.

British East India Company: The British East India Company was a trading corporation established in 1600, granted a royal charter by Queen Elizabeth I, that played a crucial role in establishing British influence and control over India and parts of Southeast Asia. The company not only engaged in trade but also became a political power, paving the way for British imperialism and economic domination in the region.

British West Africa: British West Africa refers to a collection of territories in West Africa that were controlled by the British Empire during the late 19th and early 20th centuries, including present-day Ghana, Nigeria, Sierra Leone, and The Gambia. This area became significant during the period of imperial expansion as European powers competed for control over African resources and trade routes, leading to profound changes in local economies, societies, and cultures.

Colonialism: Colonialism is the practice of acquiring control over another country or territory, establishing settlements, and exploiting its resources and people for the benefit of the colonizing power. This often involves political domination and cultural assimilation, resulting in significant social, economic, and political changes in the colonized regions.

Deindustrialization of India: The deindustrialization of India refers to the decline of traditional industries and manufacturing in India, particularly during the British colonial period, as British policies favored the import of British goods over local production. This shift resulted

in a significant reduction of India's textile and handicraft sectors, leading to widespread unemployment and economic hardship for many artisans and laborers. The process highlights the broader impacts of imperialism on colonized economies, illustrating how economic exploitation under foreign rule reshaped India's industrial landscape.

Effective Occupation: Effective Occupation refers to the principle that a colonial power must demonstrate actual control over a territory to claim it as part of its empire. This involves establishing administrative authority, implementing governance, and often settling the area with citizens from the colonizing nation. The term highlights the shift in imperial strategies during the age of expansion, emphasizing the importance of presence and control over mere claims or declarations.

French Indochina: French Indochina was a colonial territory in Southeast Asia that included modern-day Vietnam, Laos, and Cambodia, established by France in the mid-19th century. This region was crucial for French imperial expansion, as it served as a significant site for agricultural production, trade routes, and strategic military positioning during the era of imperialism.

French Concession: The French Concession refers to an area in Shanghai, China, that was ceded to France during the period of imperialism, where French law and governance were implemented. This concession became a significant symbol of foreign control and exploitation in China during the late 19th and early 20th centuries, embodying the broader trends of imperial expansion and the imposition of foreign powers on local societies.

French in Africa: The French in Africa refers to the colonial and imperial activities of France on the African continent, which spanned from the late 19th century to the mid-20th century. This period saw France establish a vast colonial empire that included territories in North, West, and Central Africa, characterized by economic exploitation, cultural assimilation, and significant political control over local populations.

Imperialism in South Asia: Imperialism in South Asia refers to the dominance and control exerted by foreign powers, particularly European nations, over the region from the 18th to the 20th century. This period was marked by the establishment of colonial rule, economic exploitation, and significant cultural changes driven by imperial policies. The expansion of imperialism led to profound social, political, and economic transformations that reshaped South Asian societies.

Imperialism: Imperialism is the policy or practice of extending a country's power and influence through diplomacy or military force. It often involves the domination of one nation over another, which can lead to the exploitation of resources and people, shaping global politics, economics, and cultures in significant ways.

Imperialism in East Asia: Imperialism in East Asia refers to the political, economic, and cultural domination of Western powers and Japan over countries in the region from the late 19th century through the early 20th century. This period saw significant expansion as foreign powers sought to exploit resources, establish markets, and exert influence, leading to both resistance and adaptation within the affected nations.

Indirect Rule: Indirect rule is a system of governance used by colonial powers where local rulers maintain their positions of authority and power while being overseen by colonial authorities. This method allowed imperial powers to control vast territories without needing a large administrative presence, making it easier to manage diverse populations and reduce costs associated with direct rule.

Industrialization: Industrialization refers to the process of transforming economies from primarily agricultural to industrial, marked by the growth of factories, mass production, and advancements in technology. This transformation significantly influenced social, economic, and political structures worldwide, especially during the 18th and 19th centuries.

Japanese imperialism in East Asia: Japanese imperialism in East Asia refers to the aggressive expansion of Japan's territory and influence during the late 19th and early 20th centuries, marked by military conquests and the establishment of colonies. This expansion was driven by Japan's desire for resources, strategic dominance, and the belief in its own superiority, which led to significant changes in the political and social landscape of the region.

Nationalism: Nationalism is a political ideology that emphasizes the interests and culture of a particular nation or group, often advocating for self-determination and the belief that individuals' loyalty should be to their nation above all else. This strong sense of national identity can influence political movements, cultural developments, and conflicts, shaping the course of history in profound ways.

Ryukyu Islands: The Ryukyu Islands are a chain of islands located in the western Pacific Ocean, stretching from the southern tip of Japan to Taiwan. Historically significant as a center of trade and cultural exchange, these islands played a crucial role in regional interactions between Japan, China, and Southeast Asia, especially during the period of expansion of imperialism.

Scramble for Africa: The Scramble for Africa refers to the rapid invasion, colonization, and annexation of African territories by European powers during the late 19th century, particularly between 1881 and 1914. This period saw European nations competing aggressively for control over African lands, driven by a mix of economic interests, nationalistic fervor, and a belief in their own superiority.

Spanish-American War: The Spanish-American War was a conflict fought between the United States and Spain in 1898, primarily over issues of Cuban independence and American imperial interests. This war marked a significant turning point in U.S. foreign policy, as it led to the emergence of the United States as a global power and increased its imperial ambitions in the Caribbean and Pacific regions.

Suez Canal: The Suez Canal is a man-made waterway in Egypt that connects the Mediterranean Sea to the Red Sea, completed in 1869. This crucial passage significantly shortened the maritime route between Europe and South Asia, making it a vital artery for international trade and enhancing imperial expansion during the age of imperialism. Its strategic importance has continued into the 20th century, influencing political dynamics and independence movements in newly formed states.

US Imperialism in Latin America & Pacific Regions: US Imperialism in Latin America and the Pacific Regions refers to the expansionist policies and actions taken by the United States from the late 19th century into the early 20th century, aiming to establish political, economic, and military dominance in these areas. This era saw the US engaging in territorial acquisitions, exerting influence over local governments, and justifying intervention through doctrines like the Monroe Doctrine and Manifest Destiny, reflecting a broader trend of imperialism during this time.

6.3 Indigenous Responses to Imperialism

Introduction

Between 1750 and 1900, imperialism triggered diverse responses from indigenous peoples across the globe. In some cases, colonized groups resisted with force. Others pursued diplomacy, formed new states, or turned to religion as a basis for protest. While some indigenous societies aligned with imperial powers for survival, most experienced land loss, exploitation, and cultural suppression. These responses were shaped by unique regional contexts but often shared common threads of nationalism, spiritual revival, and a desire for autonomy.

Causes of Indigenous Discontent

As imperial powers expanded control, indigenous peoples developed numerous grievances, including the following:

Grievance	Explanation
Land Dispossession	Colonizers seized land for settlements or plantations, displacing natives.
Resource Exploitation	Natural resources were extracted for imperial gain, often without consent.
Cultural Suppression	Indigenous languages, religions, and customs were outlawed or stigmatized.
Labor Exploitation	Locals were forced into low-wage or unpaid labor on colonial projects.
Political Exclusion	Indigenous groups were denied participation in governance or legal rights.
Violence & Genocide	Massacres and ethnic cleansing were used to destroy or control native groups.

These shared grievances fueled uprisings, new state formations, and religious resistance against imperialism.

Types of Anti-Imperial Nationalism

Indigenous movements against imperialism varied in goals, methods, and tone. Below are key categories of resistance:

Type of Nationalism	Description
Political Nationalism	Sought self-rule or complete independence from imperial powers.
Cultural Nationalism	Emphasized preserving language, religion, and traditions.
Economic Nationalism	Promoted control over local industries and rejection of foreign dominance.
Social Nationalism	Advocated for equality and justice within colonized societies.
Nonviolent Resistance	Used diplomacy, propaganda, and legal appeals to challenge imperialism.
Armed Resistance	Engaged in rebellions or guerrilla warfare against colonial forces.

These categories often overlapped and emerged in tandem, reflecting both local traditions and global anti-colonial sentiments.

Direct Resistance to Imperial Rule

Yaa Asantewaa War (1900–1901)

In the Ashanti Empire (modern-day Ghana), Queen Mother **Yaa Asantewaa** led a final rebellion against British colonial forces after they demanded the sacred Golden Stool. Though the British prevailed, her leadership became a symbol of resistance to imperial domination in West Africa.

Túpac Amaru II Rebellion (1780–1781)

In Peru, **Túpac Amaru II**, an indigenous leader claiming Incan royal descent, led a major rebellion against Spanish rule. Although ultimately crushed, the uprising inspired future independence movements across Latin America.

Indian Rebellion of 1857

Also known as the **Sepoy Mutiny**, this began as a revolt by Indian soldiers in the British East India Company's army. It quickly became a broader anti-colonial rebellion. While suppressed, the revolt led Britain to dissolve the East India Company and rule India directly through the Crown.

New States Formed in Response to Imperialism

Sokoto Caliphate (1804–1903)

Founded by Islamic reformer **Usman dan Fodio**, the Sokoto Caliphate in present-day Nigeria emerged through a religious and political movement. It unified various Hausa states and resisted external domination until it was eventually conquered by the British.

Zulu Kingdom (1816–1879)

Led by **Shaka Zulu**, the Zulu Kingdom became a formidable military state in southern Africa. It resisted British and Boer encroachment, most famously during the **Anglo-Zulu War**. Despite early victories, the kingdom was defeated and annexed.

Cherokee Nation (Pre-1830s)

The Cherokee developed a sovereign government modeled on the U.S., complete with a written constitution. Despite legal victories like **Worcester v. Georgia**, the U.S. forcibly relocated the Cherokee along the **Trail of Tears**, undermining their statehood. However, they later rebuilt as a federally recognized nation.

Religious Movements as Resistance

Religious ideas often inspired resistance to colonialism, providing moral legitimacy and cultural unity.

Ghost Dance Movement (1890s)

Among Plains tribes in the U.S., the **Ghost Dance** religion promised the return of ancestors and the disappearance of white settlers. It ended violently with the **Wounded Knee Massacre**, where hundreds of Lakota Sioux were killed by U.S. troops.

Xhosa Cattle-Killing Movement (1856–1857)

A teenage prophet named **Nongqawuse** claimed ancestral spirits instructed the Xhosa to kill their cattle and destroy crops to bring salvation from British rule. The resulting famine devastated the population and ended in tragedy.

Mahdist Revolt (1881–1898)

In Sudan, **Muhammad Ahmad** declared himself the Mahdi (guided one) and led a jihad against Egyptian and British forces. He captured **Khartoum**, but after his death, the British reconquered Sudan in the **Battle of Omdurman** under General Kitchener.

Religious movements often served dual purposes: restoring cultural traditions and resisting colonial oppression.

Conclusion

Indigenous responses to imperialism from 1750 to 1900 were diverse, reflecting unique social, cultural, and political contexts. Whether through diplomacy, rebellion, religious revival, or new state formation, colonized peoples actively shaped the age of empire. While many efforts were suppressed, these movements laid the groundwork for future decolonization and national liberation in the 20th century.

Key Terms to Review

African Plantations: African plantations were large agricultural estates in Africa, primarily established by European colonizers, where cash crops such as sugar, tobacco, and cotton were cultivated using forced labor, including enslaved individuals. These plantations played a significant role in the transatlantic economy and were critical to understanding the indigenous responses to imperialism during the period of colonial expansion.

Anti-Imperial Movements: Anti-Imperial Movements refer to various efforts and actions taken by groups, communities, and individuals to resist and oppose imperial control and influence by foreign powers. These movements emerged as a response to the exploitation, oppression, and cultural domination experienced under imperial rule, often advocating for self-determination, independence, and the preservation of indigenous identities and rights.

Armed Resistance: Armed resistance refers to the organized and often violent opposition by indigenous groups against imperial powers that seek to control their territories, resources, and cultures. This form of resistance emerged as a reaction to colonial domination, fueled by the desire to defend land, sovereignty, and social structures from external exploitation and repression. Armed resistance was not only about military engagement but also included broader

movements that aimed to restore autonomy and cultural identity.

Armed Nationalism: Armed Nationalism refers to a form of nationalism that promotes the use of military force and armed struggle as a means to achieve political and social goals, particularly in the context of resistance against colonial or imperial powers. This ideology often emerges in response to oppression and seeks to assert national identity through armed conflict, inspiring movements that aim for independence or self-determination.

Australian Assimilation: Australian Assimilation refers to a government policy aimed at integrating Indigenous Australians into mainstream European-Australian society during the 20th century. This policy sought to erase Indigenous cultures and languages by promoting the idea that Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples should adopt European customs and values, ultimately leading to the loss of their unique cultural identities.

Cherokee Nation: The Cherokee Nation is a Native American tribe originally from the southeastern United States, known for their rich culture and history. In the context of indigenous responses to imperialism, the Cherokee Nation exemplifies how Native American groups adapted and resisted against encroachment on their lands by European settlers and the U.S. government during the 19th century. The tribe's response included the adoption of some aspects of European-American culture, legal strategies, and political organization to assert their rights and sovereignty.

Cultural and Religious Suppression: Cultural and religious suppression refers to the systematic effort to undermine or eliminate the cultural practices, beliefs, and identities of a group, particularly in the context of colonization and imperialism. This often involves the imposition of the colonizers' culture and religion on indigenous populations, leading to a loss of traditional customs, languages, and spiritual practices. The effects of this suppression can lead to social disintegration and resistance among affected communities, who may seek to reclaim their identity and heritage.

Cultural Nationalism: Cultural nationalism is a form of nationalism that emphasizes the importance of culture, language, and shared heritage in defining a national identity. It often arises in response to imperialism and colonialism, as indigenous peoples seek to reclaim their cultural identity and resist foreign domination by promoting their unique traditions and values.

Diplomatic Means: Diplomatic means refer to the methods and strategies used by nations and groups to engage in negotiations, communication, and relationship-building with one another, often to resolve conflicts or achieve political goals. This can involve treaties, alliances, discussions, and various forms of dialogue that can serve to either promote cooperation or express dissent. In the context of indigenous responses to imperialism, diplomatic means were crucial for indigenous populations as they sought to navigate their relationships with imperial powers and assert their sovereignty.

Direct Resistance: Direct resistance refers to the active and confrontational opposition by indigenous populations against imperial powers and their attempts to exert control over their lands and cultures. This form of resistance often involved organized movements, revolts, and rebellions aimed at challenging colonial authority and reclaiming sovereignty. It highlights the determination of native peoples to protect their rights, resources, and cultural identities from external domination.

Economic Exploitation: Economic exploitation refers to the process by which a dominant group or nation takes advantage of the resources, labor, and markets of a subordinate group or nation for its own benefit, often resulting in unequal economic relationships. This term is closely linked to the practices of colonial powers that extracted wealth from colonized regions while providing little in return, leading to significant social and economic disparities. The consequences of economic exploitation can lead to resistance movements as indigenous populations strive to reclaim their rights and resources.

Economic Nationalism: Economic nationalism is a policy approach that emphasizes the importance of domestic industries and prioritizes national economic interests over international trade and globalization. This ideology often seeks to protect local jobs, promote self-sufficiency, and limit foreign influence in the economy. It is closely linked to broader nationalist sentiments,

especially during periods of colonialism and imperialism.

European Colonizers: European colonizers were individuals and nations from Europe who explored, conquered, and established colonies in various parts of the world from the 15th century onwards. Their actions led to significant cultural, economic, and political changes in colonized regions, often resulting in the exploitation and oppression of indigenous populations.

Exploitation of Resources: Exploitation of Resources refers to the systematic extraction and utilization of natural resources by imperial powers for economic gain, often at the expense of local populations and environments. This practice played a crucial role in the expansion of empires, as colonizers sought to capitalize on the abundant resources available in colonized lands, impacting indigenous societies, economies, and ecosystems.

Ghost Dance Movement: The Ghost Dance Movement was a spiritual and cultural revival among Native American tribes in the late 19th century, particularly during the 1880s and 1890s. It aimed to restore indigenous ways of life and bring about a future where Native Americans would live in peace, free from the influence of European settlers. This movement emerged as a response to the oppressive policies of the U.S. government and the devastating effects of colonization on indigenous peoples.

Indian Rebellion (1857): The Indian Rebellion of 1857, also known as the Sepoy Mutiny, was a widespread but unsuccessful uprising against British rule in India. It marked a significant moment of indigenous resistance to imperialism, showcasing the discontent among various sectors of Indian society, including soldiers, peasants, and local rulers, against British policies and practices that were perceived as exploitative and culturally insensitive.

Indigenous Responses to Imperialism: Indigenous responses to imperialism refer to the various ways that local populations reacted to the foreign domination and exploitation brought by imperial powers. These responses included resistance, adaptation, and the creation of new movements that sought to preserve their cultural identities while confronting colonial oppression. Understanding these reactions helps highlight the resilience and agency of indigenous peoples amid the profound changes imposed by imperial rule.

Land Loss: Land loss refers to the process by which indigenous peoples and communities lose their traditional territories, often as a result of colonialism, imperial expansion, or economic exploitation. This term is deeply connected to the broader impacts of imperialism, as indigenous groups faced significant displacement, loss of resources, and cultural disintegration when their lands were appropriated for agricultural, industrial, or military purposes by foreign powers.

Mahdist Wars: The Mahdist Wars were a series of conflicts in the late 19th century, primarily between Sudanese forces led by Muhammad Ahmad, who proclaimed himself the Mahdi, and British-Egyptian forces. These wars represented a significant indigenous response to imperialism, as they were fueled by resistance against foreign control and the desire for a return to a purer Islamic society.

Native Complaints Against Imperialism: Native complaints against imperialism refer to the grievances expressed by indigenous peoples in response to the imposition of foreign control and exploitation during the age of imperialism. These complaints often highlighted issues such as cultural erosion, economic exploitation, and the loss of sovereignty, reflecting a deep sense of injustice and resistance to colonial rule.

New State Formation: New State Formation refers to the process by which new political entities are established, often emerging from the dissolution or transformation of existing states, typically in response to imperialism or colonial rule. This phenomenon is characterized by the struggle for self-determination, where indigenous populations mobilize to create new governance structures, redefine national identities, and assert their sovereignty against foreign powers. The creation of new states can lead to significant social, political, and economic changes within a region.

Non-violent Nationalism: Non-violent nationalism refers to the political movement that seeks to achieve national independence or self-determination through peaceful means, rather than through armed conflict or violence. This approach often emphasizes civil disobedience, non-

cooperation, and peaceful protests as methods to oppose colonial rule or imperial domination, allowing for the promotion of national identity and unity among indigenous populations without resorting to violence.

Physical Violence and Genocide: Physical violence refers to the use of force to harm individuals or groups, while genocide is a specific form of violence aimed at deliberately exterminating a particular ethnic, racial, or national group. Both concepts are crucial in understanding the extreme responses of indigenous populations to imperialism, where violent acts were often used in resistance against colonizers who sought to suppress their cultures and societies.

Political Nationalism: Political nationalism is an ideology that emphasizes the interests and culture of a particular nation, advocating for self-governance and sovereignty. This concept often emerges as a response to imperial domination, as various groups seek to assert their identity and political rights against external control. In the face of imperialism, political nationalism fosters a sense of unity among people sharing common cultural or historical ties, driving movements for independence and self-determination.

Political Oppression: Political oppression is the systematic and intentional use of state power to suppress dissent, limit individual freedoms, and control the political landscape. This can manifest in various forms, including censorship, imprisonment of political opponents, and the enactment of laws that curtail civil liberties. In the context of imperialism, indigenous populations often faced political oppression as imperial powers sought to maintain control over colonized regions, resulting in significant resistance movements.

Rebellions Based on Religion: Rebellions based on religion refer to uprisings and movements driven primarily by religious beliefs, often in response to perceived oppression or attempts at forced assimilation by imperial powers. These rebellions can reveal the deep connection between identity, spirituality, and resistance against colonial authority, highlighting how faith can motivate groups to challenge the status quo and assert their autonomy.

Reservations: Reservations refer to designated areas of land in the United States set aside for Native American tribes, often created through treaties or executive orders. These lands were intended to provide a place for indigenous peoples to maintain their culture and way of life, especially as they faced displacement due to westward expansion and colonization.

Social Nationalism: Social Nationalism is a political ideology that emphasizes the importance of national identity while advocating for social justice and equality within the nation. This term connects to the broader themes of resistance against imperialism, as indigenous groups sought to reclaim their identity and rights in the face of colonial rule, often blending national pride with calls for social reform and the welfare of their communities.

Sokoto Caliphate: The Sokoto Caliphate was a large Islamic state in West Africa that existed from the early 19th century until the British conquest in 1903. Founded by Usman dan Fodio, it emerged from a series of jihads aimed at reforming Islam and unifying the Hausa states under one Islamic government, influencing trade, culture, and religion in the region.

Tupac Amaru II Rebellion: The Tupac Amaru II Rebellion was an uprising against Spanish colonial rule in Peru that took place from 1780 to 1783, led by José Gabriel Condorcanqui, who adopted the name Tupac Amaru II. This rebellion aimed to address the grievances of indigenous peoples, including forced labor, heavy taxation, and social injustices. It symbolizes indigenous resistance to imperialism in Latin America and highlights the struggle for autonomy and rights among oppressed populations.

Xhosa Cattle-Killing Movement: The Xhosa Cattle-Killing Movement was a significant resistance movement that occurred among the Xhosa people in South Africa during the 1850s. This movement involved the mass slaughter of cattle and the destruction of crops, driven by the belief that this act would cleanse the land and bring about a new era free from colonial oppression. It is an important example of how indigenous populations responded to imperial pressures and sought to reclaim their autonomy.

Yaa Asantewaa War: The Yaa Asantewaa War, also known as the War of the Golden Stool, was a conflict that took place from 1900 to 1901 between the Ashanti Empire and British

colonial forces in what is now Ghana. It arose in response to British attempts to undermine Ashanti sovereignty and control over their cultural symbols, particularly the Golden Stool, which represented the unity and identity of the Ashanti people.

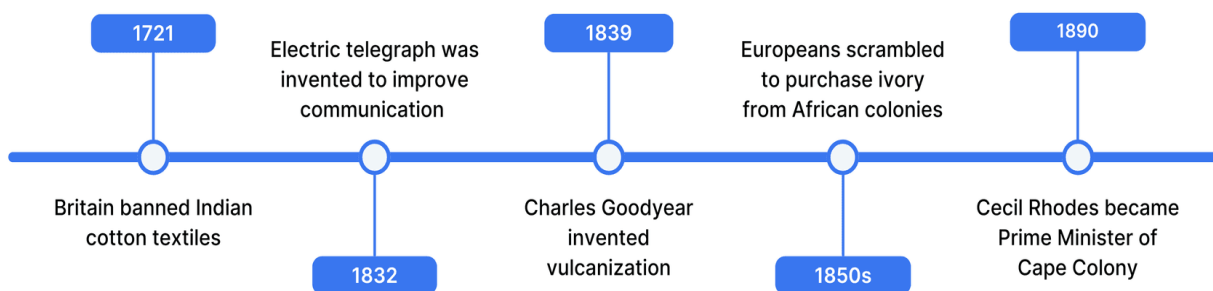
Zulu Kingdom: The Zulu Kingdom was a prominent African state established in the early 19th century, known for its military organization and cultural achievements. It emerged under the leadership of King Shaka Zulu, who transformed the Zulu people into a powerful force through innovative tactics and centralized governance. The kingdom's response to imperialism, particularly during the period of British expansion in southern Africa, reflects the broader theme of indigenous resistance to foreign domination.

Topic 6.4 Global Economic Development

Main Idea

As industrialism boomed during the 1700s and 1800s, imperial powers greatly expanded their influence on colonized countries for raw materials and labor in long-term projects. For instance, Europe relied more on Asian and African markets for raw materials to manufacture goods, while American markets relied on South America for natural fertilizer. At the same time, many workers who built railroads and telegraph lines in developing countries faced harsh conditions, low wages, and long hours. All of these factors contributed to economic imperialism during this era.

Key Timeline



fiveable

Timeline of notable economic events from 1750-1900 Image courtesy of Naomi Ling

Things to Know

Technological Advances

Before railroads, people had to travel by water or poorly kept roads

Railroads lowered the cost of importing raw materials from Asia and Africa → Europe

- Ex. British colonizers built many railways all across India to ship their raw materials

Steamships carried people, mail, and goods across rivers

- Became more efficient in 1870s when better engines and refrigeration were invented

Telegraph helped people communicate faster

- Invented in 1832

Agricultural Products

Before colonization, Asian and African farmers mainly practiced subsistence farming — lived off of their own crops

Colonizers encouraged them to instead grow cash crops to be sold in markets

- tea, cotton, sugar, coffee

Cash crops made food prices rise in these nations

Raw Materials

As demand for raw materials rose, colonies became export economies

In 1721, Britain banned Indian cotton textiles because they were a threat to the local wool industry

- Colonies began to only produce raw materials, while England manufactured textiles

Rubber — harvested in Southeast Asia and transported to Britain as an important industrial material

- Many workers were punished brutally for not extracting enough rubber

Palm oil — required to lubricate factory machines in England

- A commodity in West Africa for 5,000 years before

Ivory — used for luxury or ornamental goods; known for its beauty and durability

- Ivory Coast was named after its trading posts to purchase ivory and enslaved people

Diamonds — 90% were produced by the De Beers Mining Company in 1891

Mineral Production Locations

Mexico → silver

Chile → copper

Zambia and Belgian Congo → copper

Bolivia, Nigeria, Malaya, Dutch East Indies → tin

Australia and South Africa → gold

Global Consequences of Industrialization

Industrialized nations got richer → stock exchanges grew

- Investments and global markets were protected

Developing nations were able to grow few crops due to damaging cash cropping methods

- Their environments were damaged to clear up land for farming

Many former colonies still struggle to fertilize their lands today due to extensive environmental decay

Apartheid in South Africa

British Empire captured the Dutch Cape Colony in the early 1800s

Although slavery was abolished in the British Empire in 1833, slaves became indentured servants and received almost the same harsh treatment

Cecil Rhodes became Prime Minister of the Cape Colony in 1890

Legislation was passed to place restrictions on indentured laborers, which further increased the racial inequality and set the stage for the future apartheid

Terms to Remember

Term	Definition + Significance
Cecil Rhodes	A British politician investor who invested in a failed railroad project from Cape Town, South Africa with Cairo, Egypt; Prime Minister of the Cape Colony from 1890-1896
Subsistence farming	A farming method where people only grow enough crops to feed themselves and their families
Cash crops	Crops that are grown to be sold on a market, not eaten by the farmer
Guano	Bat and seabird excrement that was used as a natural fertilizer; originated in South America and was exported to other countries
Export economy	A country where international trade makes up a large percentage of its economy
Vulcanization	A process that hardens rubber and makes it easier to manufacture goods; invented by Charles Goodyear
Monocultures	A lack of crop diversity in developing nations due to cash crop farming
Apartheid	Racial segregation in a country (ex. South Africa during 1900s)
De Beers Mining Company	Largest diamond production company in the 1800s
Electric telegraph	An invention that allowed people to communicate with each other by making and breaking an electrical connection

6.5 Economic Imperialism

Introduction

As industrialization reshaped the global economy during the long 19th century, imperial powers—especially Britain and the United States—increasingly exercised economic dominance over less industrialized regions. Rather than always using direct military or political control, imperial powers practiced economic imperialism, manipulating markets, labor, infrastructure, and financial institutions to serve their own interests.

This form of imperialism enabled developed countries to extract wealth, open new markets, and dominate global trade without full colonization.

This was particularly evident in Asia and Latin America, where independent states like China, Argentina, and the Ottoman Empire were pressured into unequal trade arrangements and foreign debt traps.

Causes of Economic Imperialism

Several key factors drove the expansion of economic imperialism between 1750 and 1900:

Industrialization increased the demand for raw materials and new markets.

Capital accumulation encouraged investment abroad.

Geopolitical strategy motivated control of trade routes and ports.

Rising consumer demand in Europe and the U.S. led to deeper commercial integration with the global South.

National prestige and competition among empires fueled expansionist ambitions.

Formal vs. Informal Economic Imperialism

Form of Control	Description	Example
Formal Imperialism	Direct political rule over a territory, including military occupation or colonization.	British Raj in India
Informal Imperialism	Indirect economic dominance without political takeover, often through trade, loans, or investment.	British influence in Argentina and China

How Economic Imperialism Operated

Economic imperialism functioned through a variety of mechanisms:

Loan-based dependency: Foreign banks issued loans to weaker states with strict repayment conditions.

Infrastructure dominance: Railroads, ports, and canals were built primarily to serve imperial trade.

Commodity dependency: Local economies were tied to cash crop exports (e.g., cotton, coffee, sugar).

Treaty systems: Unequal treaties forced countries like China and the Ottoman Empire into one-sided trade.

Key Idea: Economic imperialism allowed powers like Britain to profit off nations without outright colonization, using trade, debt, and diplomacy instead of conquest.

Case Studies in Economic Imperialism

The Opium Wars (1839–1842 & 1856–1860)

Britain's trade deficit with China led it to illegally export **opium** from India to Chinese markets. When Chinese officials cracked down, Britain retaliated militarily. The resulting **Opium Wars** ended in humiliating treaties that favored foreign powers.

Treaty	Terms
Treaty of Nanjing (1842)	China ceded Hong Kong to Britain, paid indemnities (security or protection against a loss or other financial burden), and opened 5 ports to trade.
Treaty of Tientsin (1858)	Legalized opium, allowed missionaries , opened 11 more ports , and allowed foreign legations in Beijing.

These treaties are examples of **unequal treaties**—forced agreements that undermined Chinese sovereignty.

British Influence in Latin America: Argentina's Port Crisis

Argentina experienced massive British investment in the 19th century—especially in railroads, utilities, and port infrastructure. While this helped modernize the country, it created a **debt trap**.

British banks like Barings had control over Argentine infrastructure.

In **1890**, Argentina's economy crashed under foreign debt.

To receive more loans, Argentina:

- Gave **London control of customs revenues**

- Bought back British-owned utilities
- Imposed austerity that harmed the poor

This represents **informal imperialism**: Britain never colonized Argentina, but still controlled its economy through debt and investment.

Other Examples of Economic Imperialism

Region	Imperial Power	Method of Control	Key Resources/Effects
India	Britain	British East India Company; later formal rule	Cotton, tea, opium
Hawaii	United States	Annexation through business interest	Sugar plantations
China	Britain, France	Unequal treaties and extraterritorial rights	Ports, opium, tea
Egypt	Britain, France	Debt crisis and control of Suez Canal	Cotton, canal tolls
Argentina	Britain	Foreign investment and debt leverage	Railroads, ports, meat exports

Global Consequences of Economic Imperialism

Positive Outcomes (for imperial powers)

- Access to cheap raw materials
- Expansion of global markets
- Profitable investments and trade dominance

Negative Outcomes (for colonized or dependent regions)

- Resource extraction** without reinvestment in local economies
- Debt crises** and loss of economic sovereignty
- Dependency** on single exports (e.g., sugar, rubber)
- Cultural and political destabilization**

Concept Reminder: Economic imperialism expanded Western wealth and global dominance—but often deepened inequality and dependency in the Global South.

Key Takeaways

Economic imperialism was driven by the need for raw materials, new markets, and geopolitical advantage.

It often involved **indirect control** through trade, investment, and unequal treaties.

Nations like China and Argentina lost economic sovereignty without full colonization.

These patterns foreshadowed **neocolonialism** in the 20th century.

Key Terms to Review

Barings Bank and Investment: Barings Bank was a British merchant bank established in 1762 that played a significant role in international finance and investment. It became known for its investment banking operations, particularly during the 19th century, when it was heavily involved in financing projects around the world, including railroads and infrastructure in various countries. The bank's activities exemplified the broader trend of economic imperialism, where financial institutions invested in foreign economies to exert influence and control over them.

British Colonization of India: The British Colonization of India refers to the period when Britain established control over the Indian subcontinent, transforming it into a major part of the British Empire from the mid-18th century to 1947. This process involved economic exploitation, cultural influence, and significant political changes, making India a crucial element of Britain's imperial ambitions and reflecting the broader theme of economic imperialism.

British Trading Posts in China: British trading posts in China were established trading hubs where British merchants engaged in commerce, particularly during the 18th and 19th centuries. These posts played a significant role in the exchange of goods, such as tea, silk, and porcelain, and facilitated the British economic imperialism that sought to expand influence and control over Chinese markets.

Buenos Aires Water Works: The Buenos Aires Water Works was a significant infrastructure project established in the late 19th century, aimed at providing clean drinking water to the rapidly growing population of Buenos Aires, Argentina. This initiative is an essential example of economic imperialism, as it was heavily influenced by foreign investment and expertise, particularly from Britain, reflecting the broader trend of European powers exerting control over local economies and resources in Latin America.

China's Influence in Africa: China's Influence in Africa refers to the growing economic, political, and cultural presence of China on the African continent, particularly since the early 21st century. This influence is characterized by increased trade, investment, and diplomatic relationships, often framed within the context of economic imperialism, where China's economic power shapes African markets and infrastructures.

Economic Imperialism: Economic imperialism refers to the practice where one country exerts control over another country's economy through direct investment or by influencing economic policies. This form of imperialism often involves multinational corporations or foreign governments seeking to exploit natural resources and establish markets for their goods, leading to significant economic benefits for the imperial power while stunting local development.

Economic Aid: Economic aid refers to the transfer of financial resources from one country or organization to another, typically aimed at supporting development, reducing poverty, and improving living standards. This form of assistance can take many shapes, including grants, loans, and technical assistance, and often plays a critical role in shaping the economic policies and development strategies of recipient nations.

Exploitation of Labor: Exploitation of labor refers to the unfair treatment of workers, where they are forced to work under harsh conditions for minimal pay, often in the interest of profit maximization. This practice is a core feature of economic imperialism, where powerful nations or corporations dominate weaker economies, using their labor forces as a means to accumulate wealth and resources. Through this exploitation, disparities in wealth and power are perpetuated, often leading to social unrest and economic dependency.

Formal Economic Imperialism: Formal Economic Imperialism refers to a strategy used by powerful nations to control and dominate the economies of weaker countries through direct investment, trade agreements, and financial institutions. This form of imperialism is characterized by the establishment of economic dependencies that often lead to the exploitation of resources and labor in the subordinate countries, reinforcing the power dynamics between nations.

Foreign Investment Debt Trap: A Foreign Investment Debt Trap occurs when a country takes on debt to finance foreign investment projects, leading to a cycle of dependency on external capital. This situation often results in economic instability as countries struggle to repay loans, sometimes forcing them to surrender control of national assets or resources to foreign investors. This dynamic illustrates the complexities of economic imperialism, where wealthier nations exploit the resources and labor of less developed countries through financial mechanisms.

Industrial Revolution: The Industrial Revolution was a transformative period that began in the late 18th century, marked by the transition from agrarian economies to industrialized ones, primarily driven by technological innovations and changes in production methods. This shift had profound impacts on social structures, economies, and the global landscape, influencing responses to industrialization, societal changes, and the expansion of imperialism.

Informal Economic Imperialism: Informal Economic Imperialism refers to a form of domination where a powerful nation extends its influence over another country's economy without direct political control or military intervention. Instead of outright colonization, this method involves manipulating local economies through financial investments, trade agreements, and corporate control, effectively allowing the imperial power to dictate economic policies and conditions.

Natural Resources: Natural resources are materials and components that can be found in the natural environment and are utilized for economic gain. These resources include minerals, forests, water, and fossil fuels, all of which played a critical role during periods of economic expansion and industrialization. Access to abundant natural resources often influenced the patterns of imperialism and shaped the development of industries, contributing to economic growth and global trade dynamics.

Opium Wars: The Opium Wars were a series of conflicts between China and Western powers, primarily Britain, in the mid-19th century, over trade imbalances and the illegal opium trade. These wars marked a significant moment in China's interactions with the West, leading to a shift in power dynamics, territorial concessions, and the opening of China to foreign influence.

Port of Argentina: The Port of Argentina, primarily located in Buenos Aires, serves as a crucial hub for international trade and commerce in South America. This port is significant for its role in facilitating the export of agricultural products, particularly beef and grains, which are vital to the Argentine economy and have drawn foreign investment and influence, especially during the era of economic imperialism.

Trade and Investment: Trade and investment refer to the exchange of goods and services across borders and the allocation of capital to foster economic growth in different regions. These activities are crucial for economic imperialism as they facilitate the expansion of influence and control by wealthier nations over less developed regions, often leading to unequal power dynamics and exploitation of resources.

Treaty of Tientsin (1858): The Treaty of Tientsin was a series of agreements signed between China and several Western powers, including Britain, France, the United States, and Russia, following the Second Opium War. It marked a significant moment in the era of economic imperialism as it opened up China to foreign trade and established diplomatic relations, severely undermining China's sovereignty and expanding Western influence in the region.

Treaty of Nanking (1842): The Treaty of Nanking, signed in 1842, was an agreement that ended the First Opium War between the United Kingdom and the Qing Dynasty of China. This treaty marked a significant moment in the era of economic imperialism, as it opened up Chinese ports to British trade, ceded Hong Kong to Britain, and established extraterritorial rights for British citizens, reflecting the broader patterns of Western dominance and exploitation during this period.

United States Influence in Latin America: United States influence in Latin America refers to the political, economic, and cultural power exerted by the U.S. over countries in the region from the late 19th century through the 20th century. This influence manifested through various means such as military interventions, economic policies like dollar diplomacy, and the promotion of American ideals, often justified under the guise of protecting democracy and stability.

6.6 Causes of Migration from 1750 to 1900

Migration in the Age of Industrialization and Empire

Between 1750 and 1900, patterns of human migration underwent significant transformation due to environmental, economic, political, and technological developments. As industrialization reshaped labor demands, and imperial expansion brought more of the world under colonial control, people migrated both voluntarily and involuntarily in record numbers.

While some sought opportunity—whether land, wages, or family reunification—others were displaced by poverty, coercion, war, or environmental catastrophe. New transportation technologies made long-distance and even seasonal migration more common.

Migration during this period reflected not just the movement of people, but the profound ways in which global capitalism, empire-building, and urbanization transformed human societies.

Environmental and Economic Push & Pull Factors

Migration often results from a combination of **push factors** (which drive people out of their homelands) and **pull factors** (which attract them elsewhere). In the 19th century, these forces became increasingly global in scale.

Common Environmental and Economic Drivers of Migration

Famine and Crop Failures:

- The **Irish Potato Famine** (1845–1852) led to mass emigration from Ireland to Britain, the United States, and Canada.
- Droughts in **India and China** contributed to rural distress and internal or external migration.

Job Opportunities and Higher Wages:

- Many migrated to industrial centers or plantations in search of employment—particularly in the **United States, Argentina, Australia, and Southeast Asia.**

Population Pressure:

- Demographic growth in parts of Europe and Asia strained land and jobs, encouraging emigration.

Urbanization:

- Industrial cities around the world offered employment opportunities—especially in manufacturing, infrastructure, and services.

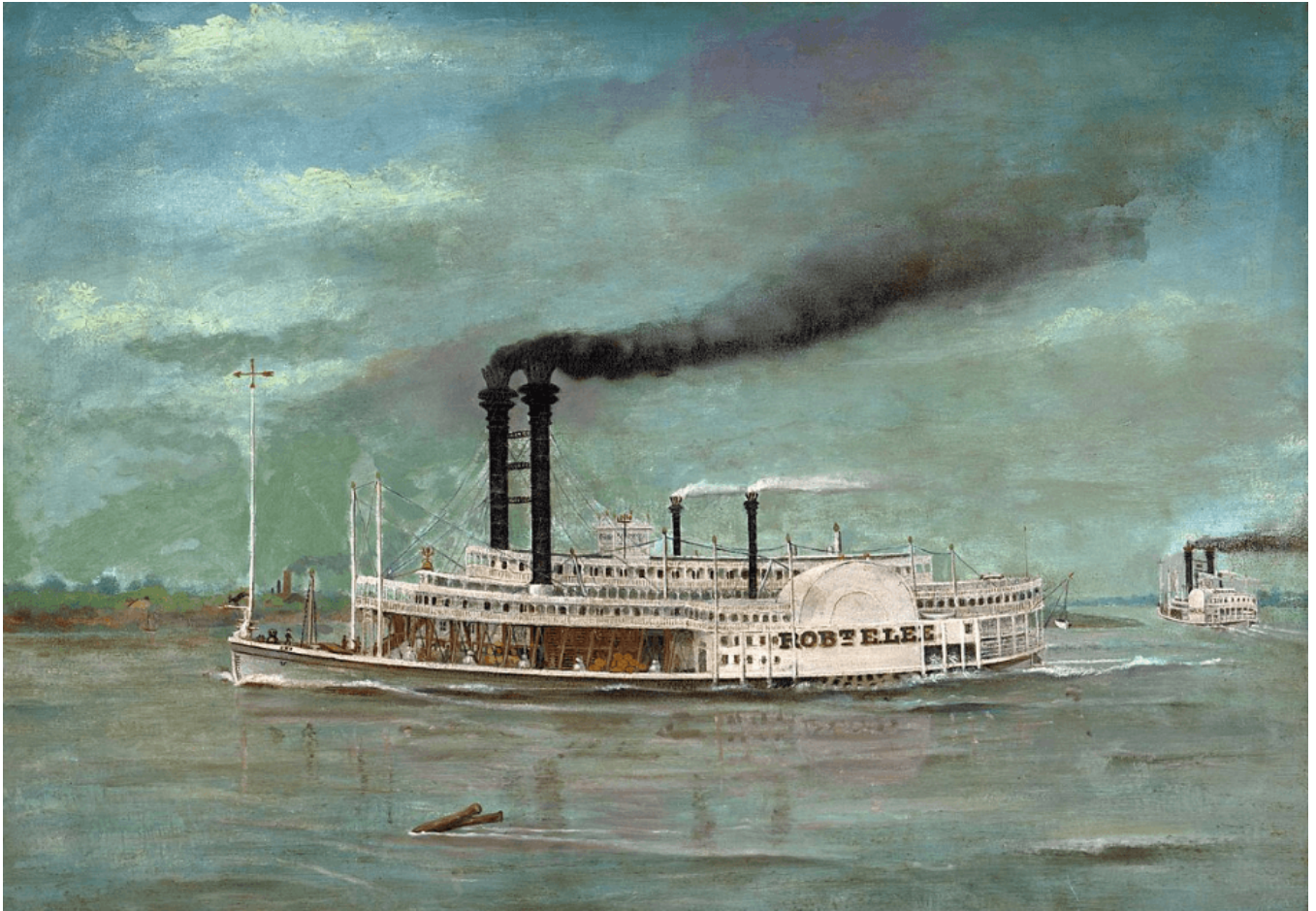
Migration and Transportation

Technological developments in transportation—particularly **steamships and railroads**—transformed migration. Journeys that once took months could now be completed in weeks or days, increasing the flow of people across borders.

New Transportation Networks

Mode of Transport	Impact on Migration
Steamships	Enabled affordable, fast oceanic travel (e.g., Atlantic crossings from Europe to the Americas)
Railroads	Opened up interior regions (e.g., Russian railways, U.S. Transcontinental Railroad)
Canals	The Suez and Panama Canals reduced travel time significantly
Urban Transit	Facilitated local migration into rapidly growing industrial cities

Seasonal Migration: Some migrants, like Italian laborers and Japanese sugarcane workers in Hawai'i, migrated seasonally—traveling back and forth depending on the harvest cycles or work availability.



Steamship with water wheel. Image Courtesy of Wikimedia Commons

Types of Labor Migration

Migration was often shaped by labor demands, particularly in colonial or industrial economies. Migrants filled roles as factory workers, miners, plantation laborers, and domestic servants.

Voluntary Labor Migration

Many **European and Asian migrants** moved voluntarily to:

- **United States and Canada** for factory and railroad work
- **Argentina** for agricultural labor
- **Australia** for mining and farming

Chinese migrants moved to Southeast Asia and the Americas for mining, railroad work, and plantation labor

Indian migrants traveled across the British Empire—especially to the Caribbean, East Africa, and Southeast Asia—as laborers

Coerced and Semi-Coerced Labor Migration

Type of Labor	Description	Example Regions
Enslavement	Continued in some areas despite abolition efforts	Brazil, Cuba (until late 1800s)
Indentured Servitude	Contracted labor for 5–7 years, often exploitative	Indian and Chinese workers in Caribbean, Fiji, SE Asia
Convict Labor	Penal labor used to build colonies	British Australia, French Guiana, Southern U.S. (post-slavery)

Indentured Servitude: Though technically voluntary, indentured laborers often faced abusive conditions and deceptive recruitment. Indian and Chinese indentured migrants were especially common in British and French colonies.

Urbanization and Internal Migration

Industrialization not only fueled international migration but also spurred massive internal migration from **rural areas to cities**.

In **Europe**, enclosure movements and rural poverty pushed people toward cities like **Manchester** and **Berlin**.

In **India and China**, displaced peasants moved to urban centers under colonial or imperial control.

The **American South** saw African Americans moving to urban areas in a precursor to the Great Migration.

New transportation technologies, like **railroads**, facilitated urban migration.

Urban centers grew rapidly, creating both new economic opportunities and new forms of poverty and overcrowding.

Demographic Shifts and Returning Migrants

While some migrants permanently resettled, others engaged in **temporary or circular migration**, returning home after earning money abroad or moving seasonally.

Italian laborers often returned to Italy after working abroad in Argentina or the U.S.

Chinese workers sometimes returned home after years of work on American railroads or in Southeast Asia.

Lebanese and Syrian merchants migrated for trade but often maintained ties with their home communities.

This new pattern of movement was made possible by faster and more affordable travel.

Imperialism and Migration

European empires expanded across Africa, Asia, and the Pacific in the 19th century. This expansion facilitated new flows of migration—for settlers, laborers, and soldiers.

Imperial Migrations

Group	Migration Pattern	Purpose
Colonial Administrators	Moved from metropolises to colonies (e.g., British to India)	Rule, administer
Settler Colonists	British to South Africa, Kenya, Canada, Australia	Farming, business
Indentured Laborers	Indians to Trinidad, Mauritius, Fiji	Plantation labor
Missionaries & Merchants	Europeans and Middle Easterners to Africa & Americas	Spread religion, seek profit

Lebanese Migration: Many Lebanese (under Ottoman rule) migrated to the Americas as merchants, forming strong diaspora communities in Brazil, Colombia, and the U.S.

Imperial migration both reshaped the colonies and brought diverse populations into closer contact—though not always peacefully. Migration patterns were deeply tied to systems of **colonial hierarchy and exploitation**.

Conclusion

Migration between 1750 and 1900 was driven by a complex combination of **industrial growth, imperialism, economic opportunity**, and **coercion**. While some migrants sought better lives, others were displaced by force or desperation.

These migration flows helped shape global labor systems, transformed cities, diversified populations, and intensified debates over **citizenship, race**, and **national identity**—debates that would continue into the 20th century.

Key Terms to Review

Agricultural Labor: Agricultural labor refers to the work performed by individuals engaged in the cultivation of crops and the rearing of livestock. This type of labor has been a fundamental aspect of human society, especially during periods of significant migration and economic change from 1750 to 1900, as people moved to urban areas or colonies in search of better opportunities, often leaving behind traditional farming roles.

Air Transportation: Air transportation refers to the movement of people and goods via aircraft, which became a significant mode of transport during the late 19th and early 20th centuries. Its development had profound implications for migration patterns, enabling faster and more efficient travel across vast distances, which in turn facilitated global connectivity and cultural exchange during a transformative period in history.

British Empire: The British Empire was a global empire that at its height controlled vast territories across Africa, Asia, the Americas, and the Pacific, making it one of the largest empires in history. Its expansion was driven by economic interests, territorial ambition, and the spread of British culture and governance, significantly influencing global trade patterns and international relations.

Coerced Labor: Coerced labor refers to work that individuals are forced to perform against their will, often under threat of punishment or violence. This practice has been prevalent throughout history and is closely tied to the economic demands of societies, particularly during periods of colonial expansion and industrialization, where the need for labor exceeded voluntary participation. The use of coerced labor has profoundly influenced economic systems and migration patterns, shaping social structures and human experiences across different regions.

Construction Labor: Construction labor refers to the workforce involved in the building, repairing, and maintaining of structures such as homes, bridges, and roads. This term highlights the essential role that laborers played during a period of significant industrial growth and urbanization, particularly from 1750 to 1900, as many individuals migrated in search of better job opportunities in expanding cities and regions.

Convict leasing: Convict leasing was a system in the United States, primarily from the late 19th to early 20th centuries, where convicts were leased to private businesses for labor. This practice arose after the Civil War as Southern states sought ways to profit from forced labor while circumventing the abolition of slavery, allowing them to exploit Black prisoners in harsh working conditions.

Domestic Labor: Domestic labor refers to the work performed within the home that typically includes household chores, caregiving, and other activities necessary for maintaining a household. This type of labor often falls disproportionately on women and has significant implications for social structures, economic systems, and patterns of migration during the period from 1750 to 1900.

Economic Opportunities: Economic opportunities refer to the prospects for individuals or groups to improve their financial status through employment, entrepreneurship, or investment. This concept was crucial from 1750 to 1900 as people migrated for better job prospects, increased wages, and improved living standards, often leaving their home countries in search of these opportunities.

Family Reunification: Family reunification refers to the process by which family members who have been separated due to migration or other circumstances come together in a new country. This concept is especially important during the period from 1750 to 1900, as migration patterns shifted significantly due to economic opportunities, political upheaval, and social changes, often leading families to seek to reunite in new environments for stability and support.

French Empire: The French Empire refers to the colonial and imperial pursuits of France from the 17th century through the early 20th century, characterized by its significant expansion in Africa, Asia, and the Americas. This empire played a vital role in the global competition for territory and resources, influencing political and cultural landscapes across continents.

Global Urbanization: Global Urbanization refers to the increasing population concentration in urban areas worldwide, driven by various social, economic, and political factors. This phenomenon significantly influenced migration patterns from 1750 to 1900, as people moved from rural settings to cities in search of better opportunities, jobs, and living conditions. The rapid growth of cities during this period reshaped societies and economies on a global scale.

Imperialism: Imperialism is the policy or practice of extending a country's power and influence through diplomacy or military force. It often involves the domination of one nation over another, which can lead to the exploitation of resources and people, shaping global politics, economics, and cultures in significant ways.

Indentured Labor: Indentured labor refers to a system where individuals, often impoverished or seeking new opportunities, enter into a contract to work for a specific period in exchange for passage to a new land, typically the Americas or other colonies. This form of labor became

prominent from the 17th to the 19th centuries as a response to labor shortages, particularly following the decline of indigenous populations and the abolition of slavery in some regions.

Industrial Transportation: Industrial Transportation refers to the systems and methods used to move goods and people during the Industrial Revolution, which transformed economies and societies from agrarian to industrial. This period saw advancements in various modes of transport, including railways, steamships, and canals, facilitating mass movement of resources and labor that fueled economic growth and migration patterns.

Industrial Labor: Industrial labor refers to the workforce engaged in manufacturing and production processes, typically characterized by factory work during the Industrial Revolution. This type of labor marked a significant shift from agrarian economies to industrialized societies, fundamentally altering social structures, economic practices, and migration patterns as people moved to urban areas in search of employment opportunities.

Japanese Empire: The Japanese Empire was a period of rapid expansion and militarization of Japan from the late 19th century to the early 20th century, characterized by its aggressive imperialist policies and territorial acquisitions. This empire arose from Japan's desire to compete with Western powers, leading to migrations as people moved for opportunities in newly acquired territories, reshaping the social and political landscape of the region.

Mining Labor: Mining labor refers to the work performed by individuals in the extraction of valuable minerals and resources from the earth, which became a significant aspect of the global economy between 1750 and 1900. This form of labor was crucial in meeting the demands of industrialization, providing raw materials like gold, silver, coal, and precious metals that fueled economic growth and migration patterns during this period. The pursuit of mining opportunities also led to significant social changes, including the movement of workers across regions and continents in search of employment.

Natural Disasters: Natural disasters are sudden and extreme events caused by environmental factors that result in significant destruction, loss of life, and disruption to human activities. They can include earthquakes, floods, hurricanes, and volcanic eruptions, and their effects often lead to large-scale migrations as people seek safety and stability in other regions. Understanding natural disasters is essential to grasping the broader trends of human movement during the period from 1750 to 1900.

Ottoman Empire: The Ottoman Empire was a vast and influential Islamic state that existed from the late 13th century until the early 20th century, encompassing parts of Europe, Asia, and Africa. It played a crucial role in shaping political, cultural, and economic landscapes across these regions, particularly as it navigated challenges related to modernization, nationalism, and imperialism.

Penal transportation: Penal transportation refers to the practice of sending convicted criminals to a distant colony or territory, typically as a form of punishment and deterrence. This method was used extensively during the 18th and 19th centuries, particularly by Britain, as a solution to overcrowded prisons and as a way to establish colonies in regions like Australia.

Pipeline Transportation: Pipeline transportation is the method of transporting goods, typically liquids and gases, through pipes over long distances. This form of transportation became increasingly important from 1750 to 1900 as industrialization and urbanization created a demand for efficient methods of moving resources like oil, natural gas, and water, significantly impacting economic development and migration patterns during this period.

Political Instability: Political instability refers to the likelihood of government collapse or the disruption of political order, often resulting from factors like conflict, ineffective governance, and social unrest. This state of uncertainty can lead to significant changes in leadership, policy, and governance, influencing both domestic and international relations. The consequences of political instability can create environments where migration is driven by the search for safety, economic opportunity, and better living conditions.

Portuguese Empire: The Portuguese Empire was one of the first global empires, established in the late 15th century and lasting until the early 20th century, primarily known for its maritime exploration, trade routes, and colonial territories in Africa, Asia, and South America. This empire

played a significant role in shaping global trade networks and interactions between continents.

Rail Transportation: Rail transportation refers to the system of moving goods and people using trains and railroads, which became a crucial aspect of industrialization from the 1750s to the early 1900s. This mode of transport revolutionized trade and migration patterns, facilitating faster movement across vast distances and contributing significantly to urbanization and economic growth during this period.

Road Transportation: Road transportation refers to the movement of people and goods using vehicles on roads. This method of transportation became increasingly significant during the period from 1750 to 1900, facilitating migration and trade as infrastructure improved and urbanization accelerated. The rise of road transportation contributed to shifts in population dynamics, as individuals sought better opportunities and access to resources in different regions.

Russian Empire: The Russian Empire was a vast and influential state that existed from 1721 until the Russian Revolution in 1917, covering Eastern Europe, Northern Asia, and parts of North America. It was marked by extensive territorial expansion and a centralized autocratic government, reflecting both the ambitions and challenges of one of history's largest empires.

Service Industry Labor: Service Industry Labor refers to the workforce engaged in providing services rather than producing goods, encompassing various sectors such as hospitality, healthcare, education, and retail. This labor became increasingly important between 1750 and 1900 as industrialization transformed economies, leading to mass migration as people sought jobs in growing urban centers where service roles were in high demand. The expansion of cities and the rise of consumer culture further fueled the need for service workers.

Spanish Empire: The Spanish Empire was one of the first global empires, spanning from the late 15th century to the early 19th century. It played a pivotal role in the establishment of maritime trade networks and colonial territories across the Americas, Europe, Africa, and Asia. Its vast reach allowed for significant cultural exchanges, economic exploitation, and migrations that shaped world history during its height.

Trade Labor: Trade labor refers to the system of labor in which workers are skilled in specific trades or crafts, often involving manual or technical work. This form of labor became increasingly significant during the period from 1750 to 1900 as industrialization spread, leading to a demand for specialized skills in various industries. The growth of trade labor was closely linked to migration patterns, as people moved to urban centers seeking employment opportunities in factories and other sectors that required skilled workers.

Trans-Atlantic Slave Trade: The Trans-Atlantic Slave Trade was a brutal system of human trafficking that transported millions of enslaved Africans to the Americas between the 16th and 19th centuries. This trade was fueled by European demand for labor on plantations and in mines, significantly impacting migration patterns as people were forcibly moved across the ocean. The trade had profound social, economic, and environmental effects, shaping both African societies and the development of the New World.

Transportation: Transportation refers to the systems and methods used to move people, goods, and information from one place to another. Its evolution has profoundly influenced economic development, social structures, and patterns of migration throughout history.

Transportation Labor: Transportation labor refers to the various forms of labor involved in the movement of goods and people, particularly during the industrialization period from 1750 to 1900. This type of labor was crucial for facilitating migration, as improvements in transportation infrastructure like railroads and steamships significantly increased the mobility of individuals and goods, thus influencing patterns of migration and economic development.

United States Colonization: United States Colonization refers to the expansion and establishment of American territories and settlements across North America and later overseas, particularly during the 19th century. This process was driven by various factors including economic opportunities, the belief in Manifest Destiny, and the pursuit of new land, which ultimately led to significant demographic changes and migrations as people sought better lives in these newly acquired regions.

War and Conflict: War and conflict refer to organized, armed struggles between different groups or nations, often driven by political, economic, or social interests. Throughout history, such struggles have led to significant migration as people flee violence, seek safety, or are forced from their homes due to war-related destruction. The impact of war and conflict can reshape borders, create refugee crises, and alter demographics as populations move in search of stability and peace.

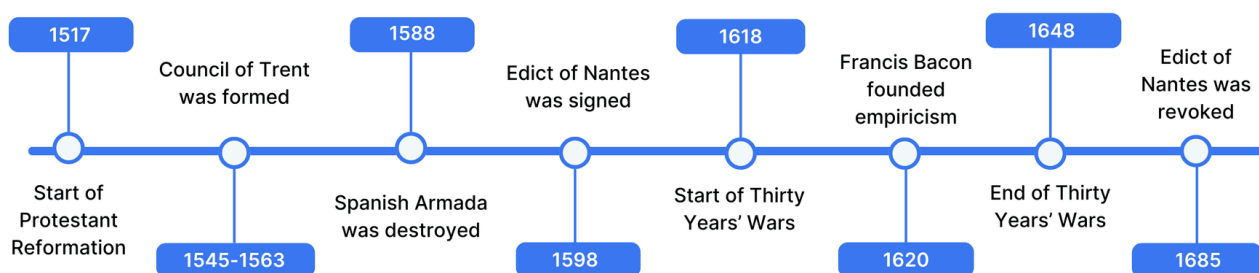
Water Transportation: Water transportation refers to the movement of people and goods across bodies of water using various vessels such as ships, boats, and barges. This mode of transportation played a crucial role in global trade and migration patterns from 1750 to 1900, connecting distant regions and facilitating economic expansion.

Topic 6.7 Effects of Migration

Main Idea

People typically migrated either to escape poverty or seek opportunities through the imperialist labor system, which included coerced labor. Due to the large amount of immigrants shifting throughout the world, ethnic groups were starting to rise in certain areas. Accordingly, ethnic enclaves maintained elements of peoples' culture and religion while being in a new area, and some even incorporated the new area's traditions. Coincidentally, many of these groups experienced fierce discrimination based on race and ethnicity.

Key Timeline



Timeline of major effects of immigration from 1750-1900

Things to Know

Changes in Home Societies

Most immigrants were male, as most women stayed home in the mother country, demonstrating a shift in demographics and gender roles.

Men often sent remittance (money from their jobs) to their homes, and if enough, women would take on less responsibility to focus more on time on family.

Effects of Migration on Receiving Societies

Chinese Enclaves

- Southeast Asia
 - Indo-China: The French forced Chinese immigrants to engage in commerce.
 - Malaya people managed opium farms and distribution for the British.

- Dutch East Indies had the Chinese immigrants work on colonial government duties.
- Many immigrants became business owners and traders, making money through family businesses, money lending, or international trade.
- The Chinese controlled trade in southeast Asia due to their significant presence during the 1800s.
- The Americas
 - Chinese people came to the US during the gold rush season, peaking in 1852.
 - Most worked in mines, but others had jobs in farms or San Francisco's garment industry.
 - In Peru and Cuba, railroad workers would most likely be Chinese, and some would be merchants or farm workers.
 - For example, some Persian foods contain Chinese ingredients!

Indian Enclaves

- Indians in Africa
 - Indians went to Mauritius islands and Natal to work on sugar plantations as indentured servants.
 - 32,000 indentured Indians were sent to Kenya to work on railroads, but only 7,000 chose to keep their jobs.
 - Hindus and Muslims both migrated. Initially, the Hindu caste system followed but slowly died down; however, the immigrants were still divided based on class, language, and religion.
 - The Indians were heavily discriminated against, and **Mohandas Gandhi** started up the **Natal Indian Congress** shortly after studying law for the purpose of equality towards Indians. In 1914, he continued his movement towards the British rule in India.
- Indians in Southeast Asia
 - The **Kangani system** helped entire families work on tea, coffee, and rubber plantations in Ceylon, Burma, and Malaya.
 - The advantages of the Kangani system included less restrictive lives than indentured servants and keeping in touch with family.
 - Before the Kangani system, around 6 million Indians migrated through the system.
- Indians in the Caribbean Region
 - The largest **ethnic enclaves** were in the Guyana and Trinidad and Tabago regions of the Caribbean Islands.
 - Many others with different nationalities had migrated to Caribbeans—their cultures' blended in with Indian culture and produced unique cuisine, film, and music.

Irish Enclaves

- Scotch-Irish people came to North America through indentured servantry, settling in northern cities.
- Irish immigrants moved to North America during the Great Famine; however, they still faced problems in America, including anti-immigrant activists and anti-Catholic sentiments.
- The Irish immigrant population started decreasing in the 1880s when the Great Famine ended.
- Women who came to America were looking for husbands—the men were unskilled laborers, and more than half became domestic servants.
- Second-generation Irish people were white-collar or blue-collar workers who became the idols of pop culture.
- The Irish implemented Saint Patrick's Day in North American culture. They also advocated for workers' rights through the spread of Catholicism and the forming of labor unions.

Italians in Argentina

- In the 18th and 19th centuries, America surpassed Argentina in the amount of migrating immigrants entering the country.
- Italian culture affected Argentinean culture in the late 19th and early 20th centuries. Over half of the immigrants moving to Argentina were Italian.
- Italians had moved to Argentina to live more comfortably; Argentina had good paying jobs, great fertile soil, and lower living costs than Italy.

Prejudice and Regulation of Immigration

Regulation in the United States

- In 1879, Californian nativists created a revised constitution that implemented ideas such as prohibiting the hiring of Chinese workers, preventing citizenship for the Chinese, and encouraging containing Chinese residents in certain areas.
- The **Chinese Exclusion Act** was made permanent in 1902. The act was initially for ten years. However, it continued until 1943.
- During the time the US excluded the Chinese immigrants, many of them were migrating towards Mexico. Porfirio Diaz, the president of Mexico, used immigration to increase Mexico's development.
- Most Chinese immigrants worked as farmers, shopkeepers, or manufacturers.

White Australia

- 1855: **Chinese Immigration Act**, which limited the number of Chinese people who could enter Australia through ships. However, if they went to Southern Australia, the act would not apply to them.
- Starting in December 1860, multiple attacks were performed on the Chinese by the New South Wales miners who were white. These attacks injured and killed many of the Chinese immigrants. The worst attack was on June 30, 1861.

- **Chinese Immigration Regulation and Restriction Act**, made by the New South Wales, was passed in November of 1861 and then repealed in 1867. At the end of the gold rush, New South Wales also passed **the Influx of Chinese Restriction Act**.
- Chinatowns began to form throughout Australia. However, most of the economic gain the Chinese were making was in the North Territory and northern Queensland regions. As the Chinese continued to work, resentment also increased; this resulted in anti-Chinese leagues.
- As the Chinese population declined, the leftover Chinese grouped in Melbourne and Sydney. The **White Australia Policy** preserved a white Australia that the British could rule, which was in effect until 1970.

Terms to Remember

Term	Definition + Significance
Ethnic Enclaves	Specific locations that contained people of the same ethnic group, religion, culture, and language.
Mohandas Gandhi	Came to Pretoria, South Africa, in 1893 and started the Natal Indian Congress. In 1914, when Gandhi returned to India, he continued fighting against discrimination.
Natal Indian Congress	Fought against Indian racism in South Africa, and further influenced Gandhi to fight against discrimination in India.
Kangani system	Families recruited to work in tea, coffee, and rubber plantations in either Ceylon, Burma, or Malaya, and was a replacement of the indentured servitude in Malaya.
Chinese Exclusion Act	Came after the revised constitution in 1876, which Nativists in California wanted. Was supposed to last a ten year period, however, it kept getting extended until 1943.
Chinese Immigration Act	Limited the amount of Chinese immigrants landing to Australia via the shoreline.
Influx of Chinese Restriction Act	Placed an entrance tax on newly immigrated Chinese people so migration into China would decrease.
White Australia Policy	Six British self-governing colonies joined, and the British wanted to make sure that they would have full control, so they passed the White Australia Policy in order to preserve a "white Australia".

Notes and Observations:

Notes and Observations:

	Civilization	Civilization	Civilization
SOCIAL Development & transformation of social structures			
POLITICAL Statebuilding			
INTERACTIONS Between humans & the environment			
CULTURAL Development & interaction of cultures			
ECONOMY Creation, expansion and interaction of economic systems			
TECHNOLOGY Adapting for efficiency, comfort, security, and technological advances			

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6.8 Causation in the Imperial Age

Imperialism between 1750 and 1900 transformed global political boundaries, labor systems, and economic relationships. Driven by industrial capitalism and ideas of cultural superiority, European and American powers expanded overseas empires across Africa, Asia, and the Pacific. This unit focuses on cause-and-effect relationships, with an emphasis on continuities and changes in global power structures, migration, and the global economy.

Introduction

Imperial expansion was caused by a complex mix of motivations: economic ambition, military strategy, missionary zeal, nationalism, and racism. Industrialization increased the demand for raw materials and markets, prompting powerful states to control distant lands. Colonized societies experienced profound disruption, as local economies were redirected toward imperial needs and local cultures were often repressed.

Imperialism's effects were not uniform. In some cases, colonized peoples resisted directly through rebellion. In others, migration patterns shifted, labor systems evolved, and global inequalities widened. Imperialism also sparked revolutions and the rise of new nation-states, altering the global order into the 20th century.

Standard of Living and Global Inequality

While the **Industrial Revolution** raised standards of living for many in Europe and North America, these improvements were unevenly distributed across the globe. Colonized regions often experienced a **decline in quality of life** as their economies were restructured to serve imperial powers.

Standard of Living: Causes and Effects

Region	Effects of Industrialization/Imperialism
Western Europe	Increased wages, consumer goods, and urban infrastructure
Colonized Africa	Forced labor, resource extraction, stagnation of local economies
India	Deindustrialization (esp. textiles), famine, railroads built for export
China	Economic disruption due to imperial spheres of influence

Continuity: Global inequality between imperial powers and colonies continued to grow, setting the stage for future independence movements and economic dependency.

Expansion Overseas and the Growth of Empire

Industrialization fueled the desire for raw materials, markets, and strategic control. Technological innovations—like steamships, railroads, and telegraphs—made long-distance

conquest and administration possible.

Key Causes of Overseas Expansion

Economic Interests: Secure access to rubber, cotton, palm oil, sugar, and minerals.

Strategic Competition: Establish naval bases and refueling stations along key routes.

Missionary Zeal: Convert colonized peoples to Christianity and impose Western education.

Racial Ideologies: Social Darwinism and white supremacy were used to justify conquest.

Nationalism: Empires brought prestige; expansion became a matter of national pride.

Change: By 1900, European empires dominated most of Africa and Asia, whereas in 1750, many regions remained independent.

Revolution and Rebellion

Imperialism and Enlightenment ideals inspired revolutions around the world. These movements challenged monarchies, colonial rule, and social hierarchies.

Major Revolutionary Movements and Their Causes

Region	Event	Cause	Effect
British North America	American Revolution	Taxation without representation	U.S. independence; spread of Enlightenment ideals
France	French Revolution	Economic hardship, inequality, Enlightenment ideas	End of monarchy; rise of nationalism
South America	Bolívar's Independence Wars	Colonial inequality, Enlightenment, Napoleonic Wars	Independence of Venezuela, Colombia, Peru, Bolivia
Brazil (Portuguese)	Peaceful separation (1822)	Portuguese royal family relocation	Creation of Brazilian Empire
India	Sepoy Rebellion (1857)	Religious tensions, British cultural imposition	End of East India Company; start of British Raj
China	Boxer Rebellion (1899–1901)	Anti-foreign, anti-Christian sentiment	Suppression of rebellion, further Qing weakening

Continuity: Despite revolutions, many new nation-states retained elite control and unequal social systems inherited from colonial regimes.

Migration and Discrimination

Imperialism and industrial capitalism triggered massive global migration. While some moved voluntarily in search of work, others were forcibly relocated through slavery, indentured servitude, or penal labor. These movements reshaped demographics and sparked intense social reactions in host societies.

Causes of Migration

Labor Demand: Workers needed in plantations, railroads, and mines.

Famine and Poverty: Irish Potato Famine, rural overpopulation in China and India.

Political Unrest: Revolutions and wars pushed people to migrate.

Indentured Labor Systems: Contracted workers from India and China to the Caribbean, Southeast Asia, and Africa.

Effects of Migration and Discrimination

Effect	Example
Ethnic Enclaves	Chinatowns in San Francisco; Indian merchants in East Africa
Discrimination and Exclusion	Chinese Exclusion Act (1882), White Australia Policy
Cultural Blending	Creole languages, mixed cuisines, fusion music and traditions
Labor Competition and Tension	Irish laborers vs. American workers; attacks on Asian communities
Increased Racism and Xenophobia	Scientific racism, eugenics, racial hierarchies justified in colonies

Change: Migration expanded dramatically in scale and diversity from the 18th to 19th centuries due to faster transport and imperial integration.

Conclusion

Imperialism in the period 1750–1900 had **far-reaching effects**: it shaped migration patterns, ignited revolutions, widened global inequality, and redrew political borders. Industrialization fueled the economic and technological power of imperial states, while colonized peoples resisted in various ways—from open revolt to subtle cultural survival. Understanding these **causes, effects, continuities, and changes** is key to grasping how modern global systems were formed.

Key Terms to Review

Agrarian Economy: An agrarian economy is a type of economic system primarily based on agriculture and farming as the main source of livelihood and wealth. This kind of economy emphasizes the cultivation of crops and the raising of livestock, with most people engaged in agricultural activities. The dynamics of an agrarian economy are closely tied to land ownership, labor practices, and agricultural innovations, influencing social structures and trade patterns.

American Revolution: The American Revolution was a colonial revolt against British rule that lasted from 1775 to 1783, resulting in the independence of the thirteen American colonies and the formation of the United States. This revolution was heavily influenced by Enlightenment ideas, leading to the establishment of democratic principles and the questioning of traditional authority.

Boxer Rebellion in China: The Boxer Rebellion was an anti-foreign, anti-Christian uprising that occurred in China between 1899 and 1901, led by a secret society known as the Boxers. This movement emerged in response to foreign imperialism and the socio-economic hardships faced by many Chinese, fueled by resentment towards Western powers and missionaries. The rebellion reflects the larger patterns of resistance against imperialist control during the Imperial Age.

British East India Company's Army: The British East India Company's Army was a military force established by the British East India Company in the 18th and 19th centuries to secure its interests in India. This army played a crucial role in both the expansion of British control over Indian territories and the enforcement of company rule, leading to significant political and social changes in the region during the imperial age.

British Raj: The British Raj refers to the period of British rule in India from 1858 to 1947, marked by the direct governance of India by the British Crown after the Indian Rebellion of 1857. This era significantly transformed Indian society, economy, and politics, while also showcasing the complexities and consequences of imperialism during the Imperial Age.

Colonization: Colonization is the process by which a country establishes control over a foreign territory and its people, often leading to the settlement of its own population and the exploitation of local resources. This practice significantly shaped global interactions and economies, resulting in profound cultural exchanges, changes in social structures, and resistance movements from indigenous populations.

Cost Decrease: Cost decrease refers to the reduction in the expenses associated with production, distribution, or provision of goods and services. This concept is crucial during the imperial age as it relates to advancements in technology, transportation, and communication, which all contributed to making goods more affordable and accessible, thus influencing trade patterns and economic relationships between empires and their colonies.

Culture Development: Culture development refers to the evolution and transformation of cultural practices, beliefs, and expressions over time, influenced by various social, political, and economic factors. This concept connects to the ways in which imperial expansion and colonialism shaped and redefined cultures across different regions, as diverse societies interacted, assimilated, or resisted external influences during the imperial age.

Development New Industries: The development of new industries refers to the emergence and growth of different sectors within an economy that often leads to innovation, technological advancements, and changes in social and economic structures. This transformation can be seen during the Imperial Age, where industrialization not only fueled economic growth but also influenced imperial policies, global trade, and social relations between colonizers and colonized nations.

Disruption of Traditional Societies: Disruption of Traditional Societies refers to the significant changes and upheavals that traditional social structures and cultural norms experienced, often due to external influences like imperial expansion, industrialization, and globalization. This term highlights how colonization, economic transformation, and technological advancements challenged existing ways of life, leading to social dislocation and conflict as societies struggled to adapt to new realities.

Disease Spread: Disease spread refers to the transmission of infectious diseases among populations, particularly in the context of global interactions and movements during the Imperial Age. This phenomenon was significantly influenced by trade, colonization, and the exchange of goods and people, leading to profound impacts on demographics, economies, and societies. The movement of diseases often accompanied explorers, traders, and colonizers, reshaping health landscapes across continents and contributing to significant mortality rates in

vulnerable populations.

Displacement and Genocide of Indigenous Peoples: Displacement and genocide of Indigenous peoples refer to the forced removal and systematic extermination of native populations, primarily driven by imperial expansion and colonial policies. This phenomenon is closely tied to the violent encounters between European settlers and Indigenous communities, leading to devastating consequences for native cultures, social structures, and populations.

Discrimination and Racism: Discrimination refers to the unjust treatment of individuals based on characteristics such as race, gender, age, or religion, while racism specifically involves prejudice, discrimination, or antagonism directed against individuals of different races based on the belief that one's own race is superior. In the context of the Imperial Age, these concepts were used to justify colonial practices and the subjugation of various peoples across the globe.

Economic Growth: Economic growth refers to the increase in the production of goods and services in an economy over time, typically measured by the rise in real Gross Domestic Product (GDP). This concept is closely linked to trade, technological advancements, and imperial expansion, as these elements often drive the demand for goods and services and facilitate the flow of resources.

Economic Opportunities Migration: Economic Opportunities Migration refers to the movement of people from one place to another in search of better economic prospects, such as jobs, higher wages, or improved living conditions. This type of migration is often driven by the disparities in economic development between regions and can lead to significant demographic and cultural changes in both the places people leave and those they move to.

Enfield Rifle: The Enfield Rifle refers to a series of bolt-action rifles developed by the British military, most notably the .577/.450 caliber Martini-Henry and the later .303 caliber Lee-Enfield. This weapon became significant during the Imperial Age due to its role in British military expansion and colonial conflicts, highlighting technological advancements in weaponry and their impacts on warfare strategies.

Enslaved Africans: Enslaved Africans were individuals forcibly taken from their homelands and subjected to a life of slavery, primarily during the transatlantic slave trade from the 16th to the 19th centuries. This system of forced labor became a cornerstone of colonial economies, particularly in the Americas, where enslaved people were exploited for agricultural production and other labor-intensive industries.

Estates-General: The Estates-General was a legislative assembly in France representing the three estates of the realm: the clergy, the nobility, and the common people. This assembly was crucial in the context of political and social tensions leading up to the French Revolution, as it provided a platform for various social classes to voice their grievances and influence governmental policies.

Expansion Overseas: Expansion overseas refers to the process by which European powers extended their influence and control beyond their borders to establish colonies and trade networks across the globe, particularly during the Age of Imperialism. This expansion was driven by economic interests, competition among nations, and a belief in the superiority of European culture and civilization, leading to significant political, social, and economic changes worldwide.

Exploitation of Indigenous Peoples: The exploitation of Indigenous Peoples refers to the systematic use and abuse of the resources, labor, and cultures of native populations by colonial powers and later capitalist entities. This process was often justified through ideologies of superiority and manifest destiny, resulting in significant social, economic, and cultural disruptions for Indigenous communities during the imperial age.

Forced Labor: Forced labor refers to work that people are compelled to perform against their will, often under threat of punishment or coercion. This practice has been utilized throughout history, particularly during imperial expansion, as colonizers sought to exploit local populations for economic gain and resource extraction, reflecting underlying power dynamics and rationales for domination.

Formation of New Ethnic Enclaves: The formation of new ethnic enclaves refers to the establishment of distinct communities where individuals of similar ethnic backgrounds live

closely together, often resulting from migration patterns, economic opportunities, or social networks. This phenomenon can significantly influence cultural interactions and relationships in areas affected by imperial expansion, creating unique socio-economic dynamics as diverse groups coalesce in specific regions.

France: France is a country in Western Europe known for its rich history, cultural influence, and significant role in global events. Throughout history, France has been a major player in political, social, and economic changes, impacting areas such as industrialization, imperialism, world wars, and decolonization.

French Revolution: The French Revolution was a period of radical social and political upheaval in France from 1789 to 1799, which profoundly affected French and global history. It marked the end of absolute monarchy, the rise of democratic ideals, and the emergence of nationalism, influencing revolutions around the world.

Global Economy: The global economy refers to the interconnected economic activities and markets that span across nations, involving the exchange of goods, services, labor, and capital. This concept emphasizes how economic conditions in one country can influence others, highlighting the significance of trade networks, financial systems, and multinational corporations in shaping economic relationships worldwide.

Goods Availability Increase: Goods Availability Increase refers to the rise in the accessibility and distribution of products and resources during the imperial age, facilitated by advancements in trade networks and colonial exploitation. This increase allowed empires to bolster their economies, meet consumer demands, and establish greater control over global markets, leading to profound socio-economic changes across regions and cultures.

Great Britain: Great Britain is an island nation located off the northwestern coast of mainland Europe, consisting of England, Scotland, and Wales. Its historical influence shaped global political, economic, and cultural landscapes, particularly during periods of nationalism, imperialism, and industrialization.

Imposition of Western Culture: The imposition of Western culture refers to the process by which Western nations and societies, particularly during the imperial age, spread their cultural values, beliefs, and practices to other regions of the world. This often involved colonization, where Western powers exerted control over non-Western societies, leading to significant social, political, and economic changes.

Imperialism: Imperialism is the policy or practice of extending a country's power and influence through diplomacy or military force. It often involves the domination of one nation over another, which can lead to the exploitation of resources and people, shaping global politics, economics, and cultures in significant ways.

Indian Rebellion of 1857: The Indian Rebellion of 1857, also known as the Sepoy Mutiny, was a significant uprising against British rule in India that marked a turning point in colonial history. It was fueled by a mix of resentment towards British policies, cultural insensitivity, and economic exploitation, leading to widespread violence and the temporary establishment of a self-proclaimed Mughal Empire.

Industrialization: Industrialization refers to the process of transforming economies from primarily agricultural to industrial, marked by the growth of factories, mass production, and advancements in technology. This transformation significantly influenced social, economic, and political structures worldwide, especially during the 18th and 19th centuries.

Industrial Revolution: The Industrial Revolution was a transformative period that began in the late 18th century, marked by the transition from agrarian economies to industrialized ones, primarily driven by technological innovations and changes in production methods. This shift had profound impacts on social structures, economies, and the global landscape, influencing responses to industrialization, societal changes, and the expansion of imperialism.

Loss of Sovereignty: Loss of sovereignty refers to the decline of a state's authority and independence, often resulting from external pressures or interventions by foreign powers. During the imperial age, many regions experienced this loss as imperial powers expanded their influence through colonization, economic dominance, and military intervention, leading to a

significant transformation in local governance and societal structures.

Migration and Discrimination: Migration refers to the movement of people from one place to another, often in search of better opportunities, while discrimination involves unfair treatment based on characteristics such as race, ethnicity, or nationality. During the imperial age, these two concepts were closely interconnected, as colonial expansion often led to significant migration of populations, which in turn resulted in discrimination against certain groups seen as outsiders or inferior by colonizers. This interplay shaped social dynamics and contributed to tensions within societies undergoing imperial rule.

Napoleon Bonaparte: Napoleon Bonaparte was a French military leader and emperor who rose to prominence during the French Revolution and its associated wars. His rule marked a significant turning point in European history, as he expanded French territory and influence across Europe while implementing reforms that shaped modern statehood, governance, and legal systems.

Native People Displacement: Native People Displacement refers to the forced removal or relocation of indigenous populations from their ancestral lands, often as a result of colonial expansion, imperial policies, and economic exploitation. This displacement has had profound social, cultural, and economic impacts on native communities, leading to loss of identity, traditional practices, and access to resources.

Overpopulation Migration: Overpopulation migration refers to the movement of large groups of people from one region to another due to excessive population growth in their original areas. This phenomenon often arises in response to challenges like scarcity of resources, environmental degradation, and economic hardship, which push individuals and families to seek better opportunities elsewhere. It plays a critical role in shaping demographics, economies, and social structures during periods of imperial expansion and transformation.

Overthrowing Monarchy: Overthrowing monarchy refers to the process of removing a monarch from power, often through revolution, rebellion, or political upheaval. This act is usually driven by popular discontent with the ruling authority and can lead to significant changes in governance and societal structure, particularly during periods of imperial expansion and colonial influence.

Pedro I: Pedro I was the founder and first ruler of the Empire of Brazil, reigning from 1822 until his abdication in 1831. He played a crucial role in Brazil's independence from Portugal, showcasing how individual leadership influenced the larger movements of nationalism and imperialism during this era.

Political Instability Migration: Political Instability Migration refers to the movement of people from one region or country to another due to political unrest, conflict, or instability within their home country. This type of migration often occurs during periods of imperial expansion or decline, where governance challenges can lead to human displacement and resettlement, significantly impacting both sending and receiving regions.

Political Power Structure Changes: Political power structure changes refer to significant transformations in how power is distributed and exercised within a political system. During the Imperial Age, these changes often arose from shifts in governance, colonial expansion, and responses to social and economic pressures. Such transformations reshaped the relationships between rulers and the ruled, influenced political ideologies, and altered the dynamics of empire-building and control.

Portugal: Portugal was a pioneering maritime nation in the 15th and 16th centuries, known for its exploration, trade, and the establishment of an extensive colonial empire. As one of the first European powers to engage in overseas exploration, Portugal played a crucial role in shaping global trade networks and cultural exchanges during the Age of Discovery.

Poverty Increase: Poverty Increase refers to the rise in the number of individuals and families living below the poverty line, often resulting from economic downturns, social inequality, and imperial exploitation during the Imperial Age. This phenomenon was influenced by factors such as colonial policies, resource extraction, and the disruption of local economies, leading to a widening gap between the wealthy and the impoverished populations in various regions.

Religious or Ethnic Persecution Migration: Religious or Ethnic Persecution Migration refers to the movement of individuals or groups who flee their homes due to discrimination, violence, or hostility based on their religious beliefs or ethnic identity. This phenomenon has been a significant consequence of various imperial expansions and conflicts, leading to demographic shifts and cultural changes across regions during the Imperial Age. The migrations often resulted from oppressive regimes seeking to enforce conformity and suppress diversity, impacting social structures and economies in both sending and receiving areas.

Revolution and Rebellion: Revolution and rebellion refer to movements aimed at overthrowing an established authority, typically a government or regime, in order to create significant change in social, political, or economic structures. These phenomena are often driven by discontent among the populace, motivated by factors such as oppression, inequality, and the desire for greater autonomy or rights, and they play crucial roles in shaping historical narratives during the imperial age.

Rise of Democracy: The Rise of Democracy refers to the gradual shift from autocratic and monarchic systems of governance towards more representative forms of government characterized by increased citizen participation, civil liberties, and the rule of law. This movement gained momentum during the imperial age, fueled by Enlightenment ideas, social changes, and revolutions that challenged traditional authority and sought to establish political systems based on popular sovereignty and human rights.

Simon Bolivar: Simon Bolivar was a South American revolutionary leader who played a key role in the independence movements of several Latin American countries from Spanish rule in the early 19th century. Known as 'El Libertador', he is celebrated for his vision of a united Latin America, reflecting the rise of nationalism and the push for independence during this period of revolutions.

Society of Righteous and Harmonious Fists: The Society of Righteous and Harmonious Fists, commonly known as the Boxer Rebellion, was a Chinese secret society that emerged in the late 19th century, advocating for resistance against foreign imperialism and Christian missionary activities. The group believed in traditional Chinese culture and sought to protect their country from foreign influence, which they viewed as corrupting and damaging to China's sovereignty.

South Asia and Sepoy Rebellion: South Asia refers to the region encompassing India, Pakistan, Bangladesh, Nepal, Bhutan, Sri Lanka, and the Maldives. The Sepoy Rebellion, also known as the Indian Rebellion of 1857, was a major uprising against British rule in India, which significantly impacted the dynamics of imperialism in South Asia. This rebellion exemplified the growing resentment towards colonial authority and contributed to significant changes in British policies and governance in the region.

Spain: Spain was a prominent European nation that emerged as a global power from the late 15th century, particularly following the unification of the Crown of Castile and the Crown of Aragon. It played a pivotal role in establishing maritime empires, colonizing vast territories in the Americas, and significantly influencing global trade, culture, and politics during the early modern period.

Spanish and Portuguese in South America: The Spanish and Portuguese in South America refers to the colonial powers that established vast empires in the continent during the Age of Exploration, significantly impacting the culture, economy, and political landscape of the region. Their colonization efforts led to the spread of Christianity, the exploitation of indigenous peoples, and the establishment of a transatlantic slave trade, fundamentally shaping South America's demographics and societal structures.

Spread of Capitalism: The Spread of Capitalism refers to the expansion of capitalist economic systems across the globe, particularly from the 16th to the 20th century. This economic model is characterized by private ownership of production, competitive markets, and profit-driven enterprises, leading to significant social and economic transformations. The spread influenced trade patterns, colonialism, and global interactions during the Imperial Age.

Standard of Living: Standard of living refers to the level of wealth, comfort, material goods, and necessities available to a certain socioeconomic class or geographic area. It encompasses

various factors including income, employment, class disparity, poverty rate, and access to services such as education and healthcare. The standard of living is critical in understanding the economic and social transformations that occurred during industrialization and imperialism, revealing how these changes affected various populations differently.

Trade Expansion: Trade Expansion refers to the significant increase in commerce and exchange of goods, services, and cultural practices between different regions and nations during the Imperial Age. This period saw the establishment of trade routes, the rise of mercantilism, and the interconnectedness of global economies, leading to both economic growth and cultural exchange.

Treaty of Paris: The Treaty of Paris refers to a series of agreements that ended the American Revolutionary War and established peace between Great Britain and the United States. This treaty not only recognized American independence but also defined borders and established rights for both countries, marking a pivotal moment in the context of the Imperial Age.

United States: The United States is a federal republic established in 1776, formed from thirteen British colonies in North America. It has been a significant player in global politics, economics, and culture, influencing various movements related to nationalism, industrialization, and international conflicts throughout its history.

Wage Rise: Wage rise refers to an increase in the amount of money paid to workers for their labor, often influenced by economic conditions, labor demands, and government policies. During the Imperial Age, wage rises were critical as they reflected broader economic trends and the changing dynamics of labor relations, especially in industrialized nations and colonies.

Weakening of Traditional Economies: The weakening of traditional economies refers to the decline and disruption of local economic systems that have relied on agriculture, handicrafts, and local trade due to the expansion of imperial powers and global market forces. This shift often resulted in dependence on foreign goods and markets, undermining local industries and livelihoods while promoting economic changes that favored imperial interests.

"Truth in art is the unity of a thing with itself: the outward rendered expressive of the inward: the soul made incarnate: the body instinct with spirit. For this reason there is no truth comparable to sorrow."

~Oscar Wilde. A poet and playwright from Dublin, Ireland.

Notes and Observations:

UNIT 7

Global Conflict 1900-Present



WORLD WARS

A variety of causes led the world to two different world wars. New technologies created devastating effects and resulted in new countries and political boundaries.

ECONOMIC CRISIS

Following World War I and the Great Depression, economic crisis was felt globally. Governments tried a variety of ways to control or bolster their national economies from stimulus spending with the New Deal in the US to state supported initiatives like the 5 Year Plans in Russia and China.



MASS ATROCITIES

Extremist groups attempted to cause the destruction of certain populations of people both during the world wars and following them.

The Armenians, Chinese, Jews, Tutsis and many more groups were targeted with ethnic violence and genocide.



1- USA 2 -Mexico 3- European States 4-USSR 5- China 6-Japan
7 -Armenian Genocide 8- Holocaust 9-Nanjing Massacre 0 - Rwandan Genocide

UNIT SEVEN: GLOBAL CONFLICT, c. 1750 to c. 1900

CAUSES AND CONSEQUENCES OF WORLD WAR I

Many of the traditional land-based empires that had flourished up to 1900, such as the **Ottoman Empire**, the **Russian Empire**, and the **Qing Empire**, floundered in the 20th century. Many empires faced internal and external challenges, such as the Russian Revolution. These struggling empires turned to a flawed alliance system to try to shore up their global positions. In the short term, this alliance system created a tenuous stability throughout Eurasia. However, this short-term peace came at a cost because countries found themselves dragged into World War I to defend their allies and hold up their end of complex diplomatic treaties. World War I was a total war that required each country to completely commit to the conflict, both on the battlefield and on the home front. New technologies, like gas weaponry and airplanes, led to high casualty levels.



European countries formed military alliances that created the conditions for World War I (1914-1919).

ECONOMY AND UNRESOLVED TENSIONS IN THE INTERWAR PERIOD



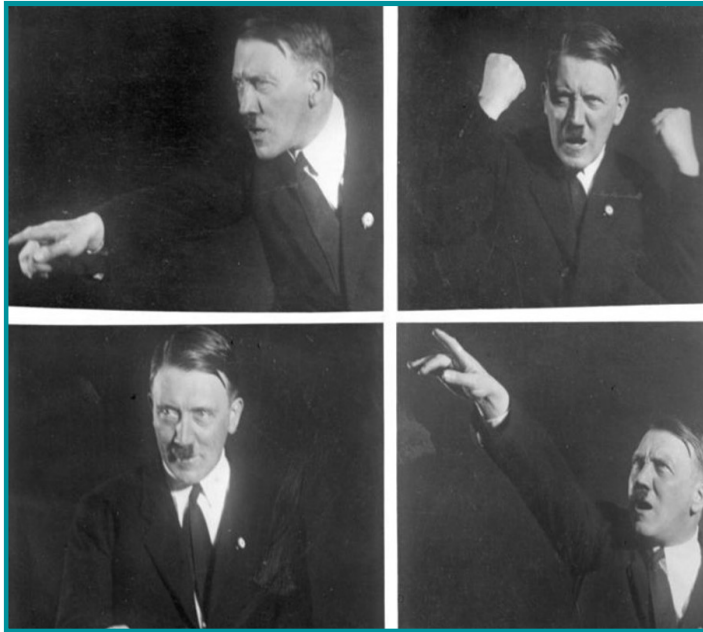
This poster from the Soviet Five Year Plan reads "The arithmetic of an industrial-financial counter-plan: 2 + 2 plus the enthusiasm of the workers = 5."

Following World War I, the nations of the world were forced to grapple simultaneously with the devastation of the conflict and the economic volatility of the **Great Depression**. Some governments responded by taking a more active role to pull their countries out of the post-war slump. For example, the Soviet Union pushed through a series of aggressive **Five Year Plans** to force the country to industrialize rapidly in the hopes that they would be able to compete with the more industrial (and less war torn) countries of the West.

Some countries sought stability through colonies in the interwar period. Under the **League of Nations**, Germany's former colonies were parceled out to Great Britain and France—without regards to the will of the colonized people. Japan also increased its colonial holdings in the interwar period by carving out the "Greater East Asia Co-Prosperity Sphere" by occupying neighboring nations and installing puppet governments.

CAUSES AND CONSEQUENCES OF WORLD WAR II

In the short term, World War II was caused by a breakdown in the global political order that was brought on by the heady combination of global tension in the interwar period, frustrated imperial aspirations (especially on behalf of the Triple Alliance), and the Great Depression.



Adolf Hitler rose to power in Germany by appealing to nationalism.

From a longer-term perspective, these causes only led to another global conflict because they built on nascent and extreme ideas of nationalism. **Nationalism** led **fascist** and **totalitarian** regimes to pursue aggressive military agendas by convincing their citizenry that authoritarian governments were the only way to address the uncomfortable short-term realities of the interwar period. Just like in World War I, World War II was a **total war** in which governments utilized all of their available resources to wage war, including dedicating large budgets to the development of new military technologies.

MASS ATROCITIES AFTER 1900

Mass atrocities in the 20th century developed in disillusioned societies as people increasingly turned against minorities and blamed them for society's problems. In the case of the **Holocaust**, the **Nazi Party** rose to power in Germany by claiming that the Jewish people were responsible for Germany's economic and political problems. Eventually, this political platform targeting the Jewish people turned into the Holocaust, in which Jewish people, political dissidents, homosexuals, disabled persons, and anarchists were rounded up by the German government, sent to labor camps, and killed.



During the Holocaust, Jewish people were forced to wear yellow stars on their clothing to visually mark them off from the rest of the population. The text in this image reads "whoever wears this sign is an enemy of our people."

World War II: Causes (1919–1939)

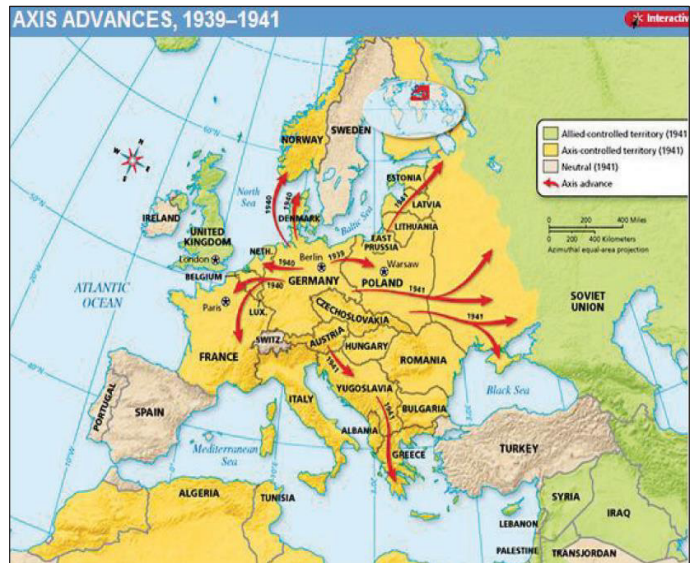
You Mean World War I Was Not “The War to End All Wars”?

Causes of World War II

The death and destruction of World War I was so horrible that it was called “the war to end all wars.” Yet, the agreement to end World War I did not resolve the problems of the world and, according to some historians, lead directly to the next catastrophe: World War II. The major causes of World War II were numerous. They include the impact of the Treaty of Versailles following WWI, the worldwide economic depression, failure of **appeasement**, the rise of **militarism** in Germany and Japan, and the failure of the League of Nations.

Treaty of Versailles

Following World War I, the victorious Allied Powers met to decide Germany’s future. Germany would be forced to sign the Treaty of Versailles. Germany had to accept **total responsibility for the war** and pay massive **reparations** (compensation in money) to the Allies. Germany **lost territory** in Europe, all of its colonies and was forbidden from having a large military (**demilitarization**).



Map of Germany's advancement
Source: <http://mrshealyhistoryclass.wikispaces.com/file/view/WWIIMapEurope%231.JPG/316812366/530x381/WWIIMapEurope%231.JPG>

The Great Depression

The whole world was hit by an economic depression in the 1930s. In a depression, economies shrink, trade is reduced, businesses close, prices fall, banks fail, and unemployment rises. Sometimes, during a depression, people look for a strong political leader to resolve their problems. In 1933, Adolf Hitler became the leader of Germany by promising to restore German wealth and power and end German suffering.

Germany's Militarism/Imperialism

Hitler immediately began secretly building up Germany's army and weapons. Although Britain and France knew of Hitler's actions, they thought a stronger Germany would stop the spread of Communism from Russia. In 1936, Hitler ordered German troops to enter the German-speaking areas of the Rhineland (France), Austria, and Czechoslovakia. At this point neither France nor Britain was prepared to go to war. In 1936, Hitler made **alliances** with Italy and Japan. The military alliance of Germany, Italy, and Japan was called the **Axis Powers**.



British Prime Minister Chamberlain holding up the Munich Peace Agreement
Source: <http://www.historyonthenet.com/WW2/causes.htm#agreement%20with%20Hitler%20in%201938>

Failure of Appeasement

Appeasement meant agreeing to the demands of another nation in order to avoid conflict. During the 1930s, politicians in Britain and France began to believe that the Treaty of Versailles was unfair to Germany and that Hitler's actions were understandable and justifiable. This belief, adopted by Britain, was the Policy of Appeasement. An example of appeasement was the **Munich Agreement** of September 1938. In the Agreement, Britain and France allowed Germany to annex areas in Czechoslovakia where German-speakers lived. Germany agreed not to invade the rest of Czechoslovakia or any other country. In March 1939, Germany broke its promise and invaded the rest of Czechoslovakia. Neither Britain nor France was prepared to take military action. Then, on September 1, 1939, German troops invaded Poland. Britain and France immediately declared war on Germany. World War II had begun in Europe.

Failure of the League of Nations

The League of Nations was an international organization set up in 1919 to keep world peace. It was intended that all countries would be members and that if there were disputes between countries, they could be settled by negotiation rather than by force. The League of Nations was a good idea, but ultimately a failure. Not all countries joined the league (including the US!) and the League had no army to stop military aggression such as Italy's invasion of Ethiopia or Japan's invasion of Manchuria in China.

Japan's Militarism/Imperialism

In 1931, Japan was hit badly by the economic depression. Japanese people lost faith in the government. They turned to the army in order to find a solution to their economic problems. In order to produce more goods, Japan needed natural resources for its factories. The Japanese army invaded China, an area rich in minerals and resources. China asked for help from the League of Nations. Japan ignored the League of Nations and continued to occupy China and Korea. As Japan invaded other areas of South East Asia including Vietnam, the United States grew concerned about its territories in Asia, such as the Philippines and Guam. Japan felt that its expansion could be threatened by the United States military and attacked Pearl Harbor, Hawaii, in December 1941. World War II had begun in Asia.



Newspaper Reporting Pearl Harbor Attack
Source: <https://vintages-antiques-collectibles.knoji.com/ten-valuable-old-historical-newspapers/>

Other Factors to Keep in Mind

Allied Powers

Britain and France were both major imperial powers and this brought them into conflict with Japan in Southeast Asia and Germany in North Africa (among other places). Britain and France wanted to maintain their power over other countries.

The USA was a new imperial power and its influence was expanding. It came into conflict over territory with Japan in the Pacific.

Canada

Canada was a settler colony of the British Empire and most English Canadians (and leaders) supported British imperialism.

As we shall see, some Canadian leaders were also racist and sympathetic with Hitler's policies.

Blame Game

As in World War I, most of the blame for World War II has been placed on Germany. It's true that German expansion was a chief cause of WWII. However, Allied powers share blame for causing the war and committing war crimes during it.

We should avoid seeing WWII as "good guys" vs. "bad guys." It is much more complicated.

AP World History

“Must Know” Vocabulary Terms by Period/ Era

1914/1900 - Present

Anti-imperialism	Government intervention in the economy (New Deal, Fascist corporatist economy, economic development, export-oriented economies)	New forms of spirituality (Hare Krishna, Falun Gong)
Anti-Semitism	Great Depression	Nonviolence (Non-Aligned Movement, Anti-Apartheid Movement)
Apartheid	Green/environmental movements (e.g. Greenpeace, Green Belt in Kenya, Earth Day)	nuclear weaponry
Appeasement	Green Revolution	OPEC
Application of religion to political issues (Fundamentalist movements, Liberation Theology)	Greenhouse gases	Pacific Rim
Authoritarianism/Authoritarian regimes	Holocaust	Perestroika
Bedouin	Home countries	Popular culture (Dada, Socialist Realism)
Biafra secessionist movement	Human rights (e.g. U.N. Universal Declaration of Human Rights, Women’s rights, end of the White Australia Policy)	Population resettlements/partition
Chemically & genetically enhanced forms of agriculture	Imperial metropolises	Propaganda
Cold War	Indian National Congress	proxy wars
Collectivization	intensified conflict (military dictatorship, New World Order, “military-industrial complex,” arms trading)	Québécois separatist movement
Communism (Five-Year Plans, Great Leap Forward)	League of Nations	Redistribute land and resources
Consumerism	Mandates	Refugee
Containment	Medical innovations (polio vaccine, antibiotics, artificial heart)	populations/displacement of peoples
Cultural convergence	Militarized states	Regional trade agreements or blocs (e.g. European Union, NAFTA, ASEAN)
Cultural Identities (Pan-Africanism, Pan-Arabism, pan-Slavism, Negritude)	Mobilization of a state’s resources (Gurkha, ANZAC, Military conscription)	Religious fundamentalism
Decolonization	Movements who challenged the war (anti-nuclear movement, self-immolation)	Scientific paradigms (theory of relativity, Quantum mechanics, Big Bang theory, Psychology)
Deforestation	<i>Mujahideen/Taliban</i>	Segregation
Desertification	Multinational/Trans-national corporations (e.g. Royal Dutch Shell, Coca-Cola, Sony)	Self-determination
Dissolution	NATO	soviets
Domestic (not having to do with the home!)	New economic institutions (International Monetary Fund (IMF), World Bank, World Trade Organization (WTO))	superpowers
Draft		tactics (trench warfare, firebombing)
Economic liberalization		Technological stagnation
Exclusionary reactions (Xenophobia, Race riots, Citizenship restrictions)		Terrorism
Fascism		Third World/developing world
feminism		“total wars”/World Wars
Five-Year Plans		Totalitarianism
Free market economics/policies		United Nations
Free Trade		Warsaw Pact
Genocide		Women’s emancipation/suffrage
Glasnost		
Global warming		

WWI and America's Rise as a Superpower

By Hans Hoyng

America's rise to superpower status began with its 1917 entry into World War I. President Woodrow Wilson had grand visions for the peace that followed, but failed. The battle he started in the US between idealists and realists continues to this day.

"Sarajevo, 21st-century version." This is how political scientist Anne-Marie Slaughter, the director of policy planning under former Secretary of State Hillary Clinton, refers to what is currently brewing off the Chinese coast, where the territorial claims of several nations overlap.

The analogy to the period prior to the outbreak of World War I is striking. China, "the Germany of (that) time," as American historian Robert Kagan puts it, is the emergent world power still seeking to define its role within the global community. At the same time, China is staking its claim to natural resources, intimidating its neighbors and developing massive naval power to secure its trade routes.

In taking these steps, China could easily become a rival to another world power, the United States of America, which would assume the role once played by Great Britain in this historical comparison. Just as the United Kingdom did at the time, the United States is now building alliances with its rival's neighbors. And leaders in Beijing have responded to such attempts to encircle their country with a similar sense of outrage as that displayed by the German Reich.

The current crisis in the East China Sea illustrates once again that there are still lessons to be learned from World War I a century after it began and, upon closer inspection, that politicians on both sides are trying to avoid making the same mistakes. But the current crisis in East Asia diverges from the situation leading up to World War I in one important respect: There is currently no country able to assume the role once played by the United States, which, with its late entry into the war, decided its outcome and eventually outpaced both its winners and losers.

The US's entry into the war in 1917 marked the beginning of its path to becoming a world power. In fact, according to historian Herfried Münkler, this was precisely the goal of some politicians in Washington. Treasury Secretary William Gibbs McAdoo, a son-in-law of President Woodrow Wilson, was already forging plans to replace the pound sterling with the dollar as the foremost international reserve currency.

The Nerve Center of the World

But his father-in-law, a lawyer and political scientist, and America's only president to enter politics after serving as the president of a university, had no such prosaic intentions. Wilson, the descendent of Scottish Presbyterians and a staunch idealist, and yet down-to-earth and in many respects, such as his racism, a son of the South, wanted to save the world and end war once and for all.

He failed, of course, with peace lasting only 20 years after World War I. Nevertheless, American politicians today justify military intervention with the same arguments Wilson used to convince the country to put an end to its isolation and intervene in Europe.

But Wilson managed to draw America's attention back to Europe. For the next century, the old continent was more or less at the center of American policy. Only today -- under a president who, like Wilson, was awarded the Nobel Peace Prize and has a penchant for idealism and stirring speeches -- is Europe apparently sinking into the background once again as Washington responds to the allure of dynamic Asia.

Back then, though, Europe was the nerve center of the world. By the end of 1916, the war had claimed the lives of millions of soldiers, and the warring parties seemed incapable of bringing it to an end. Wilson no other option than to enter the conflict. On Jan. 22, 1917, he explained his ideas about peace to the US Senate. It was the duty of the United States, he said, to help build a structure for permanent peace.

Wilson argued that goal of the war had to be the establishment of "community power" and not a "balance of power," and to achieve "organized common peace" instead of "organized rivalries." In other words, only a "peace without victory" could bring the war in Europe to an end.

In his speech, Wilson staked out his position within the fundamental conflict that characterized American foreign policy at the time. On the one side were the "realists," who believed that America's most important task was to balance the interests of different countries to achieve the most stable equilibrium possible.

Light into the Darkness

The other side consisted of idealists; it was an approach which would later be named after Wilson himself. "Wilsonian foreign policy" is premised on the notion, established in the Puritan days of the founding fathers, that the United States should emulate the Biblical city on the hill, a role model for all other nations. The country has a mission to fulfill: that of bringing light into the darkness of bondage and dependency.

Wilson managed to win over a majority in Congress with his fiery speech. Senator Ben Tillman described it as "the most startling and noblest utterance that has fallen from human lips since the Declaration of Independence." The *New York Times* called it a "moral transformation" of American policy.

The Germans, who had not been opposed to the idea of peace talks until then, responded nine days later with the resumption of unlimited submarine warfare. When his private secretary, Joseph Tumulty, brought him the news, Wilson's face became pale, and he said: "This means war."

Wilson was inaugurated into his second term on March 5, 1917. The man who had not mentioned foreign policy at all in his inaugural address four years earlier now had only one subject on his mind: war. "We are provincials no longer," he assured his listeners, noting that the struggle for Europe had made the Americans "citizens of the world." Finally, less than a month later, he asked Congress to declare war on Germany. America, he said, was fighting to liberate the peoples of the world, including the Germans. And then he uttered a sentence that US presidents have used again and again to justify military intervention -- no one more clearly and with less credibility than George W. Bush on the eve of the Iraq invasion. "The world must be made safe for democracy," Wilson said.

After the Bolsheviks had overthrown the czarist regime in Russia, Wilson spoke of a war between democracy and the forces of absolutism. German historian Karl Dietrich Erdmann characterized 1917 as an "epochal year in world history." Washington's entry into the war and the October Revolution in Russia, Erdmann argues, ensured that Europe had lost its role as the principal player in world history.

But Wilson was surprised by the positive reception his speech received. "My message today was a message of death for our young men," he told his loyal secretary, Tumulty. "How strange it seems to applaud that." Then the president laid his head on the table and "sobbed as if he was a child," Tumulty reported.

Hearts and Minds

The German general staff had appraised American military strength as being somewhere "between Belgium and Portugal." It wasn't incorrect, but it failed to account for the speed with which the rising industrial power could unleash additional forces. Wilson initially mobilized the navy to counter the threat from German submarines. He was also able to confiscate 97 German and Austrian ships in US ports, which were then used to transport 40,000 soldiers to Europe. About two million more "doughboys" would follow by the fall of 1918.

Wilson made New York financier Bernard Baruch one of his top advisers. Baruch and his associates, recruited from the top ranks of industry, completed their tasks with breathtaking speed. The nominal economic output of the United States doubled between 1914 and 1918. German Field Marshall Paul von Hindenburg saw Baruch as the real victor over Germany.

Wilson also fought for the hearts and minds of his fellow Americans. To spread the "gospel of Americanism" to the last corners of the earth, the president set up what amounted to a globally active propaganda agency, the Committee for Public Information (CPI), headed by journalist George Creel. Two decades later, Nazi propaganda chief Joseph Goebbels was impressed by Creel's book, "How We Advertised America."

The Espionage Act of 1917 was less harmless. Only last year, it was dug up to justify the government's rigid position against disagreeable whistleblowers like Chelsea Manning and Edward Snowden. The law

gave the government far more powers than merely the ability to take foreign agents out of circulation. It gave the government the discretion to determine whether criticism of the war could be treated as high treason. Together with a later amendment, the Espionage Act of 1917 was a comprehensive attack on freedom of speech.

And Wilson, who had always supported liberal causes in domestic policy, took a ruthless approach to dissidents. Some 1,500 Americans were convicted of holding views that diverged from the government's war policy, including Eugene Debs, the presidential candidate of the Socialist Party. Wilson, the son of a minister, was extremely adept at hating. As David Lloyd George, Britain's wartime prime minister, would later say: "Wilson loved mankind but didn't like people."

A Triumphant Visit to Europe

Once a committed proponent of peace, Wilson had now become a prophet of war. At a rally in Baltimore, he called upon the troops to proceed with decisiveness and with "force, force to the utmost, force without stint or limit, the righteous and triumphant force which shall make right the law of the world and cast every selfish dominion down in the dust." He received the Nobel Peace Prize just two years later.

Although the British and the French implored the Americans to offset the losses in their own ranks with the fresh troops from overseas, the head of the American Expeditionary Forces, General John Pershing, insisted on keeping his army independent. He held back his soldiers until the early summer of 1918. Only after the last German offensives had exhausted themselves did the Americans intervene on a large scale, contributing decisively to pushing back the Germans.

In the 584 days of American involvement in the war, 116,516 American soldiers and sailors were killed, with about half dying in the 1918 Spanish flu pandemic, while 204,002 were wounded and 3,350 remained missing.

When the new German government, under then Chancellor Maximilian von Baden, offered the American president a ceasefire in early October, Wilson felt like a victor whose task was to reorganize the European nations. "We saved the world, and I do not intend to let those Europeans forget it," he said.

These were big words, but Wilson had good reason for his self-confidence. The United States emerged from World War I as the leading industrial power of the early 20th century. No other country had as much experience in the mass production of goods. After introducing general conscription, the country had developed a strong military, one that suffered far fewer losses than the British, the French and the Germans.

War to End All Wars

Furthermore, the European victorious powers owed the United States about \$10 billion. The exhausted Continent could not have survived without food shipments from the United States. German sociologist Max Weber wrote, somewhat clairvoyantly, that American global dominance was now "inevitable."

On Dec. 4, 1918, Wilson embarked on a triumphant voyage to Europe on board the *George Washington*. It was the first major European trip any American president ever took.

Wearing a bearskin coat, Wilson stood next to captain on the bridge and watched as he was cheered by people on passing ships. He was en route to Paris, where he and the other victorious powers planned to draft a document that was to guarantee one thing above all: The war, which had ended in the Nov. 11 ceasefire, was to become the "war to end all wars." This is how German historian Klaus Schwabe describes Wilson's dream: "Wilson was the first American president to place the United States, an emerging world power, in the service of a global order that replaced traditional, power-oriented rivalries with a sort of global domestic policy based on international law."

As a man who was promising freedom, self-determination and eternal peace, it was no surprise that he was welcomed and celebrated as a savior in Europe. Herbert Hoover, who would later become president and managed food exports to Europe under Wilson, wrote: "Woodrow Wilson had reached the zenith of intellectual and spiritual leadership of the whole world, never hitherto known in history."

His first stop was Paris. Edith Wilson, who was at her husband's side, as always, could hardly believe what she saw, noting: "Paris was wild with celebration. Every inch was covered with cheering, shouting humanity. The sidewalks, the buildings, even the stately horse-chestnut trees were peopled with men and boys perched like sparrows in their very tops. Roofs were filled, windows overflowed until one grew giddy trying to greet the bursts of welcome that came like the surging of untamed waters."

The loyal Hoover was equally enthusiastic, writing: "No such man of moral and political power and no such an evangel of peace had appeared since Christ preached the Sermon on the Mount. It was the star of Bethlehem rising again."

'The God of Peace'

The Wilsons' second stop was London. They had been warned that the British would undoubtedly behave with more reserve during the first official visit of an American president. Prime Minister Lloyd George viewed Wilson with some mistrust, rightfully assuming that this new power posed a greater threat to the future of the British Empire than the German Empire had ever done. Nevertheless, Wilson was greeted with as much applause in London as on the streets in Paris. Shortly after they had arrived in their rooms in Buckingham Palace, King George V and Queen Mary sent a message to the presidential couple that the crowd outside the palace had grown so large that they would have to make a joint appearance on the balcony.

Rome, stop three, was the apotheosis. The Wilsons were showered with white roses. Wilson's bodyguard, Secret Service agent Edmund Starling, wrote: "The reception in Rome exceeded anything I have ever seen in all my years of witnessing public demonstrations. The people literally hailed the President as a god -- the God of Peace."

Germany's hopes also rested on Wilson at the time. The conditions of a ceasefire were to be negotiated on the basis of Wilson's Fourteen Points, in which he hoped to achieve liberal principles within a global framework. All people were to have the right of self-determination. The plan included restrictions on arms for all of Europe. But for Wilson, the most important point was the creation of a League of Nations, a group equipped with full powers and designed to guarantee peace.

There were, of course, plenty of politicians who poked fun at Wilson's idealism. French Prime Minister Georges Clemenceau scoffed: "God was satisfied with Ten Commandments. Wilson gives us fourteen." Former President Teddy Roosevelt, for his part, derided the League of Nations idea.

Others were less cynical. The young John Maynard Keynes, a member of the British negotiating delegation, wrote: "In addition to this moral influence the realities of power were in [Wilson's] hands." This is how the economist defined the new world order: "The American armies were at the height of their numbers, discipline, and equipment. Europe was in complete dependence on the food supplies of the United States; and financially she was even more absolutely at their mercy. Europe ... already owed the United States more than she could pay."

Wilson's Failure

Wilson vehemently advocated the creation of the League of Nations. He noted with irritation that the British and the French were more intent on what they could demand from Germany. Wilson would even have been prepared to postpone the negotiations over new borders and reparations -- but not the talks on the League of Nations -- by a year until emotions had cooled down. "Our greatest error would be to give (Germany) powerful reasons for one day wishing to take revenge," Wilson warned. But he was unable to prevail, and the Germans soon felt betrayed by Wilson.

The British and the French agreed to the League of Nations, including its Article 10, which covered collective military aid for a member state under attack. The European victors had realized that this was the only way to secure the future support of the United States. But Wilson also made compromises in subsequent talks. Then, following an illness that was never diagnosed -- suppositions range from the flu to encephalitis to a series of small strokes -- the president's behavior changes. Once so predictable, Wilson now began giving his underlings confusing orders, and he complained that the furnishings of his Paris villa

offended his sense of color. He had the staff rearrange the furniture until all pieces of one color were on one side of the room, while those of other colors were placed elsewhere.

Ultimately, Hoover's assessment was that Allies thought Wilson would agree to compromises on 13 points, to save the 14th -- the League of Nations.

And that is what happened. Wilson signed the Treaty of Versailles, despite his own reservations and external warnings that the pact contained the germ of the next war.

But Wilson's real defeat was yet to come. When he returned to Washington in early July 1919, following his third trip to Europe, he encountered a Congress in which Republicans held the majority in both the Senate and the House of Representatives. And these Republicans were about as well disposed to Wilson as their successors are to current Democratic President Barack Obama. To some degree, Republicans' reasons for opposing Wilson and Obama were similar.

'Bitter Contempt'

Because the United States, as a member of the League of Nations, would be expected to give up some of its sovereignty, the Senate rejected the entire Versailles treaty and the League of Nations. It was not until 1921 that the US signed a separate peace treaty with Germany. Wilson saw his life's work being destroyed. He felt no hostility toward the Republican senators, he said after leaving office, only "bitter contempt."

It is not uncommon for the US to reject international bodies that Washington does not clearly dominate. Conservative Americans regularly voice their resentment for the United Nations, which succeeded the League of Nations. And for the fundamentalist Christian right, which remains influential today, the UN is even a tool of Satan, one that he aims to use to attain global dominance.

Even alliances like NATO are inherently suspect. Conservatives like former Defense Secretary Donald Rumsfeld and former Vice President Dick Cheney would rather choose their allies themselves.

Ironically, the pair's most important subordinates at the time were neo-conservatives, who saw themselves as Wilson's intellectual heirs. Deputy Defense Secretary Paul Wolfowitz saw the war against Iraq as a legitimate tool to bring democracy to the Middle East, a view comparable to Wilson's aim to export democracy to Germany and the Habsburg Empire.

And the idealists? Has the missionary tradition of American foreign policy achieved any successes 100 years after the failure of its founding father, Woodrow Wilson?

Politically Valid

It isn't an easy question to answer. On the one hand, the United States, thanks to Wilson, is still the leading global power, even if it has now amassed a similar amount of debt abroad as Great Britain did to the United States after the end of World War I.

In the post-Wilson years, the Republicans tried to isolate the country and safeguard it behind protective tariffs, a failed policy that ended in the Great Depression. The next Democratic president, Franklin D. Roosevelt, continued many of the ideals of the Wilson era and, during World War II, created the germ of the successor organization to the League of Nations, which at least occasionally manages to achieve some degree of success.

By contrast, former President Richard Nixon and Secretary of State Henry Kissinger, as foreign policy realists, tried to take the tension out of the Cold War via détente with the Soviet Union.

But when the socialist dictatorships were toppled in Eastern Europe, many Americans saw it as proof that Wilson's ideals of freedom and self-determination haven't lost their political validity to this day. And perhaps Wolfowitz, Wilson's great-grandson, can even hope that he will be proved right in the distant future.

Name: _____

Date: _____

Shifting Power After 1900 7.1

Directions: Fill in the details of both internal and external problems for each country in the early 20th century. Then give the details of the new government or ruler that resulted from those problems.

	Internal Problems	External Problems	Results (New Ruler/Government)
Russia			
China			
Ottomans			
Mexico			

Name: _____

Date: _____

Causes of World War I 7.2

Archduke Franz Ferdinand is Assassinated in June 1914

Who was responsible and why was he assassinated?	What resulted from this assassination?

Directions: Give a brief definition of each term below, then explain how each contributed as a cause of World War I.

Militarism	
Alliances	
Imperialism	
Nationalism	

Name: _____

Date: _____

Conducting World War I 7.3

Directions: Explain how the wartime innovations below affected World War I.

	Machine Guns	Tanks	Chemical Warfare	Trench Warfare
Effects				

The U.S. Joins the War in 1917

Directions: Describe the events below and explain why they pushed the United States to join World War I.

Sinking of the <i>Lusitania</i>	Zimmermann Telegram

Directions: Describe each item listed below. Give relevant dates and describe who was involved.

Paris Peace Conference	Treaty of Versailles	Fourteen Points

Name: _____

Date: _____

Economy in the Interwar Period 7.4

Directions: Fill in the organizer with the appropriate details for each economic plan or new government after World War I.

	Country	Leader	Ideals or Goals of the Plan	Effects or Successes/Failures
New Deal				
Five-Year Plan				
Corporatism/ Fascism				
Popular Front				
"New State" Program				

Name: _____

Date: _____

Unresolved Tensions After World War I 7.5

Directions: Fill in the details for each post-World War I movement below.

Pan-Arabism

Location:

Date:

Reasons for Movement:

March First Movement

Location:

Date:

Reasons for Movement:

May Fourth Movement

Location:

Date:

Reasons for Movement:

Indian National Congress

Location:

Date:

Reasons for Movement:

Salt March

Location:

Date:

Reasons for Movement:

Long March

Location:

Date:

Reasons for Movement:

Chinese Communist Party CCP

Location:

Date:

Reasons for Movement:

Satyagraha Movement

Location:

Date:

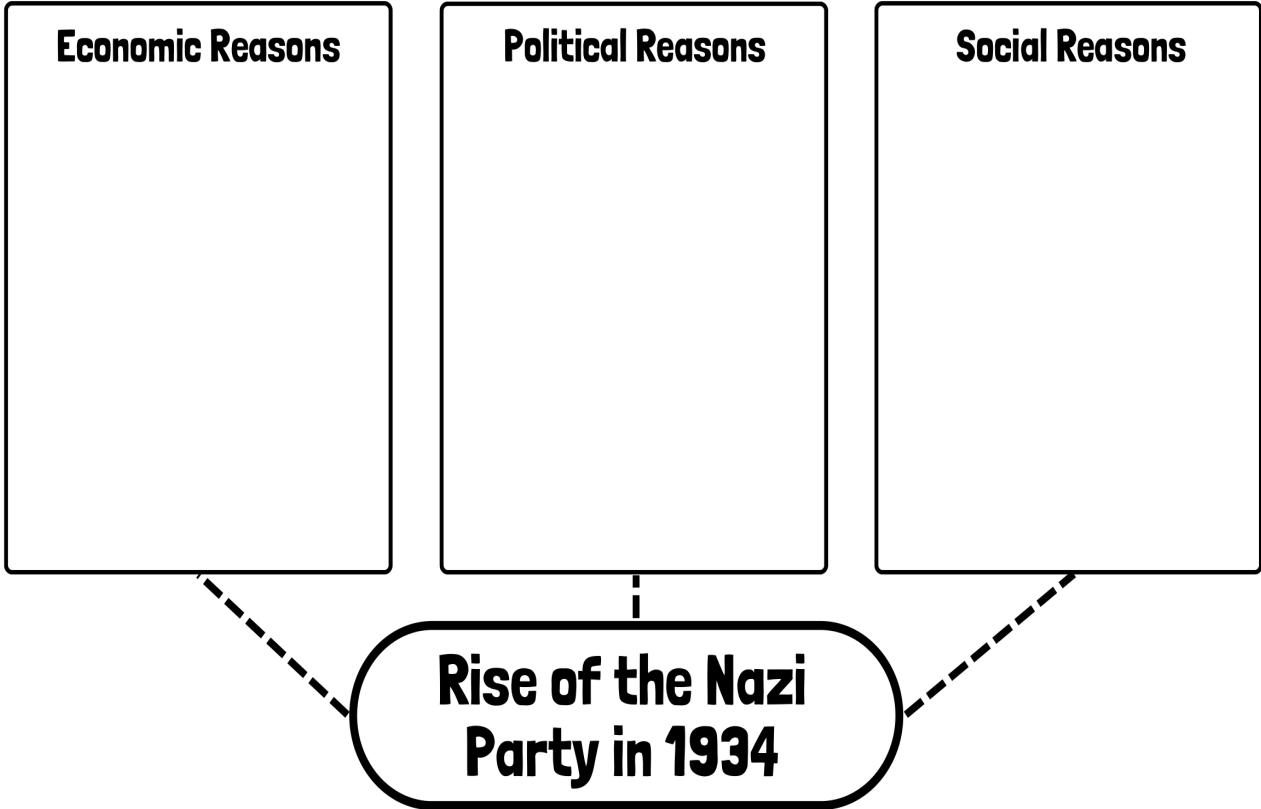
Reasons for Movement:

Name: _____

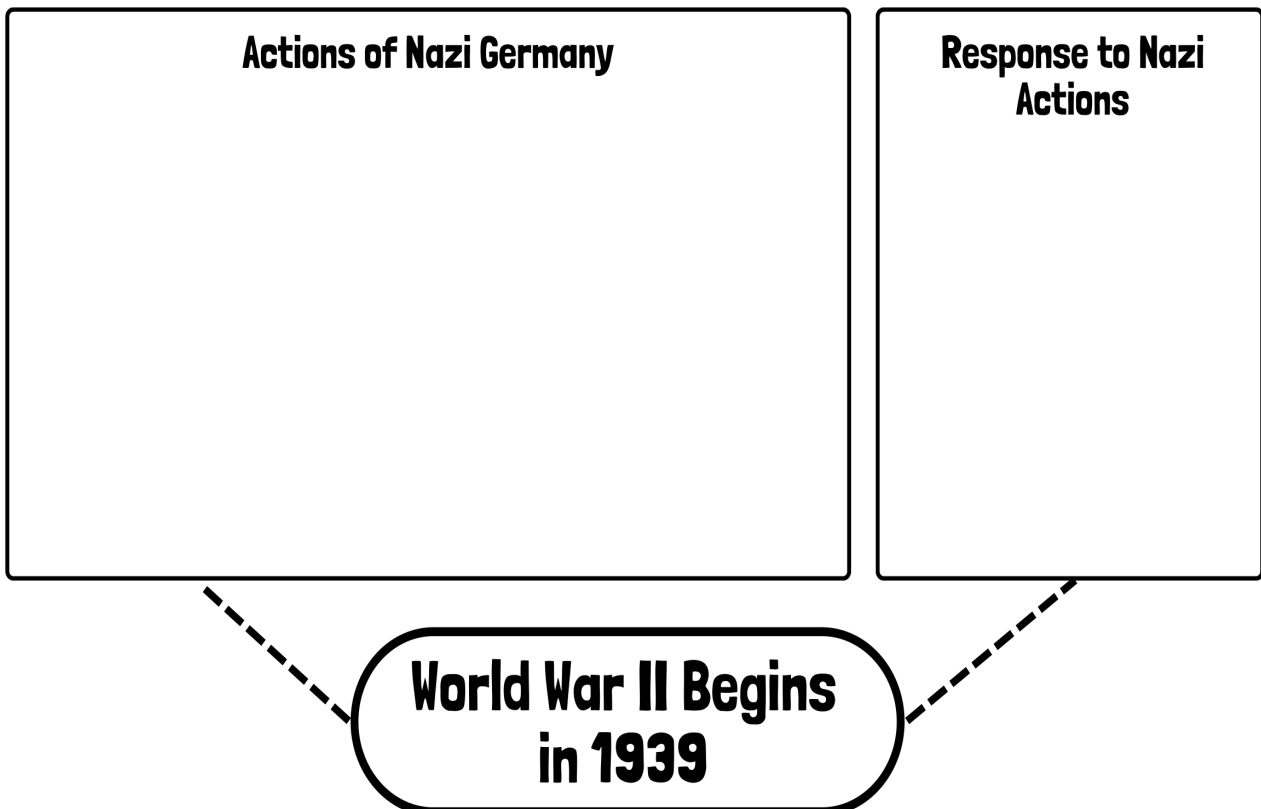
Date: _____

Causes of World War II 7.6

Directions: Describe the conditions that contributed to the rise of the Nazi Party in Germany.



Directions: Describe the conditions that contributed to the start of World War II.



Name: _____ Date: _____

Date: _____

Conducting World War II 7.7

Directions: Explain how the wartime innovations or strategies below affected World War II.

	Atomic Bomb	Blitzkrieg	Aircraft Carriers	Trench Warfare
Effects				

Directions: Describe each treaty from World War II below with relevant details including who was involved and what the agreement entailed.

Nonaggression Pact of 1939

Destroyers-for-Bases Agreement

Lend-Lease Act

Atlantic Charter

Name: _____

Date: _____

Mass Atrocities After 1900 7.8

Directions: Fill in the relevant details about each event below that resulted in huge loss of life.

Ukrainian Famine

Location:

Date:

Cause:

Armenian Genocide

Location:

Date:

Summary of events leading to this genocide:

Rwandan Genocide

Location:

Date:

Summary of events leading to this genocide:

Genocide in Darfur

Location:

Date:

Summary of events leading to this genocide:

Holocaust

Location:

Date:

Summary of events leading to this genocide:

Asia for Asiatics

Location:

Date:

Summary of events leading to this genocide:

Name: _____

Date: _____

Causation in Global Conflict 7.9

Directions: Answer the questions below with a paragraph each. Use relevant details from Unit 7 to support your answers.

Using specific examples, discuss the extent to which challenges to existing political and social order led to global conflict.

Evaluate the effects of the terms set forth in the Treaty of Versailles for Germany after World War I.

Unit 7 – Global Conflicts (1900-Present)

The 20th century saw unprecedented global conflicts that reshaped the world. From World Wars I and II to the Cold War and decolonization, these events redefined international relations, borders, and ideologies. Technological advancements, particularly in warfare and communication, played crucial roles in shaping these conflicts. The aftermath of these conflicts continues to influence modern geopolitics. The United Nations, nuclear proliferation concerns, and ongoing regional tensions are direct results of 20th-century conflicts. Understanding this era is crucial for grasping current global dynamics and challenges.

Key Events and Timeline

World War I (1914-1918) began with the assassination of Archduke Franz Ferdinand and ended with the Treaty of Versailles

Russian Revolution (1917) led to the establishment of the Soviet Union and the rise of communism

Great Depression (1929-1939) caused widespread economic hardship and political instability

- Stock market crash of 1929 triggered a global economic downturn
- Unemployment rates soared and international trade declined

World War II (1939-1945) started with Germany's invasion of Poland and ended with the atomic bombings of Hiroshima and Nagasaki

- Holocaust resulted in the systematic murder of approximately 6 million Jews by Nazi Germany

Cold War (1947-1991) characterized by ideological and geopolitical tensions between the United States and the Soviet Union

Decolonization (1940s-1970s) saw the independence of former colonies in Asia, Africa, and the Caribbean

Fall of the Berlin Wall (1989) symbolized the end of the Cold War and the collapse of communist regimes in Eastern Europe

9/11 terrorist attacks (2001) led to the global "War on Terror" and military interventions in Afghanistan and Iraq

Major Global Conflicts

World War I (1914-1918) involved the Allied Powers (France, Britain, Russia, Italy, and later the United States) against the Central Powers (Germany, Austria-Hungary, and the Ottoman Empire)

- Trench warfare and the use of chemical weapons resulted in unprecedented casualties

World War II (1939-1945) pitted the Allies (United States, Soviet Union, Britain, and France) against the Axis powers (Germany, Italy, and Japan)

- Largest and deadliest conflict in human history, with an estimated 70-85 million fatalities

Korean War (1950-1953) fought between North Korea (supported by China and the Soviet

Union) and South Korea (supported by the United Nations, primarily the United States)

Vietnam War (1955-1975) involved the United States supporting South Vietnam against the communist North Vietnam and the Viet Cong

- Guerrilla warfare tactics and the use of napalm and Agent Orange had devastating effects on the population and environment

Arab-Israeli conflicts, including the Six-Day War (1967) and the Yom Kippur War (1973), shaped the geopolitical landscape of the Middle East

Gulf War (1990-1991) saw a US-led coalition force Iraq to withdraw from Kuwait

War on Terror (2001-present) encompasses military interventions in Afghanistan, Iraq, and other regions in response to the 9/11 terrorist attacks and the threat of global terrorism

Causes and Triggers

Nationalism and imperialism fueled tensions among European powers leading up to World War I

Rise of fascism in Europe, particularly in Germany under Adolf Hitler and in Italy under Benito Mussolini, contributed to the outbreak of World War II

- Hitler's expansionist policies and the invasion of Poland triggered the war in Europe

Ideological differences between capitalism and communism underpinned the Cold War

- Truman Doctrine (1947) pledged US support to countries threatened by Soviet expansionism

Decolonization movements were driven by nationalist sentiments and the desire for self-determination in colonized regions

Israeli declaration of independence (1948) and the subsequent Arab-Israeli wars were rooted in competing claims to the region and religious tensions

Iraq's invasion of Kuwait (1990) led to the Gulf War, with concerns over oil supplies and regional stability

9/11 terrorist attacks were carried out by al-Qaeda, leading to the US-led invasion of Afghanistan and the broader War on Terror

Key Figures and Leaders

Woodrow Wilson, US President during World War I, proposed the Fourteen Points plan for post-war peace and helped establish the League of Nations

Vladimir Lenin and Joseph Stalin were key leaders of the Soviet Union, shaping its communist ideology and policies

- Lenin led the Bolshevik Revolution and established the Soviet state
- Stalin's totalitarian rule (1924-1953) was marked by rapid industrialization, collectivization, and the Great Purge

Adolf Hitler, leader of Nazi Germany, pursued expansionist and genocidal policies that led to World War II and the Holocaust

Franklin D. Roosevelt and Harry S. Truman, US Presidents during World War II, played crucial

roles in the Allied war effort and post-war reconstruction

Mahatma Gandhi and Jawaharlal Nehru were key figures in India's independence movement against British colonial rule

Mao Zedong, leader of the Chinese Communist Party, founded the People's Republic of China in 1949 and implemented sweeping social and economic reforms

Fidel Castro led the Cuban Revolution (1953-1959) and established a communist government, leading to tensions with the United States

Nelson Mandela, anti-apartheid activist and later President of South Africa, played a pivotal role in the country's transition to democracy

Technological Advancements

Machine guns, tanks, and chemical weapons were introduced during World War I, changing the nature of warfare

Atomic bombs developed during World War II (Manhattan Project) and used against Japan, ushering in the nuclear age

- Nuclear weapons played a central role in the Cold War arms race between the United States and the Soviet Union

Jet aircraft and guided missiles revolutionized aerial warfare and defense systems

Space Race between the United States and the Soviet Union led to advancements in satellite technology and space exploration

- Soviet Union launched the first artificial satellite (Sputnik 1) in 1957 and sent the first human (Yuri Gagarin) into space in 1961
- US Apollo 11 mission landed the first humans on the Moon in 1969

Green Revolution (1950s-1960s) introduced high-yield crop varieties and modern agricultural techniques, improving food production in developing countries

Advancements in computing and telecommunications, such as the development of the internet and mobile phones, have transformed global communication and information sharing

Geopolitical Shifts

Collapse of the Ottoman Empire after World War I led to the redrawing of borders in the Middle East (Sykes-Picot Agreement)

Rise of the United States and the Soviet Union as superpowers following World War II, dividing the world into spheres of influence

- Proxy wars fought in various regions (Korea, Vietnam, Afghanistan) as part of the larger Cold War conflict

Decolonization reshaped the political map, with newly independent nations emerging in Asia, Africa, and the Caribbean

- Bandung Conference (1955) marked the emergence of the Non-Aligned Movement, which sought to navigate a path between the US and Soviet blocs

Sino-Soviet split (1960s) divided the communist world and altered the dynamics of the Cold War

Collapse of the Soviet Union (1991) ended the Cold War and led to the formation of new independent states in Eastern Europe and Central Asia

European integration, through the formation of the European Union, has created a significant economic and political bloc

Rise of China and India as major economic and geopolitical powers has shifted the global balance of power in the 21st century

Social and Economic Impacts

World Wars I and II resulted in massive loss of life, destruction of infrastructure, and displacement of populations

Great Depression led to widespread poverty, unemployment, and social unrest

Rise of extremist political movements (fascism) in some countries as a response to economic hardship

Cold War arms race diverted resources from social welfare and development in many nations

Decolonization and the end of colonial rule had mixed social and economic outcomes for newly independent nations

- Some countries experienced political instability, ethnic conflicts, and economic challenges in the post-colonial era

Globalization, accelerated by advancements in transportation and communication, has increased economic interconnectedness but also contributed to income inequality and cultural homogenization

Women's rights movements, such as the suffrage movement and the feminist movement of the 1960s-1970s, have fought for gender equality and improved the status of women in many societies

Civil rights movements, such as the African-American civil rights movement in the United States, have challenged racial discrimination and promoted social justice

Legacy and Modern Implications

League of Nations, established after World War I, laid the groundwork for future international organizations like the United Nations

United Nations, founded in 1945, serves as a forum for international cooperation and conflict resolution

UN peacekeeping missions have been deployed to various conflict zones worldwide

Universal Declaration of Human Rights (1948) set a global standard for the protection of individual rights and freedoms

Nuclear non-proliferation treaties and arms control agreements, such as the Nuclear Non-Proliferation Treaty (1968) and the Strategic Arms Reduction Treaties (START), have sought to limit the spread and development of nuclear weapons

International criminal tribunals, such as the Nuremberg trials and the International Criminal Court, have held individuals accountable for war crimes and human rights abuses

Ongoing conflicts, such as the Israeli-Palestinian conflict and the Syrian civil war, continue to shape regional and global politics

Climate change and environmental degradation, exacerbated by industrialization and population growth, pose significant challenges for the international community in the 21st century

Rise of international terrorism, exemplified by the 9/11 attacks and the emergence of groups like al-Qaeda and ISIS, has led to increased global security measures and military interventions

7.1 Shifting Power After 1900

Global Balance of Power

At the start of the 20th century, the **Western powers—Britain, France, the Netherlands—dominated global politics**, largely due to their imperial holdings and industrialized economies. Their control over global trade routes, colonial resources, and military power allowed them to exert significant influence worldwide.

Meanwhile, older land-based empires—notably the Ottoman, Russian, Austro-Hungarian, and Qing empires—were declining. They struggled to modernize in the face of both internal weakness and external imperial pressure. By contrast, Japan had successfully industrialized after the Meiji Restoration and emerged as a rising global power, while the United States gained overseas territories and rapidly increased its economic and military presence.

The early 20th century thus witnessed a dramatic reconfiguration of global power: empires fell, new states rose, and Western dominance began to face resistance from within and beyond its colonial borders.

Collapse of Empires

The Ottoman Empire

The **Ottoman Empire**, once a powerful Islamic empire, had been losing territory and political strength since the 18th century. In the 19th century, Ottoman leaders initiated the **Tanzimat Reforms**, aimed at modernizing the legal, military, and educational systems.

Tanzimat Reforms (1839–1876):

- Abolished slavery and reorganized the army
- Introduced secular schools and European-style legal codes
- Sought to centralize administration and reduce corruption

While these reforms modernized parts of the empire, they failed to halt its overall decline. Resistance from conservative factions, rising nationalism among ethnic minorities, and continued economic weakness undermined efforts at reform.

In 1908, the **Young Turks**—a group of military officers and intellectuals—staged a coup and implemented further constitutional reforms. However, the empire was soon drawn into **World War I**, and its defeat led to its formal collapse.

In **1923**, the remnants of the empire became the **Republic of Turkey**, ending more than six centuries of Ottoman rule.

The Qing Dynasty (China)

The **Qing Dynasty** faced immense pressure in the 19th century from both **foreign imperialism** and **domestic unrest**. Repeated defeats in wars (e.g., the Opium Wars) and the imposition of **unequal treaties** weakened the state.

Self-Strengthening Movement (1860s–1890s):

- Attempted to adopt Western technology while preserving Confucian values
- Built railroads, arsenals, and shipyards
- Ultimately failed due to elite resistance and lack of coordination



The Boxer Rebellion

Meanwhile, massive uprisings such as the **Taiping Rebellion** (1850–1864) and the **Boxer Rebellion** (1899–1901) revealed growing dissatisfaction among the population.

The **Taiping Rebellion** blended Christian millenarianism with anti-Qing sentiment, resulting in 20–30 million deaths.

The **Boxer Rebellion** targeted foreign influence and missionaries but was brutally suppressed by an eight-nation alliance.

In **1911**, the Xinhai Revolution led to the fall of the Qing and the establishment of the Republic of China, ending over 2,000 years of imperial rule.

The Russian Empire and Revolution

The Russian Empire industrialized late compared to Western Europe. While the state built railroads (like the **Trans-Siberian Railway**) and invested in heavy industry, deep social and economic inequality persisted.

Russo-Japanese War (1904–1905): A humiliating defeat for Russia that exposed military and political weaknesses.

Revolution of 1905: Led to the creation of the **Duma** (a representative assembly), but Tsar Nicholas II retained most power.

Continued hardship, World War I losses, and mass discontent culminated in the Russian Revolutions of 1917:

1. February Revolution (March in modern calendar): Overthrew the tsar and created a provisional government.
2. October Revolution: The Bolsheviks, led by Lenin, seized power and founded a communist state—the first of its kind.

In 1922, the **Union of Soviet Socialist Republics (USSR)** was established, representing a complete transformation of political power and ideology.

Comparison of Reforms: Tanzimat vs. Self-Strengthening

Feature	Tanzimat Reforms (Ottoman)	Self-Strengthening Movement (Qing China)
Time Period	1839–1876	1860s–1890s
Goals	Modernize administration, law, military	Adopt Western tech to strengthen military
Outcomes	Partial modernization, resistance from elites	Failed reforms, opposition from conservatives
Long-Term Impact	Precursor to Young Turk reforms, secularism	Collapse of Qing in 1911, rise of republic

Activity: From Empire to Nation-State

Former Empire	20th Century Successor
Ottoman Empire	Turkey
Qing Dynasty	China
Russian Empire	Soviet Union (USSR)
Mughal Empire	India

Change: While these empires collapsed, many of their successor states retained old elites or struggled to unify diverse populations under new governments.

Revolution Beyond Europe: The Mexican Revolution

While much focus is placed on Eurasian empires, **Latin America** also experienced upheaval in the early 20th century. The **Mexican Revolution (1910–1920)** arose from dissatisfaction with the dictatorship of **Porfirio Díaz**.

Causes:

- Land inequality and rural poverty
- Political repression
- Influence of liberal and socialist ideas

Key revolutionary figures included **Emiliano Zapata** (agrarian reformer) and **Pancho Villa** (northern guerrilla leader). The revolution ultimately led to:

The **1917 Constitution**, which included land reform, labor rights, and limits on foreign ownership

A shift toward populism and nationalism in Mexican politics

Conclusion

The early 20th century marked a critical turning point in global history. Old empires crumbled under the weight of internal problems and external pressures, giving rise to new states and ideologies. In their place emerged revolutionary governments, republics, and, in Russia's case, a communist superpower. These power shifts fundamentally altered global geopolitics and set the stage for the world wars, the Cold War, and independence movements across the colonial world.

Key Terms to Review

Austro-Hungarian Empire: The Austro-Hungarian Empire was a dual monarchy established in 1867, uniting the Austrian Empire and the Kingdom of Hungary under a single monarch, Franz Joseph I. It was characterized by a complex political structure that aimed to manage various ethnic groups within its borders while navigating the shifting power dynamics in Europe after 1900.

Boxer Rebellion: The Boxer Rebellion was an anti-foreign and anti-Christian uprising that took place in China from 1899 to 1901, driven by nationalist sentiments and a desire to resist foreign imperialism. This movement arose as a response to the growing influence of foreign powers in China, particularly after the country experienced significant social and economic upheaval due to industrialization and foreign encroachment. The Boxer Rebellion highlighted the tensions between traditional Chinese values and the forces of modernization brought about by foreign intervention.

Centralized Bureaucracy: Centralized bureaucracy refers to a system of government in which most or all power and authority is concentrated in a central authority or governing body, often leading to standardized policies and regulations across the state. This form of governance is characterized by a hierarchical structure where decision-making is centralized, allowing for efficient administration and control over a large territory, which is particularly important during periods of expansion and shifting power dynamics.

Collapse of Empires: The collapse of empires refers to the process through which large and powerful political entities disintegrate or fall into decline, often due to a combination of internal strife, economic difficulties, military defeats, and rising nationalist movements. This phenomenon became increasingly prominent after 1900, as various empires faced unprecedented challenges that led to their dissolution or transformation, significantly reshaping global power dynamics.

Communist Party: The Communist Party is a political party that advocates for the principles of communism, which emphasize the collective ownership of the means of production and the establishment of a classless society. Originating in the 19th century, it gained significant influence in the 20th century, particularly after the Russian Revolution, leading to the establishment of communist states. The party played a crucial role in shifting global power dynamics, influencing resistance movements and ultimately shaping the end of the Cold War.

Duma: The Duma was a legislative assembly in the Russian Empire that was created in response to the 1905 Revolution, primarily to address demands for more representation and political reform. It represented a significant shift in governance as it marked the beginning of a constitutional monarchy, albeit with limited powers, as the Tsar retained ultimate authority. The Duma's existence highlighted the tensions between traditional autocratic rule and the growing desire for democratic governance among the Russian populace.

France: France is a country in Western Europe known for its rich history, cultural influence, and significant role in global events. Throughout history, France has been a major player in political, social, and economic changes, impacting areas such as industrialization, imperialism, world wars, and decolonization.

Global Balance of Power: The Global Balance of Power refers to the distribution of military and economic power among nations, which influences international relations and global stability. It plays a critical role in shaping alliances, conflicts, and the dynamics of world politics, especially during pivotal periods such as the shift in power after 1900, the rise of industrialization, and the geopolitical tensions during the Cold War.

Great Britain: Great Britain is an island nation located off the northwestern coast of mainland Europe, consisting of England, Scotland, and Wales. Its historical influence shaped global political, economic, and cultural landscapes, particularly during periods of nationalism, imperialism, and industrialization.

Guam: Guam is an island located in the Western Pacific Ocean and is a territory of the United States. Following the Spanish-American War in 1898, Guam became strategically significant due to its location, serving as a critical naval base and influencing shifting power dynamics in the Pacific after 1900.

Hong Xiuquan: Hong Xiuquan was a Chinese religious leader who led the Taiping Rebellion against the Qing Dynasty from 1850 to 1864. He claimed to be the younger brother of Jesus Christ and aimed to establish a new heavenly kingdom based on his interpretation of Christianity and traditional Chinese beliefs, marking a significant challenge to imperial authority during a period of shifting power dynamics in China.

Industrialization: Industrialization refers to the process of transforming economies from primarily agricultural to industrial, marked by the growth of factories, mass production, and advancements in technology. This transformation significantly influenced social, economic, and political structures worldwide, especially during the 18th and 19th centuries.

Legal Code: A legal code is a systematic collection of laws and regulations that govern a specific area of law or a particular society. These codes are crucial in establishing the legal framework within which individuals and institutions operate, ensuring clarity and consistency in the application of laws. In the context of shifting power after 1900, legal codes often reflect the social, political, and economic transformations occurring as societies grappled with modernization, colonialism, and the emergence of new ideologies.

Mao Zedong: Mao Zedong was a Chinese communist revolutionary and founding father of the People's Republic of China, who played a pivotal role in shaping modern Chinese history. His leadership marked significant shifts in power dynamics within China and influenced global

communism, leading to reforms that aimed to transform the Chinese economy and society radically.

Meiji Restoration: The Meiji Restoration was a pivotal event in Japan during the late 19th century that marked the end of feudal rule and the beginning of modernization and industrialization under Emperor Meiji. This transformation led to significant changes in Japan's political, economic, and social structures, establishing it as a major world power.

Military Training: Military training refers to the systematic preparation and instruction of soldiers in the skills and knowledge necessary for effective combat and operations. This training encompasses various disciplines, including physical fitness, weapon handling, tactics, and leadership, and is essential for maintaining a capable and disciplined armed force. In the context of shifting global power dynamics after 1900, military training evolved significantly as nations recognized the need for modernization and adaptation to new warfare technologies.

Modern Factories: Modern factories are large industrial facilities that utilize advanced machinery and assembly line production methods to manufacture goods efficiently and at scale. These factories emerged during the Industrial Revolution and played a crucial role in transforming economies and societies, marking a significant shift in power dynamics in the world after 1900.

Nationalist Party (Guomindang): The Nationalist Party, known as the Guomindang (GMD), was a significant political party in China founded by Sun Yat-sen in 1912. The party aimed to modernize China and establish a republic, promoting nationalism, democracy, and people's livelihood. Its activities played a crucial role in the shifting power dynamics in China after 1900, particularly in response to foreign imperialism and internal strife.

Netherlands: The Netherlands is a country located in Northwestern Europe, known for its flat landscape, extensive canal systems, and rich maritime history. After 1900, the Netherlands experienced significant political and economic shifts as it navigated the complexities of global conflicts, colonial endeavors, and changing international relations.

Overseas Colonies: Overseas colonies are territories controlled and governed by a foreign power, typically established through conquest or colonization, often for economic gain and strategic advantage. These colonies played a crucial role in shaping global trade patterns, cultural exchanges, and political dynamics, especially in the context of shifting power after 1900.

Ottoman Empire: The Ottoman Empire was a vast and influential Islamic state that existed from the late 13th century until the early 20th century, encompassing parts of Europe, Asia, and Africa. It played a crucial role in shaping political, cultural, and economic landscapes across these regions, particularly as it navigated challenges related to modernization, nationalism, and imperialism.

Philippines: The Philippines is an archipelago nation in Southeast Asia, comprising over 7,000 islands, and has played a significant role in the shifting power dynamics after 1900, particularly due to its colonization by the United States following the Spanish-American War. This transition marked a critical moment in imperialism and set the stage for changes in political, social, and economic structures within the country and its interactions with global powers.

Puerto Rico: Puerto Rico is an unincorporated territory of the United States located in the Caribbean, which was ceded to the U.S. after the Spanish-American War in 1898. This territory has played a crucial role in demonstrating the shifting dynamics of power in the Americas during the early 20th century, as it became a significant strategic and economic asset for the United States in its pursuit of expansionism and influence over the region.

Qing Dynasty: The Qing Dynasty was the last imperial dynasty of China, ruling from 1644 to 1912, and was established by the Manchu people after they overthrew the Ming Dynasty. This period is marked by significant territorial expansion, cultural exchanges, and conflicts with Western powers, influencing China's response to modernization and industrialization.

Qing China: Qing China was the last imperial dynasty of China, ruling from 1644 to 1912, and known for its expansionist policies and cultural developments. The Qing Dynasty saw significant territorial growth, consolidating power over vast regions in East Asia, which established it as a

formidable land-based empire during its height.

Railroads: Railroads are a system of tracks and trains used for transporting goods and people over long distances, which became a crucial component of the Industrial Revolution. They revolutionized transportation, facilitating rapid movement of resources and enabling the expansion of industries, urbanization, and global trade networks.

Republic of China: The Republic of China (ROC) was established in 1912 after the fall of the Qing Dynasty, marking the end of imperial rule in China. It represented a significant shift towards modern governance, as it sought to establish a democratic government and promote national unity amidst internal strife and foreign invasion during the early 20th century.

Russia and the Russian Revolution: The Russian Revolution refers to a series of political upheavals in Russia between 1917 and 1922, which ultimately led to the overthrow of the Romanov dynasty and the establishment of a communist government under the Bolsheviks. This revolution drastically altered the political landscape of Russia and had profound implications for global power dynamics, marking a significant shift in power as empires crumbled and new ideologies emerged.

Russian Empire: The Russian Empire was a vast and influential state that existed from 1721 until the Russian Revolution in 1917, covering Eastern Europe, Northern Asia, and parts of North America. It was marked by extensive territorial expansion and a centralized autocratic government, reflecting both the ambitions and challenges of one of history's largest empires.

Russian Revolution of 1905: The Russian Revolution of 1905 was a wave of mass political and social unrest that swept through the Russian Empire, driven by dissatisfaction with autocratic rule, economic hardship, and military defeats. This revolution marked a significant turning point, leading to the establishment of the Duma (parliament) and set the stage for future revolutionary movements in Russia.

Russo-Japanese War: The Russo-Japanese War was a conflict between the Russian Empire and the Empire of Japan from 1904 to 1905, primarily over territorial disputes in Manchuria and Korea. This war marked a significant shift in power dynamics in the early 20th century, showcasing Japan's emergence as a modern military power and signaling the decline of Russian imperial influence in East Asia.

Self-Strengthening Movement: The Self-Strengthening Movement was a late 19th century initiative in China aimed at modernizing the country by adopting Western technology and military practices while maintaining Confucian values. This movement emerged as a response to foreign imperialism and the internal challenges faced by the Qing dynasty, signifying an attempt to balance tradition with modernization.

Slave Trade: The Slave Trade refers to the transatlantic and trans-Saharan trade systems that forcibly transported millions of Africans to the Americas and other regions to serve as slaves. This brutal practice significantly impacted global economies, social structures, and cultural exchanges, shaping interactions between continents and influencing power dynamics throughout history.

Soviet Union: The Soviet Union, officially known as the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics (USSR), was a socialist state that existed from 1922 to 1991, encompassing a vast territory across Eastern Europe and Northern Asia. It played a central role in global politics, particularly during the 20th century, influencing ideological conflicts and shaping world events during and after the World Wars.

Taiping Rebellion: The Taiping Rebellion was a massive civil war in China from 1850 to 1864 led by Hong Xiuquan, who claimed to be the brother of Jesus Christ. This rebellion aimed to overthrow the Qing Dynasty and establish a new kingdom based on a unique interpretation of Christianity and radical social reforms. It reflects significant resistance to both internal governance issues and external pressures from European powers during a time of upheaval.

Tanzimat Reforms: The Tanzimat Reforms were a series of modernization and reform initiatives in the Ottoman Empire during the 19th century aimed at restructuring the empire's administration, economy, and society. These reforms were a response to internal challenges and external pressures, seeking to centralize power, promote equality among subjects, and modernize the military and economy.

United States: The United States is a federal republic established in 1776, formed from thirteen British colonies in North America. It has been a significant player in global politics, economics, and culture, influencing various movements related to nationalism, industrialization, and international conflicts throughout its history.

Western-Style Education: Western-Style Education refers to a system of education that emphasizes critical thinking, scientific inquiry, and liberal arts, rooted in European educational traditions. This approach became prominent in the late 19th and early 20th centuries, significantly influencing educational reforms across various parts of the world as nations sought to modernize and compete on a global stage amidst shifting power dynamics.

Young Turks: The Young Turks were a reformist political group in the late Ottoman Empire, primarily active during the early 20th century, advocating for modernization, secularism, and national identity. They played a crucial role in the 1908 Young Turk Revolution, which aimed to restore the constitutional monarchy and curb the autocratic rule of Sultan Abdulhamid II, marking a significant response to the challenges posed by industrialization and modernization.

Notes and Observations:

"It is forbidden to kill; therefore all murderers are punished—unless they kill in large numbers and to the sound of trumpets."

~Voltaire, whose original name was François-Marie Alouet, was a French Enlightenment philosopher and writer.

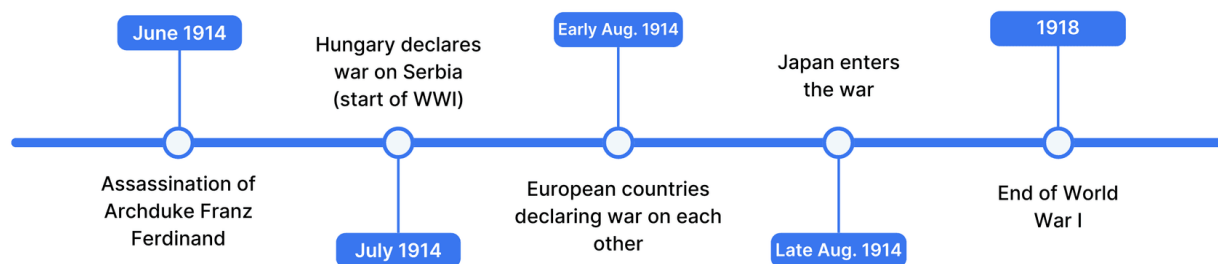
Notes and Observations:

Topic 7.2 Causes of World War I

Main Idea

The spark that really ignited World War I was the assassination of Archduke Franz Ferdinand, who was the heir of the Austro-Hungarian throne; additionally, the long term causes of World War I, which were militarism, alliances, imperialism, and nationalism, had more weight as to why World War I really started. The assassination of Ferdinand was just an excuse to start an already festering war, and even though the war started with two countries, it expanded because of the alliances made previously.

Key Timeline



Timeline of the beginning of World War I

Things to Know

World War I is also known as the **Great War**.

Militarism

The European powers believed that by having a stronger military, it showcases the amount of power the country contains, and the countries wanted to show off.

For example, Great Britain and Germany would often invest in their military.

Mass production of supplies was made possible by the Industrial Revolution.

Alliances

Secret alliances had festered up when Europe had been expanding for power. This is one of the reasons why the war expanded so quickly!

Triple Entente was made up of Britain, France, and Russia

- All three countries viewed Germany as a rival, and their alliance was easily formed.
 - Britain: Wanted colonies in Africa, however, Germany beat them to it.
 - France: Lost Alsace-Lorraine, an area with lots of industrial profit and iron, to Germany.
- Once Italy, Japan, China, the United States, and several other countries joined the Triple Entente, it was renamed the Allies.

Germany, Austria-Hungary, and Italy had formed the **Triple Alliance**, and their enemies were the Triple Entente.

- NOTE: Italy was neutral until 1915 (after the war started)
- When the Ottoman Empire and Bulgaria joined, the Triple Alliance was renamed to the **Central Powers**.

The neutral countries: Spain, Norway, Sweden, Denmark, Netherlands, Switzerland, and Albania, did not take any side.

Imperialism

European nations found power through the amount of colonies they owned during this time period, and eventually, European powers had conquered most of the world.

This means that they had to fight over colonies, which created a divide in the European nation.

Nationalism

People in more ethnically diverse kingdoms, such as the Ottoman Empire and the Austro-Hungarian lands, had trouble finding true nationalism because of the mix of ethnic groups.

- Because they wanted pride within their own ethnic groups, their **self-determination** had increased.

Assassination of Archduke Franz Ferdinand

The Black Hand, which was an organization whose goal was to remove Austro-Hungarian people from the Balkans, had a member named **Gavrilo Princip** who had assassinated the heir of Austro-Hungarian throne, **Archduke Franz Ferdinand**. This led to the start of World War I.

Remember this as the immediate cause of the war!

Terms to Remember

Term	Definition + Significance
Black Hand	Princip was a part of this organization, which was a nationalist organization that wanted to remove Austro-Hungarian people from the Balkans.
Gavrilo Princip	Assassinated Archduke Franz Ferdinand.
Archduke Franz Ferdinand	Assassinated and started the war.
Great War	Another name for World War I.
Triple Entente	Initial alliance between Britain, France, and Russia.
Triple Alliance	Initial alliance between Germany, Austria-Hungary, and Italy.
Central Powers	Triple Alliance (Germany, Austria-Hungary, and Italy), Japan, China, and the United States.

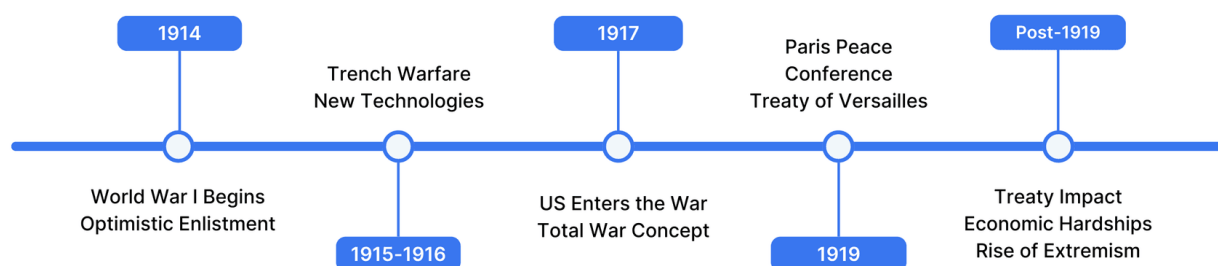
Term	Definition + Significance
Secret alliances	Positive relations with other nations, however, not explicitly said. For example, if Russia were to be attacked, France and Britain would have helped Russia, and it was expected for them to do the same for Russia.
Self-determination	The right to grant an independent nation to people with the same ethnicity, language, culture, and political ideals.
Militarism	Defines how prepared an aggressive military is for attacking/defensive methods are.
Nationalism	Defined as pride in one's country.

Topic 7.3: Conducting World War I

Main Idea

World War I displayed the reality of modern warfare, challenging its romanticized perceptions in society and the media. From unique recruitment strategies like "Pals Battalions" that highlighted close bonds amongst soldiers, to the evolution of warfare technology seen by trenches and new technologies, World War I greatly shifted military tactics. The global conflict spanning many diverse nations, combined with Woodrow Wilson's push for self-determination, added another layer of complexity in this time period. The war ended in the Treaty of Versailles, which caused economic hardships and the rise of extremist ideologies, leading to a long-term global impact.

Key Timeline



Timeline of Events Through World War I

Things to Know

Changes in Warfare

World War I began in June 1914

Thousands of boys enrolled in the military as they wanted to seem heroic

Horrific Effects of New Advances

- **Trench warfare** was marked by cold, muddy, rat-infested conditions, influencing the spread of diseases and unhygienic surroundings.

- **Poison gas** including chlorine, phosgene, and mustard gas, caused soldiers to wear gas masks, leading to lasting lung damage for many veterans.
- **Machine guns** were fired more than 500 rounds of ammunition in a minute and made it difficult for either side to gain new territory.
- Submarine warfare was extensive and made a larger impact.
- Airplanes were loaded with machine guns and aerial combat began.
- Tanks moved across difficult terrain and fired directly at the enemy.
- Overall led to a bloody four-year **stalemate**, and the death toll was higher than ever.

The United States Enters the War

Economic ties

- US had economic links to the **Allies** and contributed to their entry into the war in 1917.

Democratic beliefs

- Americans viewed the Allies as more democratic than the Central Powers.

Resentment against Germans

- US grew angrier, especially due to **U-boat attacks**. This included the sinking of the **Lusitania** in 1915 which had more than 100 US citizens aboard.

Zimmerman Telegram was intercepted in January 1917 and the telegram revealed that Germany proposed an alliance with Mexico against U.S.

Total War

Strategy

- Nation's fully committed all available resources, including civilians, to ensure World War I victory
- Massive mobilization efforts involved millions of civilians in war-related industries

Economic Shift

- Entire economies shifted to support the war effort
- Planning boards regulated production, prices, wages, and rationed supplies

Censorship and Control

- Governments enforced strict media censorship and measures against war critics
- Information control aimed at maintaining public morale and support for the war

Propaganda's Role

- **Propaganda** played a crucial role in shaping public opinion during total war
- Extensive campaigns aimed to influence attitudes with exaggerated or biased information
- Posters and articles exaggerated German atrocities in American and British propaganda

- German propaganda reciprocated by demonizing Americans and the British
- Used artists to illustrate battle scenes and glorify Allied soldiers

A Global War

Geographic Scale

- Fought across Europe, Asia, Africa, and the Pacific and Atlantic Oceans

Unprecedented global reach since the **Seven Years' War** in the late 18th century

Imperialistic Competition

- Major combatants ruled colonies in Asia, Africa, the Americas, and the Pacific
- **Imperialism** extended war boundaries, leading to major battles in North Africa and the Middle East

Japanese Involvement

- Japan joined the Allies to gain control of German colonies in the Pacific and occupied **Tsingtao**, a German-held port in China

Colonial Contributions

- British seized most of Germany's African colonies
- Notable contributions from **ANZAC troops** in Gallipoli, Canadians in European battles, and colonial troops drafted by Britain and France

Post-War Aspirations

- Colonial troops enlisted with hopes of gaining recognition and promises of self-rule post-war
- Arabs fought with the Allies expecting self-rule after victory

Women and the War

Changing Roles

- Women, barred from voting or combat roles, saw significant life changes due to men enlisting
- Took on roles in farms, factories, and crucial positions in support of the war effort

Varied Policies

- Most countries didn't allow women from serving in combat, but Russia, Serbia, Romania, and Bulgaria allowed it
- In 1917, Russia's creation of an all-female battalion was aimed at shaming men into continuing to fight

Women served on the front lines as nurses, ambulance drivers, and switchboard operators

The Paris Peace Conference

Big Four Leaders

- Woodrow Wilson (U.S.), David Lloyd George (Britain), Georges Clemenceau (France), Vittorio Orlando (Italy)
- Italy left in anger for not getting promised territories

Differing Visions

- Wilson wanted “peace without victory,” Clemenceau sought revenge on Central Powers
- U.S. Senate rejected Wilson’s **League of Nations**; new nations formed in Europe

Self-Determination

- Conquered peoples had a right to choose their future
- New nations emerged after **Austro-Hungarian** and **Ottoman Empires** dissolved

Treaty of Versailles

- Harsh Terms for Germany
 - Germany faced reparations, lost colonies, and restricted armed forces
 - Germans blamed for the war which led to humiliation
- Post-War German Hardship
 - Reparations caused economic struggles
 - Bitterness toward **Weimar Republic** fueled the rise of the **Nazi party**

Terms to Remember

Term	Definition + Significance
Conscription	Mandatory enlistment of citizens into the military in times of dire need. Allowed forces to enlist people to fight in the war as a national service.
Stalemate	A deadlock in which neither side of a war makes significant progress.
Propaganda	Spreading information that is sometimes biased to support a particular cause.
Global War	A conflict involving many nations across multiple continents.
Self-Determination	A nation’s right to govern themselves, make decisions about their own affairs, and determine their political status.
Reparations	Payments made by a “losing” country to the “winners” after a war.
Lusitania	British ocean liner sunk by a German submarine in World War I. Served as a turning point and caused the US to enter the war eventually.

Term	Definition + Significance
Zimmerman Telegram	A secret message from Germany to Mexico asking for an alliance during World War I.
Total War	When a nation's resources and population are shifted completely towards the war effort.
ANZAC	Australian and New Zealand Army Corps; fought together in World War I.
Gallipoli	A battle during World War I where the Allies (including ANZAC), suffered heavy losses.
Paris Peace Conference	Meeting of Allied leaders post-World War I to negotiate peace terms and discuss the Treaty of Versailles.
Big Four	The main leaders at the Paris Peace Conference: Wilson, Lloyd George, Clemenceau, and Orlando.
Woodrow Wilson	President of the United States during World War I. He advocated for the League of Nations and the Fourteen Points.
David Lloyd George	The Prime Minister of the UK during World War I and the Paris Peace Conference.
Georges Clemenceau	The Prime Minister of France during World War I and the Paris Peace Conference.
Vittorio Orlando	The Prime Minister of Italy during World War I and the Paris Peace Conference.
Fourteen Points	Woodrow Wilson's peace principles emphasized self-determination and the League of Nations.
League of Nations	International organization established after World War I to promote peace among nations.
Treaty of Versailles	Peace treaty that ended World War I. Imposed harsh conditions on Germany and led to post-war instability.
Weimar Republic	Democratic government established in Germany after World War I. Faced economic and political challenges.
Trench Warfare	Military strategy involving fortified trenches; a distinguishing tactic of World War I.
Poison Gas	Chemical weapons used that caused severe injuries and introduced a new level of brutality to warfare.

Term	Definition + Significance
Machine Guns	Firearms that were capable of rapid and continuous fire, influencing military tactics in the war.
Submarines	Underwater vessels like German U-boats, which played a significant role in naval warfare.
Airplanes	Aerial vehicles that were used in combat during World War I.
Tanks	Armored military vehicles that were introduced during the war. They were designed for traversing diverse terrains.
U-boat	German submarines that were influential in the unrestricted submarine warfare in World War I.
All Quiet on the Western Front	A novel including vivid portrayals of the experiences of soldiers in trenches during World War I.

7.4 Economy in the Interwar Period

Following the devastation of World War I, the global economy entered a period of instability and transformation. Governments began to play a more active role in managing economic crises and experimenting with new approaches to production and consumption. The Treaty of Versailles, war debts, and an increasingly interconnected economy set the stage for the Great Depression and the rise of authoritarian economic responses.

The Treaty of Versailles and Postwar Economy

The armistice on **November 11, 1918**, brought an end to the fighting, but not to the economic consequences of the war. At the **Treaty of Versailles** (1919), the victorious Allied powers imposed harsh penalties on Germany:

Reparations: Germany was required to pay 132 billion gold marks to the Allies, a figure later reduced but still burdensome.

Territorial Losses: Germany lost all its colonies, as well as Alsace-Lorraine, the Polish Corridor, and the Sudetenland.

Demilitarization: The German military was limited to 100,000 men. Tanks, submarines, and an air force were prohibited.

War Guilt Clause (Article 231): Germany was forced to accept sole responsibility for the war, justifying the reparations.

These measures weakened Germany's economy, angered its population, and fueled a growing sense of national humiliation. Other European countries also suffered financially due to wartime borrowing, inflation, and disrupted global trade.

The Global Impact of the Great Depression

Though the 1920s saw some recovery, structural weaknesses remained. The **Great Depression**, beginning in 1929, would reveal just how fragile the global economy had become.

Interconnected Debt and Financial Collapse

Europe was caught in a **cycle of debt**. Former Allies owed money to each other and the United States. But to pay back these debts, they relied on **reparation payments from Germany and Austria**—who themselves needed U.S. loans to do so.

When the U.S. economy collapsed in 1929, the ripple effect was global:

- Foreign investors pulled out** of Europe.
- Credit dried up**, making repayment impossible.
- Industrial output slowed**, leading to mass unemployment and economic instability.

Overproduction and Falling Prices

Industrialization led to mass production of goods, but demand could not keep up:

- Agricultural exports** from colonies and rural economies were hit hardest.
- Surpluses** in manufactured goods caused a drop in prices.
- Factories shut down**, further worsening unemployment.

Industrial Product (Before)	Industrial Replacement (After)
Natural rubber	Reclaimed rubber
Coal	Oil
Cotton	Synthetic materials

By the early 1930s, **unemployment rates** soared across industrialized countries, and the effects were deeply felt in both capitalist and colonial economies.

Government Responses to the Depression

With laissez-faire capitalism in crisis, many governments turned to **interventionist economic policies** to try to revive their economies.

Keynesian Economics and the New Deal

British economist **John Maynard Keynes** argued that governments must actively stimulate demand in times of economic crisis. His theories became the foundation of **Keynesian economics**.

In the United States, **President Franklin D. Roosevelt** applied these ideas in his **New Deal**:

- Created public works programs to provide jobs.
- Introduced **social welfare programs** and protections for labor.
- Aimed to restore confidence in banks and the financial system.

Though the New Deal didn't fully end the Depression, it laid the foundation for modern welfare states and increased the role of government in the economy.

Command Economies and Authoritarian Alternatives

Other countries pursued more radical forms of economic control, especially in **Soviet Russia** and **Fascist Italy**.

Soviet Union: Five-Year Plans and Collectivization

Under **Joseph Stalin**, the Soviet Union launched a series of **Five-Year Plans** (starting in 1928) to industrialize rapidly and catch up with the West.

- Focused on **heavy industry** (steel, coal, machinery) rather than consumer goods.
- Collectivized agriculture** by merging private farms into state-run collectives.
- Farmers were required to meet production quotas; failure to do so resulted in **punishment, imprisonment, or death**.
- The policy led to famine (notably in Ukraine) and widespread suffering, but rapid industrial growth.

Italy: Fascist Corporatist Economy

In **Fascist Italy**, **Benito Mussolini** developed a **corporatist economic system**:

- The government oversaw corporations and labor groups to manage production and resolve disputes.
- In theory, this system aligned the interests of the **state, workers, and employers**, though in practice it suppressed labor rights and promoted state control.
- Economic growth was limited, and Italy still struggled with debt and underdevelopment.

Continuity: As in earlier empires, states sought control over resources and production—but now through centralized planning rather than colonial extraction.

In depth: Solutions to the Great Depression

Feature	U.S. New Deal	Stalin's Five-Year Plans	Mussolini's Fascist Corporatism
Ideological Basis	Keynesian liberalism (mixed economy)	Marxist-Leninist communism	Fascism with corporatist elements
Leader	Franklin D. Roosevelt	Joseph Stalin	Benito Mussolini

Feature	U.S. New Deal	Stalin's Five-Year Plans	Mussolini's Fascist Corporatism
Economic Role of State	Large role during crisis; regulates market	Total state control of economy	State-directed private ownership
Target Issues	Unemployment, banking collapse, poverty	Industrial underdevelopment, agriculture	Labor unrest, class conflict, economic stagnation
Key Strategies	Public works, Social Security, regulation	Quotas for industry; collectivization	Corporate councils mediate labor & capital
Approach to Industry	State investment in infrastructure	Heavy industry prioritized over consumer goods	Private industry under state guidance
Approach to Agriculture	Support to farmers (AAA), subsidies	Forced collectivization, grain requisition	Less focus; mostly urban-industrial policy
Impact on Workers	Job creation, protections, union growth	Harsh discipline, repression, quotas	Suppression of labor unions, state-brokered wages
Freedom & Dissent	Maintained democracy, limited censorship	Repressive police state, gulags, purges	One-party state; propaganda, secret police
Outcome	Partial recovery, long-term reforms	Rapid industrialization, mass suffering	Limited growth, wartime mobilization
Historical Legacy	Model for welfare states	Blueprint for planned economies (and warnings)	Prototype for fascist economies

U.S. New Deal – Reform Through Democracy

Goals:

Alleviate effects of the Great Depression

Stabilize capitalism through **regulation**, not replacement

Provide relief, recovery, and reform (3 R's)

Key Programs:

Civilian Conservation Corps (CCC) and **Works Progress Administration (WPA)** created jobs in public works

Social Security Act introduced pensions and unemployment insurance

Glass-Steagall Act regulated banking; separated commercial from investment banks

Agricultural Adjustment Act (AAA) paid farmers to reduce production and stabilize prices

Outcomes:

Did not fully end the Depression, but **restored faith in government** and avoided revolution

Increased federal responsibility for economic well-being

Created a **lasting welfare state** model used worldwide

Limitations:

African Americans and women were often excluded

Southern Democrats maintained segregationist policies

Stalin's Five-Year Plans – Command Through Repression

Goals:

Catch up industrially with the West

Turn the USSR into a self-sufficient, modern state

Enforce state socialism and eliminate capitalist structures

Key Features:

First plan (1928–1932): Emphasis on **coal, steel, oil**, and infrastructure (dams, railways)

Collectivization of farms: forcibly consolidated millions of peasants into state-run farms

Use of **production quotas** and state-run factories

Outcomes:

Rapid industrial growth: USSR became the world's second-largest industrial power by 1940

Severe human cost: 5-8 million deaths in famines (especially Ukraine's Holodomor)

Millions sent to **gulags** (forced labor camps)

Long-Term Impact:

Proved that **state planning could industrialize** a country quickly—but at a devastating price

Set precedent for other planned economies (e.g., Mao's China)

Mussolini's Corporatism – Control Through Collaboration

Goals:

Solve class conflict and economic stagnation without communism

Promote nationalism, autarky (economic self-sufficiency), and state unity

Key Institutions:

National Council of Corporations: divided economy into sectors like agriculture, industry, and commerce

Workers and employers represented by **state-controlled syndicates**

State decided labor conditions, wages, and production goals

Outcomes:

Suppressed labor unions and strikes

Growth in some industries, but **Italy remained economically weak**

Major projects like **"Battle for Grain"** and **infrastructure development** had mixed results

Long-Term Impact:

Corporatism failed to deliver prosperity or full employment

Economic mobilization improved slightly during WWII, but Italy remained behind Britain, Germany, and France

Mussolini's model influenced fascist economies in **Spain** and **Portugal**, but lacked sustainability

Comparative Summary: What Made Each Unique?

The **New Deal** used **democratic institutions** and Keynesian economics to preserve capitalism.

The **Five-Year Plans** created a **totalitarian economy** focused on industrial might, with little regard for human rights.

Mussolini's system sought a **middle ground between socialism and capitalism**, but centralized control without the effectiveness of Stalin's model or the freedom of FDR's.

Each system was a response to crisis—but their **methods, goals, and results** reflect the broader ideologies shaping the **20th century's political economy**: liberalism, socialism, and fascism.

Conclusion

The interwar period revealed the fragility of the global economy and forced governments to confront the failures of laissez-faire capitalism. The responses to the crisis varied widely:

Liberal democracies leaned toward state intervention and welfare.

Authoritarian regimes pursued total control of economic life.

Colonial economies suffered disproportionately, deepening global inequality.

The economic challenges of this era, combined with the lingering grievances from World War I, laid the foundation for **political extremism**, **militarization**, and ultimately, **World War II**.

Key Terms to Review

Allied forces: The Allied forces were a coalition of countries that united during World War II to oppose the Axis powers, primarily consisting of the United States, the Soviet Union, the United Kingdom, and China. This alliance played a crucial role in shaping the outcome of the war and addressing the economic challenges faced during the interwar period, as their cooperation was essential in mobilizing resources and coordinating military strategies against common enemies.

Article 231: Article 231, also known as the War Guilt Clause, was a provision in the Treaty of Versailles that assigned blame for World War I to Germany and its allies. This clause not only marked Germany as the primary instigator of the war but also laid the groundwork for reparations that Germany was required to pay, significantly impacting its economy and political landscape in the interwar period.

Benito Mussolini: Benito Mussolini was an Italian politician and leader of the National Fascist Party, known for establishing a totalitarian regime in Italy during the early 20th century. His rise to power in the aftermath of World War I was characterized by economic turmoil, social unrest, and a desire for national rejuvenation, which he promised to deliver through his fascist ideology. Mussolini's aggressive policies and militarism played a significant role in the lead-up to World War II as he sought to expand Italy's territory and influence.

Collectivized Agriculture: Collectivized agriculture is an agricultural system where individual farms are consolidated into large, collective farms managed by the state or a collective organization. This method aims to increase efficiency, productivity, and control over agricultural production, often as part of broader socialist or communist policies, particularly during the interwar period.

Dust Bowl Political Cartoon: A Dust Bowl political cartoon is a satirical illustration that highlights the economic and social impact of the Dust Bowl, a severe drought that affected the Great Plains during the 1930s. These cartoons often critiqued government responses, agricultural practices, and the plight of farmers, reflecting public sentiment during the interwar period's economic struggles.

Fascist corporatist economy. Corporatism: A fascist corporatist economy is an economic system characterized by the integration of government and corporate interests, where the state has significant control over the economy while allowing private ownership. This model aims to eliminate class conflict by organizing society into corporate groups that represent different sectors, like agriculture, industry, and services, effectively promoting state-approved interests and suppressing dissent.

Franklin Roosevelt (FDR): Franklin D. Roosevelt, commonly known as FDR, was the 32nd President of the United States, serving from 1933 until his death in 1945. He is best known for his leadership during the Great Depression and World War II, implementing a series of economic reforms and policies aimed at recovery and relief that reshaped the American economy in the interwar period.

Great Depression: The Great Depression was a severe worldwide economic downturn that lasted from 1929 until the late 1930s, marked by massive unemployment, significant declines in consumer spending, and widespread poverty. Its effects rippled across nations, leading to political instability, social unrest, and changes in government policies as countries struggled to recover.

Industrialization: Industrialization refers to the process of transforming economies from primarily agricultural to industrial, marked by the growth of factories, mass production, and advancements in technology. This transformation significantly influenced social, economic, and political structures worldwide, especially during the 18th and 19th centuries.

John Keynes: John Keynes was a British economist whose ideas fundamentally changed the theory and practice of macroeconomics and government economic policy, particularly during the interwar period. His advocacy for increased government spending and intervention to manage economic cycles was a direct response to the Great Depression, highlighting the need for a new approach to economic stability and growth.

Joseph Stalin's Five Year Plans: Joseph Stalin's Five Year Plans were a series of nationwide centralized economic initiatives aimed at rapidly industrializing the Soviet Union and boosting its economy from the late 1920s through the 1930s. These plans focused on increasing industrial output and agricultural productivity, often at the expense of consumer goods and individual welfare. By prioritizing heavy industry and collectivization, the Five Year Plans reshaped the Soviet economy and society, reflecting the broader economic struggles of the interwar period.

Keynesian Economics: Keynesian Economics is an economic theory developed by John Maynard Keynes, advocating for increased government spending and intervention during economic downturns to stimulate demand and pull the economy out of recession. This approach emphasizes the role of aggregate demand in influencing economic activity and suggests that government policies can help mitigate the negative effects of economic cycles.

Labor camps (gulags): Labor camps, commonly known as gulags, were a system of forced labor camps established in the Soviet Union during the interwar period, primarily under Joseph Stalin's regime. These camps were used to detain political prisoners, dissidents, and common criminals, where inmates were subjected to harsh conditions and forced labor as part of a broader strategy to control the population and facilitate economic development. The gulags became notorious for their brutality, high mortality rates, and the significant role they played in the Soviet economy during this time.

League of Nations: The League of Nations was an intergovernmental organization founded after World War I aimed at promoting peace and cooperation among countries. Established in 1920, its main goals were to prevent wars through collective security, disarmament, and resolving international disputes diplomatically. Despite its ambitious objectives, the League struggled to maintain peace and address the unresolved tensions that followed the war, ultimately failing to prevent the rise of conflicts that led to World War II.

New Deal: The New Deal was a series of programs and policies implemented by President Franklin D. Roosevelt in the United States during the 1930s aimed at providing relief, recovery, and reform in response to the Great Depression. It sought to address economic instability, promote social welfare, and create jobs, ultimately reshaping the role of government in American life and contributing to unresolved tensions stemming from the effects of World War I.

Polish Corridor: The Polish Corridor was a strip of land created after World War I that granted Poland access to the Baltic Sea, effectively separating East Prussia from the rest of Germany. This corridor was significant in shaping post-war borders and contributing to tensions between Poland and Germany, impacting trade routes and economic conditions during the interwar period.

Reparation payments: Reparation payments are compensatory payments made by a country to another nation for damages caused during a conflict or war. In the context of the interwar period, these payments were primarily associated with the aftermath of World War I, where Germany was mandated to pay substantial reparations under the Treaty of Versailles. This financial burden contributed to economic instability and resentment in Germany, which played a significant role in the lead-up to World War II.

Rhineland: The Rhineland is a region in western Germany, located along the Rhine River, which holds significant historical and political importance. It became a focal point of conflict and tension in the interwar period due to its rich industrial resources, particularly coal and steel, and was critical in the context of post-World War I reparations and territorial disputes that ultimately contributed to the outbreak of World War II.

Social Welfare State: A Social Welfare State is a government system that provides various social services and financial assistance to its citizens, ensuring basic economic security and

welfare. This model emerged as a response to the economic upheaval and social challenges faced during the interwar period, particularly after the Great Depression, with the aim of addressing poverty, unemployment, and health care needs.

Soviet Union (Russia): The Soviet Union, officially known as the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics (USSR), was a socialist state that existed from 1922 to 1991, primarily located in Eurasia. Emerging from the Russian Revolution of 1917, it played a pivotal role in global politics and economics during the interwar period by implementing radical changes to its economy, society, and governance, including collectivization and industrialization efforts that significantly transformed its structure and output.

Stock market crash: A stock market crash is a sudden and significant decline in the value of stocks on a stock exchange, often triggered by panic selling and economic instability. The most notable crash occurred in October 1929, leading to the Great Depression, highlighting the fragile state of economies during the interwar period and the interconnectedness of global financial systems.

Sudetenland: Sudetenland refers to a region in Czechoslovakia that was home to a significant population of ethnic Germans. The area became a focal point of tension in the interwar period, particularly as it was claimed by Nazi Germany under Adolf Hitler, which contributed to rising tensions and the onset of World War II. This situation exemplified the broader economic and political instability present during the interwar period, as nations struggled with the effects of the Great Depression and the Treaty of Versailles.

Treaty of Versailles: The Treaty of Versailles was a peace treaty signed in 1919 that officially ended World War I, imposing heavy reparations and territorial losses on Germany. It aimed to establish lasting peace but instead created significant economic and political instability in Europe, setting the stage for future conflicts.

Vladimir Lenin's New Economic Policy: The New Economic Policy (NEP) was a major economic strategy introduced by Vladimir Lenin in 1921, which aimed to revive the Soviet economy after the devastation of the Russian Civil War. This policy marked a significant shift from the strict state control of the economy towards a mixed economy that allowed for some private enterprise and market mechanisms, thus facilitating economic recovery while still maintaining the overall political authority of the Communist Party.

Notes and Observations:

7.5 Unresolved Tensions After World War I

The end of World War I in 1918 brought an armistice, but not lasting peace. While the war resolved immediate conflicts over empire and power in Europe, it also created new tensions, unresolved grievances, and revolutions in thought. In many ways, the peace treaties of the 1919 Paris Peace Conference planted the seeds for further conflict.

At the heart of these tensions was a clash between imperialism and the growing demand for **self-determination**. Many colonized peoples had fought on behalf of imperial powers, hoping this would win them greater autonomy. Instead, their expectations were crushed—leading to frustration and resistance movements across Africa, Asia, and the Middle East.

Postwar Ideals vs. Imperial Reality

Woodrow Wilson's Fourteen Points

At the Paris Peace Conference, U.S. President **Woodrow Wilson** proposed his **Fourteen Points**, a plan to ensure future peace. Some key ideas included:

- Free trade and freedom of the seas**

- Reduction of arms**

- Self-determination** for colonized peoples

- An international peacekeeping body (**League of Nations**)

However, **European powers rejected many of these proposals**, especially those about self-determination and colonial independence. The result?

The U.S. turned inward. The Senate rejected the League of Nations, and the U.S. adopted an **isolationist** stance throughout much of the interwar period.

Japanese Imperial Expansion

Japan's Rise and Military Turn

Japan emerged from the **Meiji Restoration** (1868) as a rapidly industrializing power. By the early 20th century, Japan had defeated both **China** and **Russia** in major wars, proving its strength to the West.

During WWI, Japan sided with the Allies, seizing German holdings in Asia. But **postwar racism**—like being denied a “racial equality clause” in the Treaty of Versailles—deepened resentment among Japanese leaders.

When the **Great Depression** hit in the 1930s, **military leaders took control**, pushing aggressive expansion as a solution. Japan invaded **Manchuria** in 1931, renaming it **Manchukuo**, and then launched a full invasion of China in 1937.

The Rape of Nanjing (1937): Japanese troops massacred hundreds of thousands of civilians, an atrocity that shocked the world and showcased the brutality of Japan's expansion.

Japan framed its empire as a **"Greater East Asia Co-Prosperity Sphere"**, claiming to "liberate" Asians from Western colonialism. In practice, this was thin cover for imperial conquest and exploitation.



Japan's expansion. Photo courtesy of Global Security

Mandates and the Question of Self-Determination

Colonial Territories Reassigned

After the war, the empires of the **Central Powers** (especially the **Ottoman** and **German Empires**) were carved up by the Allies. The League of Nations established **mandates**—colonial holdings now justified as being temporarily governed by European powers until the people could "govern themselves."

In practice, however, mandates were **just colonies under a new name**. Many locals felt betrayed by Wilson's promise of **self-determination**, especially since they had contributed troops and resources to the war effort.

Mandates = broken promises. Anti-colonial activists called out the hypocrisy of preaching self-rule while expanding empires.

Resistance and Transnational Movements

Throughout the interwar period, **resistance to imperialism grew stronger**, often coordinated across national borders.



Pan-Africanism. Image courtesy of Retrospect Journal.

Pan-Africanism and Pan-Arabism

Two major **transnational movements** emerged:

Pan-Africanism: Called for solidarity among all people of African descent, across the diaspora. Emphasized unity, pride, and political independence.

Pan-Arabism: Promoted unity among Arab peoples across the Middle East and North Africa, seeking liberation from British and French control.

Both movements laid intellectual and cultural foundations for **later independence movements** after WWII.

Rise of Nationalist Movements

Colonized people didn't just resist with ideas—they organized.

India's Nonviolent Resistance

In **British India**, the **Indian National Congress** became the center of anti-colonial politics.

Led by **Mohandas Gandhi**, Indian nationalists used **nonviolent protest**:

Non-Cooperation Movement (1920–1922): Boycotted British goods and institutions.

Salt March (1930): Protested the British salt tax by walking to the sea and making salt—defying British law.

These protests gained **international attention** and helped shift public opinion against British imperialism.

West African Political Mobilization

In **French West Africa**, strikes and protests demanded greater autonomy. Educated elites, influenced by Enlightenment and revolutionary ideals, began to organize:

Political congresses

Trade unions

Nationalist parties

While independence would not be won until after WWII, these **interwar movements sowed the seeds** of decolonization.

Summary Table: Postwar Tensions and Their Consequences

Region	Tension / Grievance	Resulting Movement or Action
Middle East	Mandate system replaces Ottoman rule	Rise of Pan-Arabism, nationalist resistance
Africa	Continued colonization, lack of self-rule	Pan-Africanism, political congresses, strikes
India	No self-rule despite wartime service	Gandhi's campaigns: Non-Cooperation, Salt March
Japan	Racial exclusion, limited gains after WWI	Militarism and invasion of Manchuria and China

Conclusion: The Calm Before Another Storm

While WWI ended formal fighting in Europe, its resolution failed to resolve deeper global tensions. Colonized peoples felt betrayed by the hollow promises of self-rule, while rising powers like Japan challenged the status quo with aggression.

This disillusionment would intensify into the 1930s, setting the stage for another global conflict—World War II.

Key Terms to Review

Allied Powers: The Allied Powers were a coalition of countries that opposed the Central Powers during World War I and later included key nations fighting against the Axis Powers during World War II. This alliance initially consisted of major powers like France, Russia, and the United Kingdom, which later expanded to include the United States and other nations. Their collaboration was crucial in both conflicts, significantly shaping the course of history and international relations in the 20th century.

Anti-Imperial Resistance: Anti-Imperial Resistance refers to the movements and actions taken by colonized peoples against imperial powers, aiming to challenge and overthrow colonial rule. After World War I, various regions saw a rise in nationalist sentiments fueled by a desire for self-determination, as empires weakened and promises of independence emerged yet remained unfulfilled. This resistance was often characterized by organized protests, uprisings, and the formation of political movements advocating for independence and rights.

European Imperialism: European Imperialism refers to the policy and practice of European nations extending their power and influence over other countries through colonization, conquest, and economic domination, particularly during the 19th and early 20th centuries. This expansion led to significant global changes, resulting in unresolved tensions that arose after major conflicts, resistance movements against colonial powers, and various responses from indigenous populations.

Fourteen Points: The Fourteen Points were a set of principles proposed by U.S. President Woodrow Wilson in 1918 aimed at establishing a framework for lasting peace following World War I. These points emphasized self-determination for nations, free trade, disarmament, and the establishment of a League of Nations to prevent future conflicts. The Fourteen Points were significant as they addressed the unresolved tensions that arose after the war and sought to create a more stable international order.

French Rule: French Rule refers to the period of colonial governance by France over various territories, particularly in Africa and Southeast Asia, during the 19th and early 20th centuries. This rule is characterized by the imposition of French culture, language, and administrative systems, which often led to significant social, economic, and political changes in the colonized regions, as well as unresolved tensions that persisted after World War I.

Germany: Germany is a nation-state in Central Europe that became a unified country in 1871, playing a crucial role in various global events and conflicts from the late 19th century onwards. Its industrial growth, nationalistic movements, and political ambitions significantly influenced the course of European history, particularly during major wars and economic developments.

Great Depression: The Great Depression was a severe worldwide economic downturn that lasted from 1929 until the late 1930s, marked by massive unemployment, significant declines in consumer spending, and widespread poverty. Its effects rippled across nations, leading to political instability, social unrest, and changes in government policies as countries struggled to recover.

Greater East Asia Co-Prosperity Sphere: The Greater East Asia Co-Prosperity Sphere was a concept promoted by Japan during World War II that aimed to create a bloc of Asian nations led by Japan, free from Western influence. This idea was presented as a mutual economic and cultural partnership among Asian countries, but it primarily served Japan's imperial ambitions and justified its military conquests across East and Southeast Asia.

Indian National Congress: The Indian National Congress (INC) is a political party in India that played a crucial role in the struggle for independence from British colonial rule. Formed in 1885, the INC became the principal organization representing Indian interests and aspirations, leading to significant movements against colonial policies and shaping the political landscape of newly independent India.

Interwar Period: The Interwar Period refers to the time between the end of World War I in 1918 and the beginning of World War II in 1939. This era was marked by significant political, economic, and social upheaval, as countries grappled with unresolved tensions from the war, leading to unstable governments, the rise of totalitarian regimes, and eventual global conflict.

Japanese Imperialism: Japanese Imperialism refers to Japan's expansionist policies and actions during the late 19th and early 20th centuries, where the nation sought to increase its territory and influence across Asia and the Pacific. This period saw Japan adopt Western methods of military modernization and industrialization, leading to its emergence as a major power. The aggressive territorial acquisitions led to tensions both regionally and globally, particularly after World War I, as Japan's imperial ambitions continued to clash with other nations' interests.

Keynesian Economics: Keynesian Economics is an economic theory developed by John

Maynard Keynes, advocating for increased government spending and intervention during economic downturns to stimulate demand and pull the economy out of recession. This approach emphasizes the role of aggregate demand in influencing economic activity and suggests that government policies can help mitigate the negative effects of economic cycles.

Korea: Korea is a peninsula located in East Asia, divided into two distinct nations: North Korea and South Korea. This division stems from unresolved tensions and geopolitical conflicts following World War II, which continue to shape regional dynamics and international relations today.

League of Nations: The League of Nations was an intergovernmental organization founded after World War I aimed at promoting peace and cooperation among countries. Established in 1920, its main goals were to prevent wars through collective security, disarmament, and resolving international disputes diplomatically. Despite its ambitious objectives, the League struggled to maintain peace and address the unresolved tensions that followed the war, ultimately failing to prevent the rise of conflicts that led to World War II.

Mandates: Mandates were a legal status established by the League of Nations after World War I, allowing certain nations to govern former territories of the defeated powers. This system was intended to prepare these regions for self-governance while providing oversight and administration from more established countries. However, the mandate system led to unresolved tensions and conflicts as the aspirations for independence clashed with the interests of the mandate powers.

Manchuria: Manchuria is a historical region located in Northeast Asia, encompassing parts of modern-day China, Russia, and Mongolia. It became significant in the early 20th century as tensions escalated over imperial ambitions, particularly between Japan and China, leading to conflicts that had lasting repercussions after World War I and played a crucial role in the lead-up to World War II.

Manchukuo: Manchukuo was a puppet state established by Japan in 1932 in Manchuria, which was formerly part of China. It served as a showcase for Japanese imperial ambitions and as a means to exploit the region's resources, all while presenting an image of legitimate governance under the last Qing emperor, Puyi. This creation exemplified the unresolved tensions and conflicts that emerged in East Asia after World War I, particularly regarding imperialism and nationalism.

Meiji Restoration: The Meiji Restoration was a pivotal event in Japan during the late 19th century that marked the end of feudal rule and the beginning of modernization and industrialization under Emperor Meiji. This transformation led to significant changes in Japan's political, economic, and social structures, establishing it as a major world power.

Mohandas Gandhi: Mohandas Gandhi, also known as Mahatma Gandhi, was a key figure in India's struggle for independence from British rule. He is best known for his philosophy of nonviolent resistance, which influenced global movements for civil rights and freedom. Gandhi's approach to political activism not only shaped India's path to independence but also contributed to broader global resistance against colonialism and oppression.

Nationalist Organizations: Nationalist organizations are groups that promote the interests, culture, and identity of a specific nation or ethnic group, often seeking greater autonomy or independence from larger political entities. After World War I, many of these organizations emerged as nations grappled with the consequences of the war, leading to unresolved tensions and conflicts over borders, governance, and national identity.

New Deal: The New Deal was a series of programs and policies implemented by President Franklin D. Roosevelt in the United States during the 1930s aimed at providing relief, recovery, and reform in response to the Great Depression. It sought to address economic instability, promote social welfare, and create jobs, ultimately reshaping the role of government in American life and contributing to unresolved tensions stemming from the effects of World War I.

Non-Cooperation Movement: The Non-Cooperation Movement was a significant campaign initiated by Mahatma Gandhi in 1920 as a form of protest against British colonial rule in India. It aimed to resist British authority through nonviolent means, encouraging Indians to withdraw

from British institutions, boycott British goods, and promote self-reliance. This movement emerged in the aftermath of World War I, reflecting unresolved tensions within India regarding colonial exploitation and the demand for greater autonomy.

Ottoman Empire: The Ottoman Empire was a vast and influential Islamic state that existed from the late 13th century until the early 20th century, encompassing parts of Europe, Asia, and Africa. It played a crucial role in shaping political, cultural, and economic landscapes across these regions, particularly as it navigated challenges related to modernization, nationalism, and imperialism.

Pan-Arabism: Pan-Arabism is a political and cultural ideology that advocates for the unity of Arab countries and peoples, emphasizing shared language, culture, and historical experiences. This movement emerged in the early 20th century as a response to colonialism and foreign intervention, seeking to establish solidarity among Arab nations and promote independence and cooperation.

Pan-Africanism: Pan-Africanism is a global movement that seeks to unify and empower people of African descent, promoting solidarity and cultural connection among African nations and the African diaspora. This ideology emerged as a response to colonialism, racism, and social injustices, aiming to foster a collective identity and advocate for political and economic independence in Africa.

Paris Peace Conference: The Paris Peace Conference was a series of meetings held in 1919-1920 where the Allied powers negotiated the peace terms following World War I. This conference aimed to establish a new world order, redrawing national boundaries and creating new nations, while also addressing issues like reparations and disarmament. The outcomes of the conference laid the groundwork for unresolved tensions that emerged post-war and contributed to the causes of the next global conflict.

President Woodrow Wilson: Woodrow Wilson was the 28th President of the United States, serving from 1913 to 1921, and is best known for leading the country during World War I and advocating for a new world order based on democracy and self-determination. His presidency was marked by significant events, including the creation of the League of Nations and his Fourteen Points, which aimed to address unresolved tensions following the war.

Rape of Nanjing: The Rape of Nanjing refers to the mass murder and mass sexual assault of Chinese civilians and disarmed soldiers by Japanese troops during the Second Sino-Japanese War, specifically between December 1937 and January 1938 in the city of Nanjing. This event is a horrific example of wartime atrocities and reflects the unresolved tensions following World War I, as well as the broader pattern of mass atrocities that occurred in the 20th century.

Right to Self-Determination: The Right to Self-Determination is the principle that a group of people has the right to determine their political status and pursue their economic, social, and cultural development. This concept gained prominence in the aftermath of World War I, as newly formed nation-states and colonies sought autonomy and independence from colonial or imperial rule, leading to significant geopolitical shifts.

Russo-Japanese Wars: The Russo-Japanese Wars were a series of conflicts between the Russian Empire and Japan that primarily took place from 1904 to 1905, marked by Japan's surprising victory over Russia. This conflict was significant as it demonstrated Japan's emergence as a major world power and marked the first time an Asian nation defeated a European power in modern history, setting the stage for unresolved tensions after World War I.

Salt Satyagraha: Salt Satyagraha was a nonviolent resistance movement led by Mahatma Gandhi in 1930, aiming to protest against British colonial laws that imposed a tax on salt and restricted its production. This campaign was significant as it mobilized large segments of the Indian population against colonial rule, highlighting the theme of civil disobedience and self-sufficiency. It connected to broader unresolved tensions after World War I, as many nations, including India, were struggling for independence and self-determination in the face of imperialist control.

Sino-Japanese Wars: The Sino-Japanese Wars refer to two major conflicts between China and Japan, the first occurring from 1894 to 1895 and the second from 1937 to 1945. These wars

marked significant turning points in East Asian history, highlighting Japan's rise as a modern imperial power and exposing the weaknesses of Qing China, leading to unresolved tensions that contributed to further conflicts in the region after World War I.

Transnational Movements: Transnational movements refer to organized efforts that span multiple nations, often advocating for social, political, or economic change beyond national boundaries. These movements arise in response to global issues and seek to mobilize support and create networks across countries to address shared challenges, such as human rights, environmental protection, or economic justice.

US Isolationist Policy: The US Isolationist Policy refers to the foreign policy approach adopted by the United States during the interwar period, characterized by a reluctance to engage in international conflicts and a focus on domestic issues. This policy was largely influenced by the desire to avoid the devastation of World War I and was reflected in various legislative measures aimed at limiting American involvement in foreign wars.

West Africa: West Africa is a region in the western part of the African continent, known for its diverse cultures, languages, and historical significance. This area has been central to various historical developments, including trade networks, colonial encounters, and social dynamics, influencing both local and global contexts throughout history.

World War I: World War I was a global conflict that lasted from 1914 to 1918, primarily involving the Allies and the Central Powers. It marked a significant shift in global power dynamics, leading to massive military engagements and profound social, political, and economic changes around the world.

Notes and Observations:

7.6 Causes of World War II

World War II emerged from a convergence of unresolved issues left behind by World War I, compounded by new forces that destabilized the global order. While some causes like militarism and imperialism echoed from the previous war, others—such as the Great Depression and the rise of fascism—created an entirely new landscape for global conflict. The war did not begin with an assassination, as in 1914, but rather with a slow build-up of tensions, culminating in Germany’s invasion of Poland in 1939.

Failure of the Versailles Settlement

The **Treaty of Versailles** was intended to prevent future wars by punishing Germany and redistributing its holdings. Instead, it created deep-seated resentment in the former Central Powers.

- War Guilt Clause (Article 231):** Placed full blame on Germany for the war.
- Reparations:** Germany was forced to pay an unsustainable sum (~132 billion gold marks), weakening its economy.
- Territorial Losses:** Germany lost Alsace-Lorraine to France, all its overseas colonies, and was forbidden from unifying with Austria (Anschluss).
- Demilitarization:** Germany’s military was capped at 100,000 soldiers; no tanks, air force, or submarines were allowed.

This harsh treatment fostered nationalist anger, which political extremists like Hitler would later exploit. Italy also felt cheated by its limited gains, giving rise to Mussolini’s fascist rhetoric of national revival.

Economic Collapse and the Great Depression

The **Great Depression** exacerbated global instability after 1929.

- Countries like Germany and Austria, already burdened by reparations, collapsed under financial pressure.
- American loans to Germany stopped, triggering a domino effect in European economies.
- Unemployment and inflation soared worldwide, destabilizing democratic governments and pushing desperate populations toward extremist parties promising stability.

Effects of the Great Depression on Major Powers

Country	Aggressive Action	Response from Other Powers
Nazi Germany	Reoccupation of Rhineland (1936), Anschluss with Austria (1938), annexation of Sudetenland (1938), invasion of Poland (1939)	Appeasement at first (Munich Agreement), later war declaration after Poland invasion

Country	Aggressive Action	Response from Other Powers
Fascist Italy	Invasion of Ethiopia (1935), intervention in Spanish Civil War (1936)	Condemnation by League of Nations, little effective action
Imperial Japan	Invasion of Manchuria (1931), full-scale war with China (1937), creation of Greater East Asia Co-Prosperity Sphere	League of Nations protest, U.S. embargoes, eventual Pacific War

Rise of Fascism and Totalitarianism

The collapse of democratic systems gave way to **authoritarian regimes** that promised national strength, economic revival, and restored pride.

Germany under Adolf Hitler

Nazi Ideology: Emphasized racial purity (Aryan supremacy), anti-Semitism, and anti-communism.

Propaganda: Utilized films, rallies, newspapers, and education to mold public opinion.

Rearmament: Violated Versailles by building an army, navy, and Luftwaffe (air force), and instituting conscription.

Appeasement: The Allies allowed Hitler's early aggression (e.g., Rhineland remilitarization in 1936) in hopes of avoiding another war.

Italy under Benito Mussolini

Fascism: Called for national unity, glorification of the state, and suppression of dissent.

Imperialist Expansion: Invaded Ethiopia in 1935 to build a «New Roman Empire.»

State Corporatism: Organized the economy around state-controlled corporations rather than free-market competition.

Japan's Militarist Expansion

Industrialized rapidly after the Meiji Restoration.

Invaded **Manchuria in 1931** and renamed it **Manchukuo**.

Further invaded **China in 1937**, committing atrocities like the **Rape of Nanjing**.

Justified conquests through the idea of the **Greater East Asia Co-Prosperity Sphere**—a euphemism for imperial domination.

Imperialism and Expansionism

Even after WWI, major powers continued pursuing territorial gains.

Germany: Annexed Austria (*Anschluss*, 1938) and seized the Sudetenland from Czechoslovakia under the **Munich Agreement**. Britain and France's policy

of **appeasement** allowed these actions to go unchecked.

Italy: Expanded into Albania (1939) and supported Francisco Franco's fascist regime during the Spanish Civil War.

Japan: Continued to conquer territories in China and Southeast Asia to secure raw materials and markets.

Appeasement and the Road to War

Western powers, particularly **Britain and France**, hoped appeasing Hitler's demands would prevent another war.

The **Munich Agreement (1938)** allowed Hitler to annex the Sudetenland in exchange for a promise of «no further demands.»

Hitler broke that promise by seizing **Czechoslovakia (1939)** and then invading **Poland on September 1, 1939**.

Britain and France, having drawn the line at Poland, **declared war on Germany**, beginning World War II.

Key Terms to Review

Adolf Hitler: Adolf Hitler was the leader of Nazi Germany from 1934 to 1945, known for his totalitarian regime and the instigation of World War II through aggressive expansionist policies. His ideology was rooted in fascism, extreme nationalism, and anti-Semitism, which led to widespread atrocities, including the Holocaust. Hitler's rise to power and subsequent actions had profound effects on global history, marking a pivotal moment that altered the course of the 20th century.

Allies: Allies refers to the coalition of nations that fought against the Axis powers during World War II, primarily consisting of the United States, the Soviet Union, the United Kingdom, and China. This partnership was formed in response to the aggressive expansion of Nazi Germany and its allies, aiming to restore peace and stability in the world. The collaboration among these nations also stemmed from unresolved tensions following World War I, leading to a united front against totalitarian regimes.

Anschluss: Anschluss refers to the annexation of Austria into Nazi Germany in March 1938. This event was significant in the lead-up to World War II, as it demonstrated Adolf Hitler's aggressive expansionist policies and his desire to unite all German-speaking peoples under one nation. The annexation was met with minimal resistance from other European nations, showcasing the growing appeasement toward Hitler's regime and contributing to the escalating tensions that would eventually ignite the war.

Austria: Austria is a landlocked country in Central Europe known for its rich cultural heritage and historical significance, particularly during the early 20th century. As a major player in European politics, Austria's role in the events leading up to World War II was heavily influenced by its strategic location and its relationship with neighboring countries, especially Germany.

Authoritarian Rule: Authoritarian rule is a governing system characterized by the concentration of power in a single leader or a small group, often limiting political pluralism, suppressing dissent, and controlling many aspects of life within a state. This type of governance was prominent in the lead-up to World War II, as totalitarian regimes emerged and sought to expand their influence through aggressive nationalism and militarization, which contributed significantly to global tensions and conflict.

Axis Powers: The Axis Powers were a coalition of countries led by Germany, Italy, and Japan during World War II that opposed the Allies. This alliance aimed to expand their territories and influence through military conquest, driven by ideologies such as fascism and militarism. Their aggressive actions and invasions in the 1930s contributed significantly to the outbreak of global conflict.

Benito Mussolini: Benito Mussolini was an Italian politician and leader of the National Fascist Party, known for establishing a totalitarian regime in Italy during the early 20th century. His rise to power in the aftermath of World War I was characterized by economic turmoil, social unrest, and a desire for national rejuvenation, which he promised to deliver through his fascist ideology. Mussolini's aggressive policies and militarism played a significant role in the lead-up to World War II as he sought to expand Italy's territory and influence.

Belgium: Belgium is a small European country located between France, Germany, and the Netherlands. It played a crucial role in the causes of World War I and World War II, particularly due to its strategic location and the events surrounding its neutrality and invasion by other nations.

Berlin Pact: The Berlin Pact, established in 1884-1885 during the Berlin Conference, was an agreement among European powers that regulated European colonization and trade in Africa. This pact set the stage for the intense scramble for Africa, as it laid down the rules for how countries could claim territory on the continent, influencing geopolitical dynamics and leading to significant consequences that contributed to tensions leading up to World War II.

Black Tuesday: Black Tuesday refers to October 29, 1929, when the U.S. stock market crashed dramatically, leading to a severe economic downturn and marking the beginning of the Great Depression. This event is crucial in understanding the economic instability that contributed to the rise of totalitarian regimes and ultimately World War II, as nations struggled with the consequences of financial collapse and social unrest.

Central Powers: The Central Powers were a coalition of countries during World War I, primarily consisting of Germany, Austria-Hungary, the Ottoman Empire, and Bulgaria. This alliance opposed the Allied Powers and was marked by their military strategies and alliances, which shaped the course of the war and its eventual outcomes.

Chancellor of Germany: The Chancellor of Germany is the head of government in Germany, responsible for directing the executive branch and setting governmental policy. In the context of the causes of World War II, the role of the Chancellor became pivotal, especially with leaders like Adolf Hitler, whose aggressive expansionist policies and totalitarian regime contributed significantly to the outbreak of the war.

Conscription: Conscription is the mandatory enlistment of individuals into military service, often during times of war or national emergency. This practice played a critical role in the mobilization of forces during World War II, allowing nations to rapidly expand their armies to meet the demands of large-scale conflict. Conscription was particularly significant as it represented a shift in military recruitment strategies, moving away from voluntary enlistment to state-imposed military obligation.

Czechoslovakia: Czechoslovakia was a central European nation formed in 1918, which became a focal point of tension leading up to World War II. Its diverse population included Czechs and Slovaks, and its strategic location made it significant in the geopolitical landscape of Europe, especially during the rise of totalitarian regimes. The Munich Agreement of 1938, where major powers allowed Nazi Germany to annex parts of Czechoslovakia, is crucial in understanding the failures of appeasement and the subsequent outbreak of World War II.

Deflationary Pressure: Deflationary pressure refers to the economic forces that lead to a decrease in the general price level of goods and services in an economy. This phenomenon can result from various factors, including reduced consumer demand, increased production efficiency, or tighter monetary policies. In the context of historical events leading to global conflicts, deflationary pressure can severely impact economic stability, contribute to unemployment, and create social unrest, thereby exacerbating tensions that may lead to war.

Disarmament: Disarmament refers to the reduction or elimination of military forces and weapons by nations, often pursued to promote peace and security. This process is typically negotiated through treaties and agreements, aiming to prevent conflict by limiting the means of warfare. In the context of rising tensions before World War II, disarmament became a critical issue as countries sought to address the arms race that had escalated in the aftermath of World War I.

Enabling Act: The Enabling Act was a law passed in Germany in 1933 that gave Adolf Hitler and his cabinet the authority to enact laws without the involvement of the Reichstag, effectively sidelining parliamentary democracy. This act marked a crucial turning point that allowed the Nazi regime to consolidate power and implement its agenda, including the establishment of a totalitarian state.

European Economies: European economies refer to the economic systems and structures of countries in Europe, characterized by a mix of market and state-driven mechanisms. During the interwar period leading up to World War II, these economies faced significant challenges, including the Great Depression, which exacerbated existing tensions and contributed to political instability. The economic turmoil experienced by many European nations played a crucial role in shaping the conditions that ultimately led to the outbreak of World War II.

Fascism: Fascism is a far-right political ideology characterized by authoritarian nationalism, centralized control of the economy, suppression of political opposition, and strong regimentation of society. This ideology emerged in early 20th-century Europe, where it significantly influenced various regimes, leading to global conflicts and shaping responses to modernity through technology and exchange.

Fascist Dictatorship: A fascist dictatorship is a form of authoritarian government characterized by dictatorial power, extreme nationalism, suppression of political opposition, and often a centralized control of the economy and society. This regime prioritizes the state above the individual and promotes a unified national identity, which was notably prevalent in Europe during the interwar period and contributed significantly to the causes of global conflict.

France: France is a country in Western Europe known for its rich history, cultural influence, and significant role in global events. Throughout history, France has been a major player in political, social, and economic changes, impacting areas such as industrialization, imperialism, world wars, and decolonization.

Germany: Germany is a nation-state in Central Europe that became a unified country in 1871, playing a crucial role in various global events and conflicts from the late 19th century onwards. Its industrial growth, nationalistic movements, and political ambitions significantly influenced the course of European history, particularly during major wars and economic developments.

German-speaking Regions: German-speaking Regions refer to areas primarily in Central Europe where German is the predominant language and culture. These regions include Germany, Austria, Switzerland, and parts of Italy, Belgium, and France. Understanding these areas is crucial to grasping the nationalistic movements and tensions that contributed to the outbreak of World War II.

Global Economic Crisis: The Global Economic Crisis refers to the severe worldwide economic downturn that began in the late 1920s, peaking during the Great Depression of the 1930s. This crisis led to massive unemployment, deflation, and a drastic decline in industrial production and trade, significantly impacting economies and societies around the world. The crisis fundamentally reshaped global economic systems and contributed to political instability and conflict leading up to World War II.

Great Depression: The Great Depression was a severe worldwide economic downturn that lasted from 1929 until the late 1930s, marked by massive unemployment, significant declines in consumer spending, and widespread poverty. Its effects rippled across nations, leading to political instability, social unrest, and changes in government policies as countries struggled to recover.

Hitler: Adolf Hitler was the leader of the National Socialist German Workers' Party (Nazi Party) and Chancellor of Germany from 1933 to 1945. He is infamous for his role in initiating World

War II and for orchestrating the Holocaust, which led to the mass murder of six million Jews and millions of others deemed undesirable by the Nazi regime. His aggressive expansionist policies and totalitarian rule contributed significantly to the causes of global conflict and widespread atrocities in the 20th century.

Imperialism: Imperialism is the policy or practice of extending a country's power and influence through diplomacy or military force. It often involves the domination of one nation over another, which can lead to the exploitation of resources and people, shaping global politics, economics, and cultures in significant ways.

Interwar Period: The Interwar Period refers to the time between the end of World War I in 1918 and the beginning of World War II in 1939. This era was marked by significant political, economic, and social upheaval, as countries grappled with unresolved tensions from the war, leading to unstable governments, the rise of totalitarian regimes, and eventual global conflict.

International Trade and Investment: International trade and investment refers to the exchange of goods, services, and capital across international borders. This system allows countries to access resources, technology, and markets beyond their own, fostering economic interdependence and growth. The dynamics of international trade and investment are shaped by factors such as colonialism, economic policies, and global demand, which can influence relationships between nations and ultimately contribute to geopolitical tensions.

Invasion of Ethiopia: The Invasion of Ethiopia was a military campaign launched by Fascist Italy in October 1935, aimed at expanding its colonial empire and asserting its power in Africa. This invasion highlighted the failure of the League of Nations to maintain peace and prevent aggression, as Italy faced minimal repercussions for its actions, which set a dangerous precedent leading up to World War II.

Italy's National Fascist Party (PNF): Italy's National Fascist Party (PNF) was a political party founded by Benito Mussolini in 1921 that promoted a totalitarian regime characterized by nationalism, militarism, and the suppression of dissent. The PNF played a pivotal role in shaping Italian politics during the interwar period and significantly contributed to the rise of fascism in Europe, setting the stage for the events leading to World War II.

Japan: Japan is an island nation in East Asia that underwent significant transformation during the 19th and 20th centuries, especially with its rapid industrialization and emergence as a global power. This transformation connected Japan to broader global developments and conflicts, influencing its political, economic, and military trajectory.

League of Nations: The League of Nations was an intergovernmental organization founded after World War I aimed at promoting peace and cooperation among countries. Established in 1920, its main goals were to prevent wars through collective security, disarmament, and resolving international disputes diplomatically. Despite its ambitious objectives, the League struggled to maintain peace and address the unresolved tensions that followed the war, ultimately failing to prevent the rise of conflicts that led to World War II.

March on Rome: The March on Rome was a significant political event that took place in October 1922, where Benito Mussolini and his Fascist followers mobilized supporters to march towards the Italian capital, demanding power and a change in government. This demonstration symbolized the rise of fascism in Italy and the beginning of Mussolini's regime, which would have lasting implications for European politics and the lead-up to World War II.

Media: Media refers to various channels and platforms used for communication, including print, broadcast, and digital formats. It plays a crucial role in shaping public perception, influencing political discourse, and disseminating information. In the context of historical events, media has been instrumental in spreading propaganda, shaping national narratives, and facilitating communication in newly independent states.

Militarism: Militarism is the belief that a country should maintain a strong military capability and be prepared to use it aggressively to defend or promote national interests. This mindset fosters an environment where military power is prioritized over diplomatic solutions, influencing political decisions and societal values. Militarism was a significant factor in escalating tensions leading up to both World Wars, as nations invested heavily in their armed forces and adopted

aggressive postures towards one another.

Military Spending: Military spending refers to the financial resources allocated by a government for the maintenance and expansion of its armed forces, including the procurement of weapons, equipment, and personnel. This term is crucial in understanding the geopolitical tensions and conflicts leading up to World War II, as nations increased their military budgets to prepare for potential threats and assert their dominance.

Military Expansion in Germany: Military Expansion in Germany refers to the aggressive buildup and extension of the German armed forces, particularly during the interwar period leading up to World War II. This expansion was characterized by rearmament, territorial annexations, and the pursuit of an expansionist foreign policy, all driven by a desire to restore national pride and power following the constraints imposed by the Treaty of Versailles.

Movies: Movies, also known as films, are a form of visual art that combines moving images, sound, and storytelling to create an entertainment experience. In the context of the causes of World War II, movies served as a powerful medium for propaganda, shaping public opinion and national identity, while also reflecting societal fears and aspirations during a tumultuous period in history.

Munich Agreement: The Munich Agreement was a settlement reached in 1938 between Germany, the United Kingdom, France, and Italy that permitted Nazi Germany to annex portions of Czechoslovakia known as the Sudetenland. This agreement is often seen as a significant act of appeasement toward Hitler, reflecting the desire of European powers to avoid another devastating conflict after World War I, yet ultimately it failed to maintain peace and contributed to the onset of World War II.

National Sovereignty: National sovereignty is the principle that a state has the full right and power to govern itself without external interference. This concept emphasizes the importance of political independence, self-determination, and the autonomy of nations, which became particularly relevant during the lead-up to conflict as countries sought to assert their rights against external pressures.

Nazi Party: The Nazi Party, officially known as the National Socialist German Workers' Party, was a far-right political group in Germany that emerged in the early 20th century and gained control of the government in 1933 under Adolf Hitler. The party's ideology centered on nationalism, anti-communism, and a belief in the superiority of the so-called Aryan race, leading to aggressive expansionist policies and the perpetration of mass atrocities during World War II.

Newspapers: Newspapers are printed publications that provide news, information, and commentary on various events and topics, typically released on a daily or weekly basis. In the context of the causes of World War II, newspapers played a crucial role in shaping public opinion, disseminating propaganda, and influencing political discourse, contributing to the atmosphere that led to the conflict.

Paris Peace Conference: The Paris Peace Conference was a series of meetings held in 1919-1920 where the Allied powers negotiated the peace terms following World War I. This conference aimed to establish a new world order, redrawing national boundaries and creating new nations, while also addressing issues like reparations and disarmament. The outcomes of the conference laid the groundwork for unresolved tensions that emerged post-war and contributed to the causes of the next global conflict.

Poland: Poland is a Central European country that became a focal point in the lead-up to World War II, particularly due to its geopolitical position between Germany and the Soviet Union. The invasion of Poland by Nazi Germany in September 1939 marked the official beginning of World War II, as it prompted Britain and France to declare war on Germany. Poland's struggle for sovereignty and the subsequent occupation highlighted the brutal tactics of both Nazi and Soviet forces during this critical period.

Political and Social Upheaval: Political and social upheaval refers to significant and often violent changes in the political and social structures of a society, typically resulting from widespread dissatisfaction among the populace. This phenomenon is often triggered by economic hardship, political repression, social inequality, or cultural shifts, leading to

revolutions, civil wars, or major reforms. In the context of events leading up to World War II, such upheaval can be seen as a catalyst for the rise of extremist ideologies and authoritarian regimes across Europe.

Poverty: Poverty is the state of being extremely poor, characterized by a lack of financial resources to meet basic living needs such as food, shelter, and healthcare. In the context of the rise of World War II, poverty played a significant role in exacerbating social unrest, political instability, and the rise of extremist ideologies, as individuals and communities struggled to survive in the aftermath of economic crises.

Power Imbalances: Power imbalances refer to the unequal distribution of power among different groups or nations, leading to significant differences in influence, control, and decision-making capabilities. In the context of global affairs leading up to World War II, these imbalances played a crucial role in shaping international relationships and contributing to tensions that ultimately escalated into conflict. Understanding these imbalances helps to clarify the motivations behind the actions of major powers during this period, as well as the responses from nations seeking to assert their own interests.

Radio: Radio is a technology that allows for the transmission of audio signals through electromagnetic waves. This innovation revolutionized communication by enabling real-time broadcasting, which played a significant role in shaping public opinion and disseminating information during major global events, particularly in the lead-up to conflicts.

Rapid Rearmament: Rapid Rearmament refers to the swift and extensive military buildup that occurred in various nations, particularly in Germany during the lead-up to World War II. This rearmament was driven by the desire of countries to strengthen their military capabilities and assert their power, especially in the context of unresolved grievances from World War I and the rise of aggressive totalitarian regimes.

Reparation payments: Reparation payments are compensatory payments made by a country to another nation for damages caused during a conflict or war. In the context of the interwar period, these payments were primarily associated with the aftermath of World War I, where Germany was mandated to pay substantial reparations under the Treaty of Versailles. This financial burden contributed to economic instability and resentment in Germany, which played a significant role in the lead-up to World War II.

Rhineland: The Rhineland is a region in western Germany, located along the Rhine River, which holds significant historical and political importance. It became a focal point of conflict and tension in the interwar period due to its rich industrial resources, particularly coal and steel, and was critical in the context of post-World War I reparations and territorial disputes that ultimately contributed to the outbreak of World War II.

Secret Police Force: A secret police force is a clandestine organization employed by a government to monitor, intimidate, and suppress political dissent or opposition. These forces operate outside the normal legal framework and often engage in surveillance, arrests, and torture to maintain state control. Their existence reflects the oppressive tactics used by totalitarian regimes, particularly in the lead-up to World War II.

Spanish Civil War: The Spanish Civil War was a brutal conflict fought from 1936 to 1939 between the Republicans, who were a coalition of leftist groups, and the Nationalists, led by General Francisco Franco. This war not only devastated Spain but also served as a precursor to World War II, showcasing the ideological battles between fascism and communism that would define much of the global conflict that followed.

Sudetenland Region: The Sudetenland Region is an area in Czechoslovakia that was home to a significant ethnic German population. Its annexation by Nazi Germany in 1938 marked a crucial event leading up to World War II, highlighting the aggressive expansionist policies of Adolf Hitler and the failures of European powers to effectively respond to such threats.

Swastika: The swastika is an ancient symbol that has been used for thousands of years, representing good fortune, well-being, and prosperity in various cultures. However, its appropriation by the Nazi Party in Germany during the 20th century transformed it into a symbol associated with hatred, racism, and anti-Semitism, significantly contributing to the

causes of World War II as it became emblematic of the regime's ideologies and actions.

Territorial Disputes: Territorial disputes refer to disagreements over the ownership or control of land between different entities, such as countries or regions. These disputes can arise from historical claims, cultural ties, or strategic interests and often lead to conflict. During the lead-up to global conflict, such disputes played a crucial role in shaping alliances, triggering military actions, and influencing national policies.

Totalitarian Regimes: Totalitarian regimes are political systems where the state holds total authority over the society and seeks to control all aspects of public and private life. These regimes often employ propaganda, censorship, and state terror to maintain power, suppress dissent, and mobilize citizens for the regime's goals. The rise of such regimes can be linked to various global shifts in power dynamics, economic instability, and unresolved conflicts from previous wars.

Trade and Manufacturing: Trade and Manufacturing refers to the interconnected systems of commerce and production that facilitate the exchange of goods and services across different regions. This relationship is critical as it not only shapes economies but also influences political dynamics, societal structures, and technological advancements. In the lead-up to World War II, shifts in trade patterns and industrial production were pivotal, contributing to economic tensions and rivalries among nations.

Treaty of Versailles: The Treaty of Versailles was a peace treaty signed in 1919 that officially ended World War I, imposing heavy reparations and territorial losses on Germany. It aimed to establish lasting peace but instead created significant economic and political instability in Europe, setting the stage for future conflicts.

United Kingdom: The United Kingdom (UK) is a sovereign nation located off the northwestern coast of mainland Europe, composed of Great Britain and Northern Ireland. Throughout history, it has been a major global power, influencing economic development, political structures, and international relations, particularly during the Industrial Revolution, the two World Wars, and the formation of modern global institutions.

Unemployment: Unemployment refers to the state of being without a job while actively seeking work. It is a critical economic indicator that reflects the health of an economy, especially during periods of economic downturn. High unemployment rates can lead to social unrest and contribute to political instability, influencing public policy and governmental responses.

U.S. Banks and Financial Institutions: U.S. Banks and Financial Institutions are organizations that provide financial services, including accepting deposits, making loans, and offering investment products. During the interwar period, these institutions played a critical role in the economy, particularly in the aftermath of the Great Depression, influencing both domestic and international financial stability and contributing to the conditions that led to World War II.

War Guilt Clause: The War Guilt Clause was a provision in the Treaty of Versailles that placed full blame for World War I on Germany and its allies. This clause not only imposed heavy reparations on Germany but also created deep resentment and a sense of humiliation among the German population, which contributed to the rise of extremist political movements, including Nazism, in the interwar period.

Youth Organizations: Youth organizations are structured groups aimed at engaging young people in various activities, including social, educational, and political initiatives. In the context of the lead-up to World War II, these organizations often played a significant role in promoting nationalist ideologies and militarization, particularly in countries like Germany and Italy. By providing a platform for youth to develop loyalty to the state, these organizations helped foster a sense of unity and purpose that was crucial for the regimes in power.

7.7 Conducting World War II

World War II, like World War I, was a **total war**—but on a much larger scale. It mobilized millions of troops from every inhabited continent and reshaped the political, social, and economic fabric of the globe. Colonies of the Allied Powers, such as India (under Britain), contributed significantly to the war effort, making the conflict truly global.

At their peak, the major powers fielded massive armies:

Country	Peak Troop Strength (approx.)
United States	12.36 million
Soviet Union	12.5 million
Germany	10 million
France	5 million
United Kingdom	4.87 million
Italy	4.5 million
Japan	6.1 million

Mobilizing Populations for Total War

To win the war, governments had to mobilize every available resource—human, industrial, and ideological. Strategies varied across regimes but often relied on a combination of propaganda, ideology, and centralized planning.

Political Propaganda

All belligerent nations used propaganda to galvanize public support. Governments employed:

- Emotional appeals:** Framing the war as a defense of national values and freedom.
- Demonization of the enemy:** Depicting Axis or Allied powers as inhumane threats.
- Heroic narratives:** Highlighting the bravery of soldiers and sacrifice of civilians.
- Popular culture and celebrities:** Leveraging radio, film, and art for mass appeal.
- Media control:** Using censorship to hide setbacks and control public morale.
- Colonial propaganda:** Targeting imperial possessions to secure loyalty and resources.

Examples of Propaganda in Action

Britain: The Ministry of Information used films and posters like “Keep Calm and Carry On” and “Careless Talk Costs Lives” to preserve unity and boost morale.



British WWII propaganda post. Courtesy of Hennepin County Library.

United States: The Office of War Information (OWI) mass-produced posters ("Uncle Sam Wants You") and partnered with Hollywood to stir patriotism.



Uncle Sam's "I want you". Image courtesy of Wikipedia

Japan: The Naval Ministry produced animated films such as *Momotaro: Sacred Sailors* to glorify Japanese expansion and military loyalty.

Using Ideology to Mobilize

Authoritarian and totalitarian states leaned heavily on ideology to justify war and direct national efforts. They repressed dissent and emphasized loyalty to the state and its leader.

Comparative Overview of Wartime Ideologies

Country	Ideology	Mobilization Strategies
Nazi Germany	Fascism/Nazism	Aryan supremacy, antisemitism, command economy, SS enforcement
Fascist Italy	Fascism	Corporate state, nationalism, youth conscription, public works
Imperial Japan	Fascism/Emperor cult	Emperor worship, bushido code, loyalty through military control
Soviet Union	Communism	Central planning, collectivization, propaganda, repression
United States	Democracy/Capitalism	War bonds, free press, mass production, democratic mobilization
United Kingdom	Constitutional monarchy	Volunteer enlistment, rationing, unity through shared sacrifice

Totalitarian states like Germany, Italy, Japan, and the USSR emphasized ideology to justify repression and total war mobilization. In contrast, democratic powers like the U.S. and Britain relied more on voluntary participation and civil liberties while still employing propaganda and centralized planning.

Technological Innovation and Wartime Tactics

World War II featured dramatic advances in military technology and new tactics that increased destruction and casualties.

Aircraft: Long-range bombers enabled devastating air raids on civilian and industrial targets.

Naval Warfare: Submarines and radar-controlled naval guns revolutionized sea combat.

Atomic Weapons: The U.S. used atomic bombs on **Hiroshima** and **Nagasaki**, killing over 200,000 and ushering in the nuclear age.



Locations where the atomic bombs were dropped. Photo courtesy of Wikimedia.

Firebombing: Cities like **Dresden**, **Tokyo**, and **Hamburg** were bombed to terrorize civilian populations into surrender.

Blitzkrieg: Germany's "lightning war" tactic emphasized rapid, mechanized attacks.

These strategies blurred the line between combatants and civilians, making the war more brutal and expansive than WWI.

War Efforts in Key Nations

United States

Enacted the **Lend-Lease Act** to support Allies with weapons and materials.

Mobilized mass production, ending the Great Depression through wartime industry.

Women joined the workforce en masse, symbolized by **Rosie the Riveter**.

Adopted an **island-hopping strategy** in the Pacific to reach Japan gradually.

United Kingdom

Resisted Nazi invasion through air power in the **Battle of Britain**.

Partnered with the U.S. for joint military production and strategic planning.

Maintained colonial support through targeted propaganda and recruitment.

Soviet Union

Faced immense losses due to early defeats and Stalin's purges of military leadership.

Staged a massive comeback after **Battle of Stalingrad** with U.S. and British aid.

Used centralized planning and forced labor to maintain arms production.

Germany

Mobilized all sectors of society under a command economy.

Persecuted Jews and minorities under genocidal policies while pursuing total war.

Relied on rapid military advances before supply chains and manpower faltered.

Italy

Initially invaded Ethiopia and intervened in Spain pre-WWII.

Weak performance during WWII led to Mussolini's ousting in 1943.

Northern Italy became a German puppet state after his removal.

Japan

Expanded its empire across Asia and the Pacific.

Justified conquests under the **Greater East Asia Co-Prosperity Sphere**.

Refused to surrender until after the atomic bombings of Hiroshima and Nagasaki.

Conclusion

World War II was the apex of **total war**, with every nation's political system, ideology, economy, and civilian population deeply embedded in the conflict. While strategies varied across regimes, all powers used propaganda, industrial might, and new technologies to achieve victory—at an extraordinary human cost.

Key Terms to Review

Allied Powers: The Allied Powers were a coalition of countries that opposed the Central Powers during World War I and later included key nations fighting against the Axis Powers during World War II. This alliance initially consisted of major powers like France, Russia, and the United Kingdom, which later expanded to include the United States and other nations. Their collaboration was crucial in both conflicts, significantly shaping the course of history and international relations in the 20th century.

Atomic Weapons: Atomic weapons, also known as nuclear weapons, are explosive devices that derive their destructive force from nuclear reactions, either fission or fusion. These weapons were developed during World War II and played a crucial role in the conflict's conclusion, as they significantly changed the landscape of warfare and international relations in the subsequent Cold War period.

Blitzkrieg Tactics: Blitzkrieg tactics, translated as 'lightning war,' were a military strategy used by Germany in World War II that emphasized rapid and surprise attacks utilizing a combination of air power and ground forces. This approach aimed to quickly incapacitate the enemy's ability to respond, leading to swift victories through the coordinated use of tanks, infantry, and aircraft. By employing these tactics, Germany sought to minimize the duration of conflict and reduce casualties while maximizing the shock effect on opponents.

Bombings on Hiroshima and Nagasaki: The bombings on Hiroshima and Nagasaki were pivotal events during World War II when the United States dropped atomic bombs on these Japanese cities in August 1945. These bombings marked the first and only use of nuclear weapons in warfare, leading to Japan's unconditional surrender and the end of World War II. The bombings also ushered in a new era of military strategy and global politics, highlighting the devastating power of nuclear weapons.

Britain: Britain refers to the island nation that became a global powerhouse during the Industrial Revolution, particularly in the 18th and 19th centuries. Its vast maritime empire and innovative industrial practices positioned it as a leader in economic, political, and cultural spheres, influencing global dynamics and interactions across different regions.

Communism (Soviet Union): Communism in the Soviet Union was a political and economic ideology that aimed for a classless society where all property is publicly owned and each person works and is paid according to their abilities and needs. This system emerged after the Russian Revolution of 1917 and was characterized by state control over the economy, centralized planning, and the suppression of political dissent, which played a significant role during World War II as the USSR fought against Axis powers.

Communicating through various mediums: Communicating through various mediums refers to the diverse methods and channels used to convey information, ideas, and messages, particularly during significant historical events. During World War II, this included radio broadcasts, newspapers, film, and propaganda, all of which played crucial roles in shaping public perception, morale, and information dissemination across different populations involved in the conflict.

Corporate State Concept (Italy): The Corporate State Concept was an economic and political system developed in Italy under Benito Mussolini, emphasizing the collaboration between the state, businesses, and labor groups to manage the economy. This approach aimed to eliminate class conflict by integrating various social groups into a single framework that promoted national unity and economic productivity, particularly during the era of World War II.

Demonizing the enemy: Demonizing the enemy refers to the practice of portraying opponents in a deeply negative light, often depicting them as evil or inhuman. This tactic is used to justify actions taken against the enemy, bolster national morale, and unite people against a common adversary during conflicts like World War II.

Emphasizing the threat to national values and freedoms: This term refers to the practice of highlighting perceived dangers to a nation's core beliefs and liberties, often to mobilize public support for actions or policies during times of conflict. During World War II, this emphasis played a crucial role in shaping public perception, rallying citizens behind wartime efforts, and justifying decisions such as internment or military aggression against perceived enemies. By framing certain groups or ideologies as threats, governments could rally their populations to defend national identity and security.

Emperor Hirohito's Cult of Emperor Ideology (Japan): Emperor Hirohito's Cult of Emperor Ideology refers to the pervasive belief system in Japan during the early 20th century, which positioned the emperor as a divine figure and a central element of national identity. This ideology was deeply intertwined with militarism and nationalism, contributing to Japan's expansionist policies and participation in World War II. It played a crucial role in mobilizing the Japanese populace and justifying aggressive military actions during the conflict.

Extending propaganda to colonies: Extending propaganda to colonies refers to the strategic use of information, messaging, and media by colonial powers to influence public opinion and maintain control over their overseas territories. This practice was particularly important during World War II, as nations sought to galvanize support for the war effort among colonized populations and reinforce loyalty to the mother country.

Fascism (Italy, Japan): Fascism is a far-right political ideology characterized by authoritarianism, nationalism, and the suppression of political dissent. In both Italy and Japan, fascist regimes emerged in the early 20th century, emphasizing state power, militarism, and the unification of the nation under a strong leader. These regimes played a significant role in shaping the

aggressive foreign policies and expansionist goals of their respective countries during World War II.

Firearms Varieties: Firearms varieties refer to the different types of guns and ammunition used during warfare, specifically in World War II, which included handguns, rifles, machine guns, and artillery. Each type of firearm had its own unique design, purpose, and technological advancements that influenced tactics and strategies on the battlefield. These varieties played a crucial role in shaping military engagements and the overall outcome of the war.

France: France is a country in Western Europe known for its rich history, cultural influence, and significant role in global events. Throughout history, France has been a major player in political, social, and economic changes, impacting areas such as industrialization, imperialism, world wars, and decolonization.

Franklin Roosevelt's Mobilization Strategy: Franklin Roosevelt's Mobilization Strategy refers to the comprehensive approach taken by the U.S. government under President Franklin D. Roosevelt to prepare the nation for participation in World War II. This strategy included transforming the American economy, ramping up industrial production, and organizing military resources to ensure that the United States could effectively support its allies and equip its armed forces for the conflict ahead.

Germany: Germany is a nation-state in Central Europe that became a unified country in 1871, playing a crucial role in various global events and conflicts from the late 19th century onwards. Its industrial growth, nationalistic movements, and political ambitions significantly influenced the course of European history, particularly during major wars and economic developments.

Island Hopping Strategy: The Island Hopping Strategy was a military tactic employed by Allied forces during World War II to capture strategic islands in the Pacific while bypassing heavily fortified enemy positions. This approach aimed to establish supply bases and airfields that could be used to launch further attacks against Japan, effectively cutting off Japanese resources and weakening their military presence in the region.

Italy: Italy is a European country located in the southern part of the continent, known for its rich history, cultural heritage, and significant influence on world affairs. It played a pivotal role in various historical events, particularly during the rise of nationalism in the 19th century, and became a major player in both World Wars, affecting global politics and conflicts.

Japan: Japan is an island nation in East Asia that underwent significant transformation during the 19th and 20th centuries, especially with its rapid industrialization and emergence as a global power. This transformation connected Japan to broader global developments and conflicts, influencing its political, economic, and military trajectory.

Lend-Lease Act: The Lend-Lease Act was a program initiated by the United States during World War II that allowed the government to supply Allied nations with military equipment, supplies, and support without requiring immediate payment. This act marked a significant shift in U.S. foreign policy from neutrality to active support for nations fighting against Axis powers, facilitating military and economic collaboration that played a crucial role in the overall conduct of the war.

Ministry of Information (Great Britain): The Ministry of Information was a British government department created during World War II to oversee and coordinate propaganda efforts, managing the flow of information to the public and shaping public opinion. Its establishment reflected the importance of information control in maintaining morale and promoting national unity during the war, as well as countering enemy propaganda.

Military Technologies and Tactics: Military technologies and tactics refer to the various tools, weapons, and strategies employed by armed forces to achieve objectives in warfare. This term encompasses advancements such as mechanized infantry, aerial bombardment, and the development of nuclear weapons, as well as strategies like blitzkrieg and amphibious assaults that defined military operations during conflicts. These technologies and tactics played a crucial role in shaping the outcomes of battles and the overall direction of warfare, particularly during World War II.

Mobilizing Populations: Mobilizing populations refers to the process of organizing and preparing a country's citizens for participation in war efforts, including military service, production of war materials, and support on the home front. This concept is crucial during periods of large-scale conflict, particularly during World War II, as nations required full engagement from their citizens to sustain military campaigns and support economic demands.

Momotaro: Sacred Sailors (Japan): Momotaro: Sacred Sailors is a Japanese animated film released in 1945, serving as a propaganda piece during World War II. The story follows Momotaro, a legendary hero who leads a group of animal companions on a quest to defeat evil forces, representing Japan's fight against its enemies in the war. The film combines folklore with nationalistic themes to promote unity and resilience among the Japanese people during a time of conflict.

National Socialism (Germany): National Socialism, often associated with the Nazi Party in Germany, was an extreme political ideology that combined elements of nationalism, racism, and totalitarianism. It emerged in the early 20th century and led to the establishment of a dictatorship under Adolf Hitler, promoting aggressive expansionist policies, anti-Semitism, and militarization, ultimately shaping the course of World War II.

Nazism (Germany): Nazism, or National Socialism, was a totalitarian ideology and political movement led by Adolf Hitler in Germany from the 1920s to the end of World War II in 1945. It emphasized extreme nationalism, racial purity, anti-Semitism, and the establishment of a dictatorial regime. This ideology profoundly shaped Germany's actions and policies during World War II, leading to aggressive expansionism and the perpetration of the Holocaust.

Office of War Information (United States): The Office of War Information (OWI) was a United States government agency created during World War II to coordinate and disseminate information related to the war effort. The OWI aimed to boost morale, promote patriotism, and encourage support for military and home front initiatives through various media, including films, radio broadcasts, and print publications.

Personalizing the war effort: Personalizing the war effort refers to the ways in which individuals and communities were encouraged to feel personally invested in the war during World War II, making it a collective experience that transcended mere military actions. This concept aimed to create a strong emotional connection among civilians, motivating them to contribute actively through various means, such as rationing, buying war bonds, or participating in volunteer programs. By fostering this sense of personal involvement, governments sought to unify society and bolster morale in support of the war effort.

Propaganda Principles: Propaganda principles refer to the techniques and strategies used to influence public opinion and behavior, often during times of conflict or crisis. In the context of World War II, these principles played a crucial role in shaping narratives around the war, mobilizing support for military efforts, and demonizing the enemy. By using various media forms such as posters, films, and radio broadcasts, governments effectively conveyed messages that aimed to unify their populations and instill a sense of purpose.

Schutzstaffel - SS (Germany): The Schutzstaffel, commonly known as the SS, was a major paramilitary organization under Adolf Hitler and the Nazi Party in Germany from the 1920s through the end of World War II. Initially formed as a personal bodyguard for Hitler, the SS grew into one of the most powerful and feared organizations in Nazi Germany, responsible for numerous war crimes and the implementation of the Holocaust.

Soviet Union: The Soviet Union, officially known as the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics (USSR), was a socialist state that existed from 1922 to 1991, encompassing a vast territory across Eastern Europe and Northern Asia. It played a central role in global politics, particularly during the 20th century, influencing ideological conflicts and shaping world events during and after the World Wars.

Tanks: Tanks are heavily armored combat vehicles equipped with large-caliber cannons and tracks for mobility across various terrains. They were introduced during World War I as a response to the stalemate of trench warfare, revolutionizing battlefield tactics and strategies. In World War II, tanks became central to mechanized warfare, providing both firepower and

mobility to armies, significantly influencing the outcomes of numerous battles.

United States: The United States is a federal republic established in 1776, formed from thirteen British colonies in North America. It has been a significant player in global politics, economics, and culture, influencing various movements related to nationalism, industrialization, and international conflicts throughout its history.

Using celebrities and popular culture to promote the war effort: This approach refers to the strategic use of famous personalities and elements of popular culture to encourage public support for military campaigns and promote nationalistic sentiments during wartime. This method was prevalent during World War II, where celebrities were enlisted in various propaganda efforts to boost morale, raise funds, and galvanize public participation in the war effort, showcasing the connection between entertainment and national duty.

Using censorship to control the narrative: Using censorship to control the narrative refers to the practice of suppressing or altering information and communication to shape public perception and opinion. During times of conflict, especially in World War II, governments often employed censorship to manage the flow of information, restrict dissent, and promote propaganda that aligned with their objectives. This technique was vital for maintaining morale, ensuring national unity, and controlling how events were portrayed both domestically and internationally.

Winston Churchill's Leadership: Winston Churchill's leadership refers to his role as the Prime Minister of the United Kingdom during World War II, where he became a symbol of British resilience and determination. His unwavering commitment to victory and his powerful oratory inspired the British people during one of their darkest times, influencing both military strategies and morale. Churchill's leadership style was characterized by decisiveness, courage, and a strong belief in the necessity of fighting against totalitarianism.

World War II: World War II was a global conflict that lasted from 1939 to 1945, involving most of the world's nations and resulting in significant military, political, and social changes. It was marked by widespread atrocities, the rise of totalitarian regimes, and the use of advanced technology in warfare, ultimately reshaping the global order.

7.8 Mass Atrocities After 1900

Mass atrocities in the 20th century and beyond revealed how extremist ideologies, political instability, and nationalist movements could lead to devastating violence against entire populations. These acts of genocide and ethnic cleansing were often fueled by totalitarian regimes, racial ideologies, and political repression.

The Holocaust

The Holocaust remains the most infamous genocide of the 20th century. Under the Nazi regime, led by **Adolf Hitler**, the state orchestrated the systematic extermination of 6 million Jews and millions of others, including Roma people, Slavs, disabled individuals, political dissidents, and LGBTQ+ people.

Legal Discrimination: It began in 1933 with laws that stripped Jews of citizenship, rights, and economic access. Children were bullied in schools, adults lost jobs, and property was confiscated.

Kristallnacht (1938): A state-sponsored pogrom where Jewish synagogues, homes, and businesses were destroyed.

Final Solution (1941): Hitler's plan to exterminate all Jews. Victims were deported to **concentration camps** like Auschwitz, where many were executed in gas chambers or worked to death.

Death Toll: Over 6 million Jews and 5 million non-Jewish victims perished.

Why it matters: The Holocaust was a turning point in human rights awareness, leading to the creation of the **Universal Declaration of Human Rights (1948)**.

The Nuremberg Trials

After WWII, Allied powers conducted the **Nuremberg Trials** to hold Nazi leaders accountable for crimes against humanity, war crimes, and genocide. These trials set an international precedent for prosecuting state-led atrocities.

Other Major Mass Atrocities of the 20th Century

Below is a comparison of key genocides and mass atrocities from 1900 to the present:

Event	When?	Where?	Target Group(s)	Number Killed
Armenian Genocide	During & after WWI	Ottoman Empire	Armenians	~1.5 million
Holodomor & Famines	1920s and 1930s	Soviet Union	Ukrainians	~3.5 million

Event	When?	Where?	Target Group(s)	Number Killed
Cambodian Genocide	Late 1970s	Cambodia	Cambodians	1.5 to 2 million
Rwandan Genocide	1990s	Rwanda	Tutsis	500,000 to 1 million

Armenian Genocide

Carried out by the **Ottoman Empire** during WWI and its aftermath:

Armenians were deported on death marches into the Syrian desert.

Many died from **starvation, disease, and mass executions**.

Women and children were often sold into slavery or forcibly converted.

This genocide is still not officially recognized by some nations.

Holodomor (Ukraine)

Under **Joseph Stalin**, the Soviet regime imposed policies of forced collectivization that led to famine:

Food requisitioning left peasants with nothing.

Despite mass starvation, the USSR exported grain abroad.

3–7 million Ukrainians died; many scholars regard it as a genocide.

Cambodian Genocide

Led by **Pol Pot's Khmer Rouge** regime (1975–1979):

Aimed to create an agrarian communist utopia.

Urban populations were forced into labor camps.

Targets: Intellectuals, ethnic minorities, monks.

Over 20% of Cambodia's population died from starvation, forced labor, or execution.

Rwandan Genocide

Took place in 1994, over a span of just 100 days:

The **Hutu-led Interahamwe militia** targeted **Tutsis and moderate Hutus**.

Civilians were massacred in schools, churches, and homes.

Rape was used as a weapon of war.

UN peacekeepers were unable to intervene in time.

Legacy: The Rwandan Genocide highlighted the international community's failure to prevent genocide despite early warning signs. It led to the creation of the **Responsibility to Protect (R2P)** doctrine.

Conclusion

Mass atrocities in the 20th century were not isolated incidents. They reflected broader trends of **state violence**, **ideological extremism**, and **ethnic scapegoating**. These events reshaped international law and continue to influence global conversations about **human rights**, **sovereignty**, and **justice**.

Key Terms to Review

Anti-Semitism: Anti-Semitism refers to prejudice, discrimination, or hostility directed against Jews. This term encompasses a wide range of negative attitudes and beliefs about Jewish people, often rooted in stereotypes, conspiracy theories, and historical scapegoating. Throughout history, anti-Semitism has manifested in various forms, leading to social exclusion, violence, and systemic persecution of Jews in different societies.

Armenian Genocide: The Armenian Genocide refers to the systematic extermination of 1.5 million Armenians by the Ottoman Empire during World War I, between 1915 and 1923. This atrocity is one of the first modern genocides, characterized by mass killings, forced deportations, and the destruction of Armenian cultural heritage. The genocide has significant implications for understanding mass atrocities in the 20th century and the ongoing discourse around human rights and justice.

Auschwitz: Auschwitz was a complex of concentration and extermination camps established by Nazi Germany during World War II, located in occupied Poland. It became the most notorious symbol of the Holocaust, where over a million people, primarily Jews, were systematically murdered through mass executions and inhumane living conditions. The horrors of Auschwitz serve as a stark reminder of the atrocities committed during this dark period in history.

Cambodian Genocide: The Cambodian Genocide refers to the systematic extermination of approximately 1.7 million people in Cambodia from 1975 to 1979, perpetrated by the Khmer Rouge regime led by Pol Pot. This period of mass violence was characterized by extreme brutality, forced labor, starvation, and widespread executions, targeting intellectuals, professionals, and ethnic minorities. The genocide highlights the devastating consequences of totalitarian ideologies and the impacts of civil conflict on newly independent states.

Forced Displacement: Forced displacement refers to the coerced movement of people away from their homes or countries, often due to conflict, violence, persecution, or natural disasters. This phenomenon has been a key feature of mass atrocities in the 20th century, as governments and groups have used displacement as a tactic to eliminate or oppress specific populations.

Holocaust: The Holocaust refers to the systematic, state-sponsored persecution and extermination of six million Jews and millions of others by the Nazi regime and its collaborators during World War II. It represents one of the most horrific examples of mass atrocities in modern history, emphasizing themes of genocide, anti-Semitism, and the moral failures of society in allowing such an event to occur.

Holodomor: The Holodomor was a man-made famine that occurred in Soviet Ukraine from 1932 to 1933, resulting in the death of millions of Ukrainians due to starvation. This atrocity is considered a result of the Soviet government's policies, particularly the forced collectivization of agriculture and the confiscation of grain. It stands as a grim example of mass atrocities committed in the 20th century, reflecting the extreme measures used by totalitarian regimes to control populations and suppress dissent.

Interahamwe: The Interahamwe was a paramilitary organization in Rwanda, formed in the early 1990s, which played a pivotal role in the 1994 Rwandan genocide. This group, composed mainly of Hutu extremists, targeted the Tutsi population and moderate Hutus, leading to the

deaths of an estimated 800,000 people in just 100 days. Their actions highlight the catastrophic consequences of ethnic tensions and mass violence in the context of mass atrocities after 1900.

Khmer Rouge: The Khmer Rouge was a radical communist regime that ruled Cambodia from 1975 to 1979, led by Pol Pot. This regime is infamous for its brutal policies aimed at creating an agrarian socialist society, resulting in mass atrocities and the deaths of approximately 1.7 million people through forced labor, starvation, and executions. The Khmer Rouge's rise to power and its subsequent actions are crucial in understanding the broader themes of mass atrocities and the challenges faced by newly independent states in the late 20th century.

Kristallnacht: Kristallnacht, or the 'Night of Broken Glass,' refers to the violent pogrom against Jews in Nazi Germany and Austria that occurred on November 9-10, 1938. It marked a significant escalation in the Nazi regime's anti-Semitic policies and was characterized by the destruction of Jewish-owned businesses, synagogues, and homes, resulting in widespread fear and a clear signal of the impending atrocities that would follow during the Holocaust.

Nazi Party: The Nazi Party, officially known as the National Socialist German Workers' Party, was a far-right political group in Germany that emerged in the early 20th century and gained control of the government in 1933 under Adolf Hitler. The party's ideology centered on nationalism, anti-communism, and a belief in the superiority of the so-called Aryan race, leading to aggressive expansionist policies and the perpetration of mass atrocities during World War II.

Nuremberg Trials: The Nuremberg Trials were a series of military tribunals held after World War II to prosecute prominent leaders of Nazi Germany for war crimes, crimes against humanity, and genocide. These trials were significant not only for bringing justice to the victims of the Holocaust and other atrocities but also for establishing a precedent in international law regarding accountability for such crimes on a global scale.

Pol Pot: Pol Pot was the leader of the Khmer Rouge and the Prime Minister of Cambodia from 1975 to 1979. His regime is known for its severe brutality, leading to mass deaths in what's known as the Cambodian Genocide.

Rape of Nanjing: The Rape of Nanjing refers to the mass murder and mass sexual assault of Chinese civilians and disarmed soldiers by Japanese troops during the Second Sino-Japanese War, specifically between December 1937 and January 1938 in the city of Nanjing. This event is a horrific example of wartime atrocities and reflects the unresolved tensions following World War I, as well as the broader pattern of mass atrocities that occurred in the 20th century.

Rwandan Genocide: The Rwandan Genocide was a mass slaughter of the Tutsi ethnic minority by the Hutu majority in Rwanda that occurred over approximately 100 days from April to July 1994. This tragic event resulted in the deaths of an estimated 800,000 people and is a stark example of mass atrocities in the late 20th century, reflecting the catastrophic outcomes of ethnic tensions and the failure of international intervention during conflicts.

Social Darwinism: Social Darwinism is a social theory that emerged in the late 19th century, asserting that human societies and cultures evolve through the same natural selection process as biological species. This ideology was often used to justify imperialism and the belief in racial superiority, leading to the idea that stronger nations had the right to dominate weaker ones. It also contributed to justifications for mass atrocities by suggesting that certain groups were naturally superior and more fit for survival.

Soviet Ukraine: Soviet Ukraine refers to the Ukrainian Soviet Socialist Republic, which was a part of the Soviet Union from 1922 until its dissolution in 1991. It played a crucial role in the industrial and agricultural sectors of the USSR but was also the site of significant mass atrocities, particularly during the Holodomor, a devastating famine that resulted in millions of deaths due to forced collectivization policies.

Young Turks: The Young Turks were a reformist political group in the late Ottoman Empire, primarily active during the early 20th century, advocating for modernization, secularism, and national identity. They played a crucial role in the 1908 Young Turk Revolution, which aimed to restore the constitutional monarchy and curb the autocratic rule of Sultan Abdulhamid II, marking a significant response to the challenges posed by industrialization and modernization.

Notes and Observations:

7.9 Causation in Global Conflict

The 20th century witnessed two global wars, mass movements for independence, and ideological struggles that reshaped the modern world. The causes of these conflicts were varied—technological change, collapsing empires, and growing dissatisfaction with existing political and social systems.

This topic asks you to think **causally**: What sparked global conflict, and what long-term effects followed?

Science and Technology

The 20th century ushered in a revolution in science and technology that altered human life and contributed to both progress and destruction.

Scientific Discoveries and Military Impact

Physics: Theories of relativity and quantum mechanics expanded knowledge of the universe. The discovery of the atom led to the development of **nuclear energy and atomic weapons**, changing warfare forever.

Medicine and Biology: The discovery of DNA and advances in antibiotics, vaccines, and medical imaging revolutionized healthcare and dramatically improved life expectancy.

Agriculture: The Green Revolution introduced mechanization, chemical fertilizers, and pesticides that increased global food supplies—but sometimes led to environmental and economic challenges.

Industry: Automation, mass production, and assembly lines led to rapid industrial growth, especially in wartime economies.

Transportation: The airplane and automobile redefined speed and mobility, while jet engines and commercial airlines globalized travel.

Communication: Radio and television created global audiences and were vital tools in **wartime propaganda and public opinion shaping**.

Total War Connection: Technological innovations helped facilitate **total war**, where entire societies—civilian and military—were mobilized for conflict.

Challenging the Political and Social Order

College Board: “Peoples and states around the world challenged the existing political and social order in varying ways, leading to unprecedented worldwide conflicts.”

Balance of Power Shifts

At the beginning of the 20th century, **Western Europe dominated global politics** through powerful empires. That balance changed dramatically after two world wars:

After WWI: The U.S. became a rising economic power, but the **Great Depression** destabilized global leadership.

Interwar Period: Japan asserted dominance in East and Southeast Asia, undermining Western control.

After WWII: The United States and the Soviet Union emerged as **rival superpowers**, leading to the Cold War.

The concept of **"balance of power"** was replaced with **bipolar conflict**, as the world was largely split between capitalist and communist blocs.

Collapse of Empires and Rise of Nationalism

Why Did Empires Fall?

War Strain: WWI and WWII drained European powers militarily and economically.

Anti-Colonial Movements: Nationalist uprisings intensified in Africa, Asia, and Latin America.

Modern Warfare: Advanced weapons and tactics rendered traditional empires vulnerable.

Ideological Change: The promise of **self-determination** inspired colonized people to demand independence.

Empires That Collapsed

Ottoman Empire (after WWI)

Russian Empire (fell in 1917, replaced by the USSR)

Qing Dynasty (ended in 1911, triggering decades of instability in China)

These collapses led to **the creation of new states**, often after civil war or colonization by new powers.

After global conflict, colonies turned mandates and protectorates into battlegrounds for **decolonization** and **independence** movements.

New Forms of Government and Ideological Conflict

Global wars discredited old regimes and led to **the rise of ideologies promising national recovery or revolution.**

Ideological Responses to Crisis

Form of Government	Key Features	Examples
Democracy (Keynesian)	State spending to stimulate demand and reduce unemployment	United States, U.K., France
Socialism / Communism	State controls economy and production; classless society	USSR, Maoist China, Cuba, Vietnam
Fascism / Nazism	Ultra-nationalist, totalitarian, glorifies war and suppresses opposition	Nazi Germany, Fascist Italy, Spain
Monarchy	Power held by hereditary ruler (some constitutional, some absolute)	U.K., Japan, Saudi Arabia
Military Dictatorship	Government controlled by military officials; rule by force	Argentina, Egypt, Indonesia
Theocracy	Government led by religious leaders or based on religious law	Iran, Vatican City, Saudi Arabia

These competing ideologies often **fueled global conflict**—especially during WWII and the Cold War.

Global Consequences of Conflict

New Superpowers: The U.S. and USSR filled the void left by declining European powers.

Cold War: Ideological conflict between capitalism and communism shaped geopolitics for the rest of the 20th century.

Decolonization: Independence movements emerged from the weakened control of imperial powers.

International Institutions: The **United Nations** and **World Bank** were established to prevent future conflicts and rebuild war-torn economies.

Causation Summary Table

Cause of Conflict	Explanation	Example
Technological Innovation	Enabled total war, industrial destruction, and new weapons of mass destruction	Atomic bomb, tanks, airplanes
Collapse of Empires	Created power vacuums and nationalist movements	Fall of Ottoman, Qing, Russian Empires
Economic Instability	Led to extremism and instability	Great Depression → rise of fascism
Discontent with Political Systems	Inspired revolutions and new ideologies	Russian Revolution, Mexican Revolution
Ideological Competition	Fueled global polarization and proxy wars	Capitalism vs. Communism (Cold War)
Colonial Resistance	Challenges to imperial rule accelerated independence movements	Indian National Congress, Viet Minh

Key Terms to Review

Airplane: An airplane is a powered flying vehicle with fixed wings and a weight greater than that of the air it displaces. This innovation revolutionized transportation, enabling rapid movement of people and goods over long distances and significantly impacting global conflict by changing military strategies and warfare.

Anti-Colonial Movements: Anti-Colonial Movements are efforts by colonized people to resist and overthrow colonial rule and foreign domination. These movements emerged in response to the exploitation, oppression, and cultural erasure imposed by imperial powers, often leading to significant political, social, and economic changes in the affected regions.

Antibiotics: Antibiotics are powerful medications used to treat bacterial infections by killing or inhibiting the growth of bacteria. They have transformed medical practice, significantly reducing mortality rates from bacterial diseases and playing a critical role in global health. The discovery and widespread use of antibiotics have also influenced global conflicts, particularly in relation to military medicine and public health strategies during wartime.

Argentina: Argentina is a country located in South America, known for its rich cultural heritage, diverse landscapes, and significant historical events that shaped its identity. It has played a crucial role in regional politics and economics, particularly during periods of conflict and imperialism, impacting both its own development and the dynamics of global relations.

Assembly Line: An assembly line is a manufacturing process in which individual parts of a product are assembled in a sequential manner along a conveyor belt or production line, allowing for mass production and increased efficiency. This method revolutionized the manufacturing industry by enabling faster production rates and lowering costs, significantly impacting the economy and labor practices during industrialization and later in global conflicts.

Atomic Bomb: An atomic bomb is a weapon that uses nuclear reactions to release a massive amount of energy, resulting in an explosion of unprecedented scale and destruction. Its development during World War II marked a significant turning point in warfare, fundamentally altering global conflict dynamics and showcasing advances in scientific technology.

Automation: Automation refers to the use of technology to perform tasks without human intervention. This process has transformed various industries, significantly impacting productivity, efficiency, and labor dynamics, especially in the context of global conflict where technology plays a crucial role in warfare and military strategy.

Automobile: An automobile is a wheeled motor vehicle used for transportation, typically powered by an internal combustion engine or electric motor. The rise of the automobile revolutionized personal and commercial transport, contributing to significant social, economic, and technological changes that fueled conflicts globally during the 20th century.

Balance of Power: The Balance of Power is a political theory that suggests that national security is enhanced when military capabilities are distributed so that no one nation is strong enough to dominate all others. This concept played a significant role in shaping international relations and was particularly influential in the dynamics of global conflict and the tensions that set the stage for the Cold War and subsequent decolonization efforts.

Canada: Canada is a North American country known for its vast landscapes, diverse culture, and strong economy. As a member of the British Commonwealth, Canada has played significant roles in global conflicts, the process of decolonization, and the development of international institutions that reflect its commitment to peace and cooperation.

Chemical Fertilizers: Chemical fertilizers are synthetic substances made from chemical compounds that are used to enhance the growth of plants by supplying essential nutrients, particularly nitrogen, phosphorus, and potassium. These fertilizers have significantly increased agricultural productivity since their introduction in the 20th century, influencing global food production and economy.

China: China is a vast East Asian country with a rich history and significant influence on global affairs. Its historical legacy includes the development of unique philosophies, dynasties, and trade networks that have shaped both its identity and interactions with other nations over centuries.

Cold War: The Cold War was a prolonged period of geopolitical tension between the Soviet Union and the United States, along with their respective allies, from the end of World War II until the early 1990s. It was characterized by ideological conflict, military rivalry, and indirect confrontations, influencing global politics and society in profound ways.

Commercial Airline Industry: The Commercial Airline Industry refers to the sector of the economy that provides air transportation services for passengers and cargo. It has evolved significantly over the years, shaped by technological advancements, regulatory frameworks, and changes in consumer demand, making it a critical component of global trade and travel.

Communism: Communism is a political and economic ideology that advocates for a classless society in which the means of production are owned and controlled collectively, eliminating private property. It emerged as a response to the inequalities generated by industrial capitalism, seeking to create a system where wealth and resources are distributed according to need.

Cuba: Cuba is an island nation located in the Caribbean, known for its rich history and significant role in global politics, particularly during the Cold War era. The country's revolutionary movement led by Fidel Castro transformed it into a communist state, which became a focal point of conflict between the United States and the Soviet Union, illustrating broader themes of ideological struggle and geopolitical tension in the 20th century.

Democracies: Democracies are systems of government in which power is vested in the people, who exercise that power directly or through elected representatives. This political framework emphasizes individual rights, civic participation, and the rule of law, and has evolved over time in response to global conflicts and societal changes.

Diagnostic Imaging: Diagnostic imaging refers to the techniques and processes used to create images of the human body for clinical purposes, particularly to diagnose diseases or conditions. This technology plays a crucial role in modern medicine, as it provides healthcare professionals with vital information that influences treatment decisions and patient care.

DNA Structure: DNA structure refers to the molecular arrangement of deoxyribonucleic acid, which is essential for genetic information storage and transmission in living organisms. The classic double helix model, proposed by Watson and Crick, illustrates how two strands of DNA wind around each other, held together by base pairs of nucleotides. Understanding DNA structure is crucial in various contexts, such as genetic engineering, medicine, and the study of evolutionary relationships.

Egypt: Egypt is a country in North Africa known for its rich history, ancient civilization, and pivotal role in the development of early cultures. As a significant player in various global conflicts and a focal point for newly independent states post-1900, Egypt's strategic location and resources have influenced political dynamics and social movements throughout history.

End of Empires: The End of Empires refers to the process through which large, multi-ethnic empires disintegrated or transformed into smaller nation-states during the 20th century, largely as a result of conflicts, revolutions, and changing political ideologies. This phenomenon significantly altered the geopolitical landscape, particularly following World War I and II, leading to increased nationalism and decolonization efforts around the globe.

European Colonial Empires: European Colonial Empires were vast territories and regions controlled by European nations from the 15th century onward, primarily during the Age of Exploration, characterized by the establishment of colonies in Africa, Asia, the Americas, and Oceania. These empires played a crucial role in shaping global trade, cultural exchanges, and conflicts as European powers competed for resources, land, and influence across the world.

Fascism: Fascism is a far-right political ideology characterized by authoritarian nationalism, centralized control of the economy, suppression of political opposition, and strong regimentation of society. This ideology emerged in early 20th-century Europe, where it significantly influenced various regimes, leading to global conflicts and shaping responses to modernity through technology and exchange.

Forms of Government: Forms of government refer to the systems and structures by which a state or community is governed, encompassing various political arrangements that define the distribution of power and authority. These can include democracy, authoritarianism, monarchy, and totalitarianism, among others. The nature of a government's form can significantly influence social order, individual freedoms, and the overall governance of a society, particularly in the context of global conflicts.

Genetic Engineering: Genetic engineering is a scientific process that involves the manipulation of an organism's DNA to alter its genetic makeup, often to achieve desired traits or characteristics. This technology has significant implications across various fields, including agriculture, medicine, and biotechnology, enabling advancements such as genetically modified organisms (GMOs) and gene therapy.

Germany: Germany is a nation-state in Central Europe that became a unified country in 1871, playing a crucial role in various global events and conflicts from the late 19th century onwards. Its industrial growth, nationalistic movements, and political ambitions significantly influenced the course of European history, particularly during major wars and economic developments.

Great Depression: The Great Depression was a severe worldwide economic downturn that lasted from 1929 until the late 1930s, marked by massive unemployment, significant declines in consumer spending, and widespread poverty. Its effects rippled across nations, leading to political instability, social unrest, and changes in government policies as countries struggled to recover.

Indonesia: Indonesia is an archipelagic nation in Southeast Asia, consisting of over 17,000 islands and known for its diverse cultures, languages, and natural resources. This country has played a crucial role in global conflicts, particularly during the Cold War era when it became a focal point for both Western and communist interests, illustrating the complexities of geopolitics in the region.

Interwar Period: The Interwar Period refers to the time between the end of World War I in 1918 and the beginning of World War II in 1939. This era was marked by significant political, economic, and social upheaval, as countries grappled with unresolved tensions from the war, leading to unstable governments, the rise of totalitarian regimes, and eventual global conflict.

Iran: Iran, formerly known as Persia, is a country in Western Asia with a rich history and significant cultural heritage. It has played a crucial role in global conflicts, particularly during the 20th century, due to its geopolitical importance, oil resources, and the influence of its Islamic Revolution in 1979, which reshaped both domestic and international politics.

Jet Engine: A jet engine is a type of engine that propels an aircraft by expelling jet streams of hot gases, created by burning fuel with air, producing thrust based on Newton's third law of motion. This technological advancement revolutionized air travel, enabling faster, more efficient flights and changing the dynamics of global conflict by altering military strategies and logistics.

Italy: Italy is a European country located in the southern part of the continent, known for its rich history, cultural heritage, and significant influence on world affairs. It played a pivotal role in various historical events, particularly during the rise of nationalism in the 19th century, and became a major player in both World Wars, affecting global politics and conflicts.

Japan: Japan is an island nation in East Asia that underwent significant transformation during the 19th and 20th centuries, especially with its rapid industrialization and emergence as a global power. This transformation connected Japan to broader global developments and conflicts, influencing its political, economic, and military trajectory.

Keynesian Economics: Keynesian Economics is an economic theory developed by John Maynard Keynes, advocating for increased government spending and intervention during economic downturns to stimulate demand and pull the economy out of recession. This approach emphasizes the role of aggregate demand in influencing economic activity and suggests that government policies can help mitigate the negative effects of economic cycles.

Mass Production: Mass production refers to the process of manufacturing large quantities of goods using standardized processes and assembly line techniques. This method revolutionized industries, making products more affordable and widely available, while also influencing social and economic structures in profound ways.

Mechanization in Agriculture: Mechanization in agriculture refers to the use of machinery and technology to perform agricultural tasks that were previously done by hand or with animal power. This process significantly increased productivity and efficiency in farming, allowing for larger-scale operations and a shift towards commercial agriculture. The rise of mechanization also contributed to changes in labor dynamics, rural economies, and agricultural practices across the globe.

Military Dictatorships: Military dictatorships are authoritarian regimes where the military controls the government, often led by a single military leader or junta. These governments usually emerge during times of political instability or crisis, frequently justified by claims of restoring order and national security, which connects them to larger patterns of global conflict and power struggles.

Monarchies: Monarchies are forms of government where a single person, known as a monarch, rules as head of state, often for life and by hereditary right. This system can vary widely in power dynamics, from absolute monarchies, where the monarch has almost complete control, to constitutional monarchies, where the monarch's powers are limited by law or a governing body. Understanding monarchies is essential for grasping how political power was centralized and legitimized throughout history.

Nuclear Physics: Nuclear physics is the branch of physics that deals with the structure and behavior of atomic nuclei. It explores the forces that hold nuclei together, the processes of nuclear reactions, and the interactions between particles at the atomic level. This field is crucial in understanding not only the fundamental principles of matter but also the underlying causes of global conflicts that arise from nuclear technology, such as arms races and the ethical implications of nuclear weapons.

Ottoman Empire: The Ottoman Empire was a vast and influential Islamic state that existed from the late 13th century until the early 20th century, encompassing parts of Europe, Asia, and Africa. It played a crucial role in shaping political, cultural, and economic landscapes across these regions, particularly as it navigated challenges related to modernization, nationalism, and imperialism.

Pesticides: Pesticides are chemical substances used to kill or control pests, including insects, weeds, and fungi, that threaten agricultural productivity. These chemicals have played a significant role in modern agriculture, increasing crop yields and ensuring food security but also raising concerns regarding environmental health and safety due to their potential adverse effects.

Political and Social Order: Political and Social Order refers to the framework of governance and societal structure that organizes a community or state. It includes the systems of authority, laws, and social hierarchies that define how power is distributed and exercised within a society, influencing stability and conflict. Understanding this concept is crucial when examining the causes of global conflict, as disruptions in political and social order can lead to instability, rebellion, or war.

Portugal: Portugal was a pioneering maritime nation in the 15th and 16th centuries, known for its exploration, trade, and the establishment of an extensive colonial empire. As one of the first European powers to engage in overseas exploration, Portugal played a crucial role in shaping global trade networks and cultural exchanges during the Age of Discovery.

Qing Dynasty: The Qing Dynasty was the last imperial dynasty of China, ruling from 1644 to 1912, and was established by the Manchu people after they overthrew the Ming Dynasty. This period is marked by significant territorial expansion, cultural exchanges, and conflicts with Western powers, influencing China's response to modernization and industrialization.

Radio Technology: Radio technology refers to the transmission and reception of electromagnetic waves to facilitate communication over distances without the need for physical connections. This technology revolutionized global communication, enabling instant information sharing and significantly influencing military strategies, propaganda, and public opinion during times of conflict.

Quantum Mechanics: Quantum mechanics is a fundamental theory in physics that describes the physical properties of nature at the scale of atoms and subatomic particles. It challenges classical mechanics by introducing concepts like wave-particle duality, quantization of energy, and the uncertainty principle, which all play a significant role in understanding the behavior of matter and energy, particularly in the context of global conflict.

Russian Empire: The Russian Empire was a vast and influential state that existed from 1721 until the Russian Revolution in 1917, covering Eastern Europe, Northern Asia, and parts of North America. It was marked by extensive territorial expansion and a centralized autocratic government, reflecting both the ambitions and challenges of one of history's largest empires.

Saudi Arabia: Saudi Arabia is a country located in the Middle East, known for its vast deserts and being the birthplace of Islam. Established as a kingdom in 1932 under King Abdulaziz Ibn Saud, it plays a crucial role in global politics and economics due to its significant oil reserves and strategic location, which have made it a key player in global conflicts and alliances.

Science and Technology: Science and technology refer to the systematic study of the natural world through observation and experimentation, alongside the application of scientific knowledge for practical purposes. This relationship is crucial as advancements in science often lead to new technologies, while technological innovations can enhance scientific research. Together, they have significantly shaped human societies, economies, and conflicts throughout history.

Socialism: Socialism is an economic and political system that advocates for collective or governmental ownership and administration of the means of production and distribution of goods. This ideology emerged as a response to the inequalities generated by capitalism, promoting social welfare and aiming to reduce class distinctions.

Soviet Union: The Soviet Union, officially known as the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics (USSR), was a socialist state that existed from 1922 to 1991, encompassing a vast territory across Eastern Europe and Northern Asia. It played a central role in global politics, particularly during the 20th century, influencing ideological conflicts and shaping world events during and after the World Wars.

Spain: Spain was a prominent European nation that emerged as a global power from the late 15th century, particularly following the unification of the Crown of Castile and the Crown of Aragon. It played a pivotal role in establishing maritime empires, colonizing vast territories in the Americas, and significantly influencing global trade, culture, and politics during the early modern period.

Television: Television is an electronic medium for transmitting moving images and sound, serving as a major source of entertainment, information, and education since its popularization in the mid-20th century. It has transformed how people consume content and has significantly influenced public opinion and cultural norms across the globe.

Theocratic States: Theocratic states are political systems in which religious leaders control the government, and the state's legal system is based on religious law. In these systems, governance and spirituality are intertwined, leading to a society where political decisions are heavily influenced or dictated by religious doctrines. Theocratic states often emerge in contexts where religion plays a central role in people's lives, creating a framework that can lead to both unity and conflict within and outside the state.

Theory of Relativity: The Theory of Relativity, developed by Albert Einstein in the early 20th century, revolutionized our understanding of space, time, and gravity, proposing that the laws of physics are the same for all observers regardless of their relative motion. This theory fundamentally altered the scientific view of the universe, introducing concepts such as the curvature of spacetime and the relationship between mass and energy, encapsulated in the famous equation $E=mc^2$. The implications of this theory extended beyond physics, influencing various aspects of global conflict, technological advancements, and international relations during its era.

United Kingdom: The United Kingdom (UK) is a sovereign nation located off the northwestern coast of mainland Europe, composed of Great Britain and Northern Ireland. Throughout history, it has been a major global power, influencing economic development, political structures, and international relations, particularly during the Industrial Revolution, the two World Wars, and the formation of modern global institutions.

United States: The United States is a federal republic established in 1776, formed from thirteen British colonies in North America. It has been a significant player in global politics, economics, and culture, influencing various movements related to nationalism, industrialization, and international conflicts throughout its history.

Vaccines: Vaccines are biological preparations that provide immunity to a specific infectious disease by stimulating the body's immune system to recognize and fight off pathogens. This innovation has played a crucial role in global health, particularly in preventing epidemics and pandemics, and has been a significant factor in the advancement of public health systems worldwide.

Vietnam: Vietnam is a Southeast Asian country known for its rich history, culture, and significant role in global conflicts, especially during the 20th century. The country's struggle for independence from colonial powers and its subsequent involvement in the Vietnam War exemplify the broader themes of decolonization, the Cold War, and the rise of communism in the region.

Vatican City: Vatican City is an independent city-state enclaved within Rome, Italy, and serves as the spiritual and administrative center of the Roman Catholic Church. Established as a sovereign entity in 1929 through the Lateran Treaty, it is the smallest independent state in the world both in area and population, playing a unique role in global conflicts by serving as a neutral ground for diplomacy and religious dialogue.

World War I: World War I was a global conflict that lasted from 1914 to 1918, primarily involving the Allies and the Central Powers. It marked a significant shift in global power dynamics, leading to massive military engagements and profound social, political, and economic changes around the world.

World War II: World War II was a global conflict that lasted from 1939 to 1945, involving most of the world's nations and resulting in significant military, political, and social changes. It was marked by widespread atrocities, the rise of totalitarian regimes, and the use of advanced technology in warfare, ultimately reshaping the global order.

Notes and Observations:

UNIT 8

Cold War & Decolonization 1900-Present



COLD WAR

After WW2, power shifted to the two remaining superpowers - the United States & the Soviet Union. Both utilized differing economic and political philosophies which led to indirect, political conflicts around the globe especially as communism spread.

DECOLONIZATION

Nationalist leaders in Asia and Africa sought independence from imperial rule. While some independence was granted, others turned to negotiated independence or armed struggle. New states were also created such as Israel, Pakistan and Cambodia.



RESISTANCE TO POWER

Resistance against inequity emerged globally with icons like Gandhi, MLK, and Mandela, while other more violent and militarized groups challenged power structures.



1- USA 2 -USSR 3- Ghana 4- Algeria 5- South Africa 6- India & Pakistan 6-Japan 7 -Israel 8- Korean War 9-Vietnam War 0 - Soviet Invasion of Afghanistan

THE COLD WAR AND ITS EFFECTS

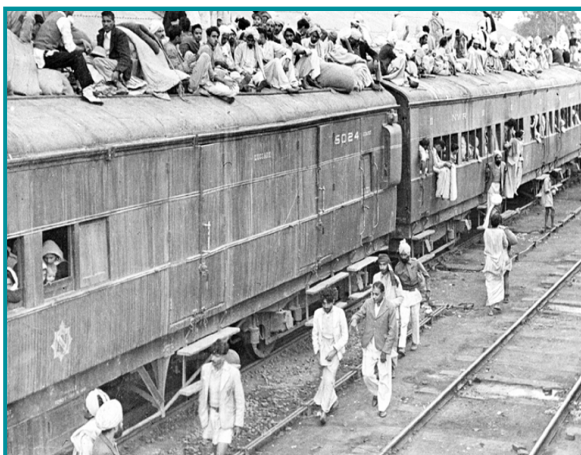
World War II permanently affected the global balance of power by creating sharp divisions between **capitalist** and **communist** nations. The capitalist nations, led by the **Soviet Union (U.S.S.R)**, turned to authoritarian governments and strong top-down leadership to accomplish their goals. Their ideological approach was contrasted with the ideologies of capitalist nations like the United States that extolled the virtues of democracy and the free market. The conceptual differences between these two superpowers were so polarizing that each superpower gradually drew more countries to their side of the **"iron curtain,"** dividing the capitalist counties (represented by NATO) from the communist counties (represented by the Warsaw Pact). Although the United States and the Soviet Union were bitter enemies, they stopped short of declaring war directly on their opponent. Instead, the two superpowers fought through proxy wars in postcolonial locations that were just distant enough from each other to keep the **Cold War** from turning "hot."



Although Churchill, Roosevelt, and Stalin collaborated at the Yalta Conference in 1945, the U.S. and the U.S.S.R. would quickly become bitter ideological enemies.

DECOLONIZATION AFTER 1900 AND NEWLY INDEPENDENT STATES

During the Cold War, non-superpower nations were forced to grapple with questions of what it meant to be either communist or capitalist. Many Asian countries, such as China, embraced the promise of land distribution and resource sharing promoted by communism. Chinese communists seized power and forced through a program to nationalize the

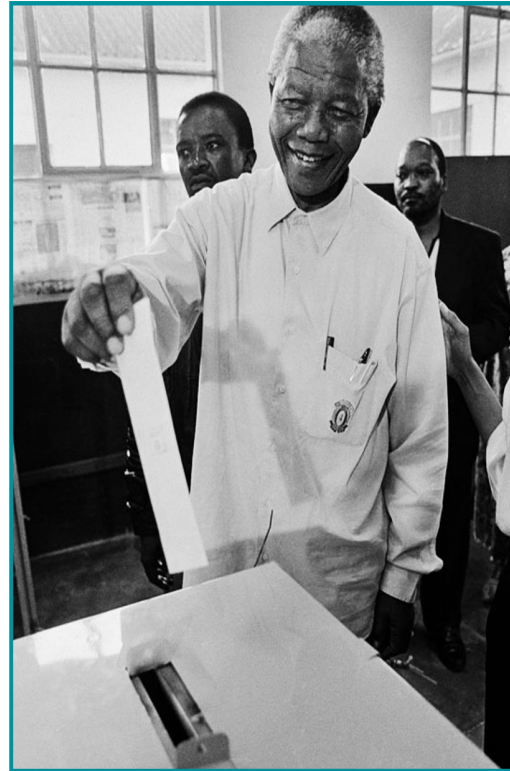


Special trains were used to transport refugees in and out of Pakistan once the area gained independence from Britain.

economy through the **Great Leap Forward**. Similar attempts to redistribute land and resources developed in Africa, Asia, and Latin America. This approach to government often forced these countries to develop a sense of national identity that aligned with the superpower representing their ideological position. In some cases, the spark of nationalism that caused nations to choose their Cold War alignment also led them to seek various degrees of independence. Many new states were created during the Cold War. The creation of these newly independent states was often accompanied with significant violence as a result of population displacement and resettlement.

GLOBAL RESISTANCE TO ESTABLISHED POWER STRUCTURES

Some of the most successful challenges to the Cold War status quo came from political leaders who utilized nonviolent methods to challenge existing political structures. For example, **Mohandas Gandhi** was able to use nonviolent resistance to orchestrate India's independence from British colonial rule. **Nelson Mandela** used a similarly nonviolent model to help South Africa address the obligations it faced as a newly independent nation and the challenges of grappling with its colonial past. The methods used by these leaders represented a change from traditional methods of opposing colonization, such as seen in the Haitian and the French Revolutions, in which local populations would rise up a colonial government through their military strength. Ultimately, the proliferation of nonviolent methods helped resolve some of the most pressing political conflicts that dominated the 20th century.



Nelson Mandela used nonviolent protest methods to affect political change.

THE END OF THE COLD WAR



The fall of the Berlin Wall in 1989 symbolized the impending end of the Soviet Union.

The Cold War slowly came to an end toward the latter part of the 20th century as a result of internal and external challenges faced by the global superpowers. For the Soviet Union, the high cost of trying to engage in a nuclear arms race without the industrial base to support it began to wear on the country. The failed invasion of Afghanistan was particularly costly and embarrassing for the U.S.S.R. as well. For the United States, political leaders at the highest levels gradually became more interested in working to form diplomatic links with the Soviet Union than in simply trying to contain Soviet influence. The Soviet Union was officially dissolved in 1991.

The Cold War

The Cold War is the post-WWII state of international tension between the Soviet Communist-led and the United States-led free world. It began in 1946 when Communist expansion into Eastern Europe was countered by the U.S. policy of containment.

The Communization of Eastern Europe: The fate of Eastern Europe (including Poland, Hungary, Rumania, Bulgaria, and Czechoslovakia) was determined by the presence of the Russian armies in that area. The establishment of Communist satellite regimes in the areas occupied by the Soviet army occurred in stages over a three-year period (1945 – 1948).



Soviet-controlled Eastern Europe satisfied Stalin's desire for a buffer zone against the historically anti-Russian West, but local populations and their sympathizers saw the regimes as an expansion of the Soviet Empire. Only another "hot" world war could remedy the situation, not acceptable to the world that just lost forty million to World War II. So, the world divided again into armed alliances, but this time nuclear technology increased the stakes of the game. For the next four decades, the world fearfully watched each move of those that played the game.

Cold War Notes (Part 1)
Truman and Eisenhower
1945-1960

The Cold War

Following World War II the U.S. dramatically moved from an isolationist country into a military **Superpower** and leader in world affairs. The reasons were clear; the U.S. economic power (leaving the depression in its wake and the U.S. nuclear power).

The Soviet Union also claimed superpower status due to the communization of Eastern Europe and the sheer size of the Soviet Union itself.

1945 – 1960 Foreign Affairs

Yalta Conference

Decisions at Yalta

- **Big Three decided to divide Germany in to 4 zones.**
- Both sides disagreed on what to do with Poland after the war.
- Soviets entered the war against Japan – they did on August 8, 1945 – Just as Japan was about to enter – this guaranteed them some spoils of war – specifically North Korea
- Free elections

As the soviets ‘denazified’ Eastern Europe, communist governments were established in Poland, Hungary, Rumania, Bulgaria, and Czechoslovakia. The promise that Stalin made toward self-determination never materialized. (Free elections?) The world quickly divided into two belief systems or ideologies.

San Francisco Conference

- **April 1945, delegates from 50 nations met in San Francisco to adopt the United Nations charter.**
- United States, Soviet Union, Great Britain, France, and China had permanent seats on the Security Council and veto power. All allies in the war
- Headquarters in New York City

Nuremberg Trials

- **German war crime trials held in Nuremberg**
- **24 Nazi leaders convicted of planning the war, committing war crimes, committing crimes against humanity, and conspiring to commit the crimes. 12 sentenced to death.**

Beginnings of the Cold War

- lasted from 1940s to 1991
- **Two superpowers emerged from WW II– America and Soviet Union**
- Americans thought they would live in a time of peace and prosperity
- Churchill declared: “Germany is finished, the real problem is Russia... the Americans [can’t] see it”.
- **WWII changed the United States from isolationist to leader in world affairs.**
- The conflict between US and the USSR dampened America’s enjoyment of the postwar boom.

Background

The Bolshevik Revolution of 1917 was a threat to all capitalists leading to the first Red Scare in 1919. The United States did not formally recognize the Soviet Union until 1933. Despite the political and economic differences between the two nations, the U.S. and the Soviet Union put aside

differences during WWII to defeat Hitler. Optimists hoped cooperation could continue after the war through the U.N.

Over the next four decades the conflict would be called the **Cold War**. It would be fought on several fronts including:

- The Nuclear Arms Race and Threat
- The Space Race
- Spying and Espionage
- Propaganda
- Aid or influence in third world nations
- How wars fought in proxy nations such as Korea and Vietnam

Satellite Nations

The Soviet Union was determined to rebuild in ways that would protect its own interests. One way included **satellite nations subject to Soviet domination. These nations served as a buffer zone against attacks.** Elections took place in Eastern Europe as promised at Yalta, but, from 1946 – 1948, the Soviets **manipulated elections in favor of communist dictators** in Poland, Romania, Bulgaria, Albania, Hungary, and Czechoslovakia. These nations became buffer satellite states. **Remember the big three divided Germany into occupation zones. Under Soviet control, East Germany becomes a communist like state.**

Iron Curtain

As the communist world expanded in Eastern Europe, the growing state of international tension was identified by former British Prime Minister, **Winston Churchill**. The ‘west’ was having trouble identifying a solution to the spread of communism. Churchill’s speech squarely warned the free world that a solution must be found.

During a 1946 speech given in Missouri, **Churchill declared ‘From Stettin in the Baltic to Trieste on the Adriatic, an Iron Curtain has descended across the continent (Europe).** The term “iron curtain” became a figure of speech that described how the USSR had divided Europe into two sides: one communist, one free.

This is NOT the Berlin Wall, only a figure of speech. The speech called for a partnership between Western democracies to stop the expansion of communism. This speech, along with one given by Stalin set the tone for the Cold War. The Cold War became an ideological competition that developed between the U.S. and USSR for power and influence around the world.

Containment

As the Eastern European nations ‘dominoed’ toward Stalin, it seemed as if the spread of communism was completely out of control.

Greece and Turkey – became the next target on the Soviet agenda. This area was the historic ‘crown jewel’ of Russian expansion because of its entrance into the Mediterranean (warm water port). In Greece: a communist led uprising was exerting pressure on the government pushing the country into civil war.

In Turkey: Soviets were demanding some control over the Dardanelle Straits.

In 1946, George Kennan, an American diplomat in Moscow (also an expert in Soviet/Russian history), sent a telegram to his superiors in Washington offering an observed explanation for Soviet Behavior.

He argued that a combination of history and communist ideology was behind the Soviet takeover of Eastern Europe.

He elaborated: **“Russia, whether Tsarist or Communist, was relentlessly expansionary.”** The Kremlin was also cautious, and the flow of Soviet power into every nook and cranny available to it could be **stemmed by firm and vigilant containment.”**

The policy of containment was born. It called for the U.S. to resist Soviet attempts to form Communist governments around the world.

The Truman Doctrine

Harry Truman's **first challenge towards the policy of containment occurred with Greece and Turkey.** Stalin wanted control of the Dardanelles, to have access from the Black Sea to the Mediterranean Sea.

To stop this, Truman went before Congress in March 1947, to ask for financial aid for **Greece and Turkey** to prevent the two countries from falling to Communism.

He declared: **"It must be the policy of the U.S. to support free peoples who are resisting attempted subjugation by armed minorities or by outside pressures. I believe that we must assist free peoples to work out their own destinies in their own way."** **The Truman Doctrine was born.** Congress gave **400 million dollars** for aid to **Greece and Turkey**; communist influences ceased. The success of Greece and Turkey warding off communism gave the breath of life to the **Containment Policy** commonly called the **Truman Doctrine**.

The Marshall Plan

Post war Europe was in no position to ward off communist expansion. The devastations of war saw to that. Something had to be done to assist Western Europe from the economic holocaust. The plan was developed by **Secretary of State George Marshall**. He invited the European nations to **outline their economic needs for recovery from WWII**.

It reflected the belief that U.S. aid for European economic recovery could create strong democracies and open new markets for American goods. **Formally known as the European Recovery Program it gave \$13 billion in grants and loans to Western Europe.** The European Economic Recovery Plan, commonly called the **Marshall Plan**, was a complete success.

All of the 'Western European nations accepted the assistance from the U.S. the Soviets and the Eastern Block did not. (They were also offered Marshall Plan funds) **They refused to participate because receiving capitalistic would make communism look weak.**

Berlin Airlift

According to the decisions made at Yalta and Potsdam, **Germany was divided into four occupying zones until it could be 'reunified.'**

Berlin, lying 110 miles inside the East German – Russian controlled zone, **was likewise divided.** The three Western Allies: U.S., Britain, and France, were guaranteed access to Berlin over the Russian controlled zone by rail, highway, air and water routes. This was a 'temporary fix' until occupation could be replaced with reunification and free elections. **Capitalist West Berlin and Communist East Berlin became the clearest symbols of the Cold War.**

The '4 Powers Agreement' fell apart when the U.S., Britain and France announced that they were going to **'pool together' their occupation zones and create the Republic of Germany.** The Soviets responded by **announcing they would set up a communist state in their own occupied zone.** The **Stalin led Soviets also cut off land access between 'West Germany' and West Berlin, stopping all transportation on all routes between West Germany to West Berlin. (Mention the Autobahn)** Berlin became the 'Eye of the Tiger.' If the containment policy was to be the policy that would be used to fight communism, West Berlin must be saved!

All shipments through East Germany were banned. America and Britain responded with a 15 month airlift that took 13,000 tons of goods to West Berlin each day. At the same time Truman

sent 60 bombers capable of carrying atomic bombs to England. The world watched nervously for the outbreak of war. Finally, Stalin lifted the Blockade.

A **second Berlin crisis** will later develop in **1961** when the Soviets separate East Berlin from West Berlin by building a wall to divide the city. **The wall became the personification of communist repression** for the next 30 years.

NATO

The Berlin crisis convinced the U.S. and Western Europe that an alliance organized against Soviet pressure under the leadership of the U.S. was the only way to assure safety from the Soviets.

In April 1949, Canada and the U.S. joined several European nations **and formed the North Atlantic Treaty Organization. Member nations agreed that “an armed attack against one or more of them . . . shall be considered an attack against them all.” The principle of mutual military assistance or a mutual defense pact is also called collective security.** Western Europe now became protected by the increasingly powerful nuclear arsenal of the U.S.

General Eisenhower became the Supreme Commander of NATO. He placed U.S. troops in Western Europe to deter the Soviet expansion into Western Europe. The Soviets responded to NATO with their own mutual defense alliance known as the Warsaw Pact. The Warsaw Pact defense alliance included the USSR and its satellite nations in Eastern Europe.

Defense

1947 Congress passed the National Security Act

- Centralized the Department of Defense.
- CIA (Central Intelligence Agency) formed to gather information.
- NSC (National Security Council) created to advise the president on strategic matters.
- 1948, Selective Service System and peacetime draft enacted.

Communism Grows

- 1949 USSR tested their first atomic bomb.
- 1952 USA tested the first hydrogen or thermonuclear bomb, thousands of times more powerful than a bomb.
- Truman organized the Federal Civil Defense Administration to flood the nation with information on how to survive a nuclear attack. **The arms race had begun – the race to develop superior weaponry.**

NSC-68

National Security Council issued a secret report known as **NSC-68** that gave the following measures for fighting the cold war.

- **quadruple U.S. government defense spending**
- **form alliances with non-communist countries** around the world
- convince the American public that a costly **arms buildup was imperative for the nation’s defense**

Cold War in Asia

Communism Takes China

An ongoing **Civil War between Mao Zedong (communist) and Chiang Kai-Shek (nationalists) began again after WWII. The Communists took mainland China and forced the**

nationalists to the small island of Taiwan. Mao set up the People's Republic of China and Kai-Shek continued as the Republic of China. Republicans blamed the democrats for losing China. 1950 Stalin and Mao signed Sino-Soviet Pact creating worldwide fear that a communist conspiracy existed.

Japan

After WWII, Japan controlled by the U.S. General MacArthur was in complete control of rebuilding Japan. Premier Hideki Tojo and others were executed for war crimes. Japan kept Emperor Hirohito as the ceremonial head of state. **The new Japanese Constitution renounced war as national policy and limited Japan's military capability.**

Korean War

During World War II, the **League of Nations** faded into history and was replaced with the **United Nations**. The purpose of the United Nations was to try to resolve conflicts between nations peacefully. The power of the U.N. was vested in its 5 member **Security Council**. The Security Council members consisted of the United States, USSR, Britain, France and China. The Security Council members held the veto power – power to prevent any United Nations action. **The first test of the United Nations to 'maintain' peace was in Korea.**

The Korean War grew out of the division of Korea on the 38th parallel after WWII. The Soviets supported the communist North Korea, led by a young communist rebel named **Kim Il Sung**, and the U.S. supported the Democratic South Korea. In 1948 the two Koreas were established and the two superpowers withdrew their troops.

Two years later, North Korea, in an attempt to unify the two Koreas under Communism, invaded South Korea.

Causes:

- **1950, North Korea invaded South Korea in an effort to unite the peninsula under communist rule.**
- **The United Nations, backed by the United States, stepped in to put an end to Communist aggression at any cost. (Containment Policy)**
- **What follows will be known as a United Nations Police Action.** This 'Police Action' by the U.S., under the flag of the United Nations, enabled Truman to by-pass Congress, **eliminating the need for a declaration of war.**

Course:

- **U.S. air and ground forces under the command of General Douglas MacArthur were driven back and trapped in the small area of Pusan.**
- **MacArthur soon launched a counterattack and invaded at Inchon.**
- **By October, the UN reached the Yalu River, the boundary between North Korea and China.**
- **China entered the war** and sent 300,000 troops into the fight. **This forced the UN troops back.**
- **MacArthur and the UN troops set up a defensive line near the 38th parallel and stopped the advance.**
- **With China involved MacArthur wanted to heighten the war and begin attacking mainland China.**
- **Truman would not have any part of this so MacArthur went around Truman to Congress.**
- **MacArthur threatened the concept of civilian control of the military and was therefore fired for his continued insubordination and his suggestion to take the war to China (nuclear).**

- MacArthur returned to a hero's welcome. Most understood his policy of "no substitute for victory"
- At this point, Matthew Ridgway took command of the troops in Korea. **The war now became a back and forth conflict known as the "meat grinder."**
- Dwight D. Eisenhower was elected president in 1952 and promised to end the war. He threatened to use the a-bomb and soon brought forth a negotiation.
- **1953 an armistice was signed that divided Korea into two nations.**

Effects

- 54,000 Americans dead
- **The Koreas remain divided today. North Korea remains communist and is a nuclear threat to neighboring countries.**
- **North Korea is part of President George W. Bush's Axis of Evil.**
- **America successfully stopped the spread of communism.**
- The first war where blacks and whites served in the same units.

The war brought to light a top secret report called **NSC-68**. It warned that the nation's survival required a massive military build-up. No immediate action was taken but knowing now that communism will invade a free nation, the U.S. took the **NSC-68** report seriously and began a massive military build-up. **NSC-68** gave the following measures for fighting the cold war:

- **quadruple U.S. government defense spending**
- **form alliances with non-communist countries** around the world
- Convince the American public that a costly **arms buildup was imperative for the nation's defense.**

Eisenhower and the Cold War

Eisenhower's influential secretary of state was **John Foster Dulles**. Dulles favored the concept of 'maximum deterrent at bearable cost' or a '**bigger bank for the buck.**' Dulles believed that America's 'willingness' to go to the '**brink**' of war with its intimidating nuclear superiority would convince the Soviets to halt any effort to expand into unwanted areas.

Dulles' Diplomacy and Brinkmanship

- He thought **containment was too soft and too passive. He advocated a "new look" and took the initiative to challenge the USSR and China.**
- **He declared that if nations pushed Communist powers to the brink of war, they would back down because of American nuclear superiority.**

This concept of '**Brinkmanship**' was coupled with the defense strategy of concentrating U.S. military strength in nukes" instead of more conventional armies and navies. By 1955, one U.S. bomber carried more force than all the explosives ever detonated in the entire history of humankind. Any response to future communist aggression would result in the concept of **massive retaliation**. It was meant to deter the Soviets from launching an attack.

Massive Retaliation

- Dulles argued **that America should spend more money on and rely more heavily on nuclear weapons.** Soviet technology was able to match that of the U.S. and the two superpowers delicately balanced the 'nuclear standoff.'
- **Testing the H-bomb on bikini atoll**
- This mutual balance of terror became known as MAD – **Mutually Assured Destruction**
- **May have stopped superpowers from head to head conflict but it could not stop the "brushfire" wars in Asia, Africa, and Mid East.**

After the death of Stalin in 1953, a more moderate Soviet leader emerged, **Nikita Khrushchev**. He denounced the ruthlessness of Stalin and advocated a more passive foreign policy called **Peaceful Coexistence**. This was quite contrary to the **massive retaliation** policy of Dulles.

Eisenhower and Khrushchev met in 1955 in Geneva. No agreement on nuclear reduction was reached but the **world could tell that a ‘thaw’ in cold war tension came out of the meeting of the two ‘grandfather’ figures**. That ‘thaw’ was tested during the 1950s as U.S. foreign policy and that of communism often collided.

Unrest in the Third World

Many nations such as India, Pakistan, Indonesia, and Ghana became independent countries after WWII. These new Third World Countries lacked stable political and economic institutions. Third World = contrast to the industrialized nations of Western bloc and Communist bloc. Their need for foreign aid from either the U.S. or USSR made them pawns in the Cold War.

Covert Action

- 1953 – **CIA played a role in ousting the Iranian government and placing U.S. friendly Reza Pahlavi as shah (monarch) of Iran. In return he gave us favorable oil prices and made enormous purchases of U.S. arms.**
- CIA overthrew government in Guatemala that threatened U.S. business interests.
- **In Latin America, the United States often supported ruthless dictators simply to oppose communism.**

Asia

Korean Armistice

1953 –Dulles goes to Korea to see what could be done to stop the war. No quick fix was possible. Diplomacy, threat of nuclear war, and death of Joseph Stalin in March 1953, moved China and North Korea to an armistice. **Korea remained divided near the 38th parallel. No peace treaty was ever agreed upon.** Eisenhower was satisfied that communism was **contained** in Korea.

Fall of Indochina: (beginning of Vietnam War)

The French tried to retake Indochina after WWII. Seeking independence, Vietnamese and Cambodians resisted. French imperialism fueled nationalism led by communist leader Ho Chi Minh. **The anti-colonial war in Indochina became part of the Cold War rivalry between communist and noncommunist powers.** Truman’s government gave U.S. military aid to the French, while China and USSR **aided the** Viet Minh guerillas led by Ho Chi Minh. In 1954, when President Eisenhower refused to send in troops to help France, the French army collapsed at Dien Bien Phu and forced to surrender.

The American President believed in a concept known as the **Domino Theory**. This theory developed after the French lost the colony of **Vietnam** in 1954. Vietnam was **divided on the 17th parallel** by the ‘Powers’ in an agreement called the **Geneva Accords of 1954**. At the **Geneva Conference** that followed the French loss, **France gave up Indochina. Subsequently, Indochina was divided into Laos, Cambodia, and North and South Vietnam.** Eisenhower believed if newly formed **South Vietnam** fell to communism, the governments of Laos, Cambodia, Thailand and so on would fall, like **Dominoes**, to communism.

SEATO

In seeking to prevent the **Domino Theory** from becoming a reality, the U.S. Britain, France, Australia, New Zealand, Philippines and other Southeast Asian Countries formed a regional defense pact called the **Southeast Asia Treaty Organization (SEATO). Eight nations signed the collective security**

agreement in 1954. SEATO represented those nations that were against the spread of communism in Southeast Asia such as the NATO countries in the North Atlantic and Western Europe.

Throughout the 1950s, the situation in South Vietnam steadily deteriorated as **Ho Chi Minh's** North Vietnamese government in **Hanoi** began sending military assistance to aid the anti-SEATO pro-communist rebels in the south. As **guerilla warfare intensified** in the south, the firm commitment to save South Vietnam also became unyielding.

The Middle East

2 Goals in the Middle East (tough balancing act)

- **maintain friendly ties with oil-rich Arab states**
- **support the new state of Israel**

Suez Crisis

While the situation in Vietnam steadily deteriorated, Eisenhower had to deal with another predicament that developed in **1956, the Suez crisis**. The **1956 Suez** crisis began in the age old conflict between the Jews and the Arabs.

Following World War II, the historical state of Israel was reestablished in 1948. This was the first time the Jews had had their own homeland since they were dispersed by the Romans in 70 A.D. On the border of Israel to the South was Egypt. In 1955, a new Arab nationalist leader came to power in Egypt, **Gamal Nasser**. He vowed two intentions:

- **Nationalize the Suez Canal (which was owned by Britain and France)**
- **Destroy the country of Israel**

Eisenhower attempted to appease Nasser and steer him away from his goals because they would surely cause a middle-east war. He began to negotiate with Egypt about U.S. support for helping to construct a major dam on the Nile River at Aswan. An **Aswan Dam** would be a major step in transforming Egypt economically.

Nasser, seeing how easy it was to gain support from the U.S. started flirting with the communist for military equipment and support. Unwilling to be used by Nasser, the Eisenhower administration withdrew its intended support to construct the dam. Nasser went berserk! He immediately seized the Suez Canal resulting in an attack on Egypt by Israel with support from Britain and France. **Why? Loss of the canal threatened Western Europe's supply line to Middle Eastern Oil.**

Eisenhower bellowed that his old allies kept him in the dark. So, he sponsored a **U.N. resolution condemning the invasion of Egypt**. Under pressure, the invading forces withdrew and **Egypt retained control of the canal**. Khrushchev sat on the 'sidelines' stumping and fuming, threatening to nuke Paris and London.

Eisenhower Doctrine

When events calmed down, Eisenhower realized that communism could not gain a foothold in the oil rich middle-east. In 1957, he announced a new U.S. foreign policy concerning the middle-east, the **Eisenhower Doctrine**.

The doctrine stated that the U.S. would **give economic and military aid to any Middle Eastern nation 'requesting assistance against armed aggression from any country controlled by international communism.'** The first time the **Eisenhower Doctrine** was used was in Lebanon in **1958** to counter communist pressure Syria.

OPEC and Oil

1960 – Arab nations of Saudi Arabia, Kuwait, Iraq, and Iran joined Venezuela to form the Organization of Petroleum Exporting Countries. The combination of growing Western dependence on Middle East oil, spreading Arab nationalism, and conflicts between Israelis and Palestinian refugees troubled American presidents from this point until today.

U.S. Soviet Relations

The two superpowers fluctuated regularly from periods of relative calm to periods of extreme tension.

Spirit of Geneva

- After Stalin's death in 1953, **Eisenhower called for a slowdown in arms production and presented to the U.N. the atoms for peace plan.**
- Soviets established peaceful relations with Greece and Turkey.
- 1955 – Eisenhower met with new Soviet leader, Nikolai Bulganin, where he proposed “open skies” over each nation's territory – so that aerial photography could take place – in order to eliminate the chance of a surprise nuclear attack. Soviets rejected this plan
- **The “Spirit of Geneva” produced the first thaw in the cold war.**

To further alleviate tensions between the two superpowers in 1956, the new Soviet leader, Nikita Khrushchev, denounced the crimes of Joseph Stalin. He launched a campaign in the Soviet Union called “**De-Stalinization.**” **De-Stalinization refers to the process of political reform** in the Soviet Union that took place after the death of Joseph Stalin in 1953. Khrushchev's reforms consisted of **changing/removing key institutions that helped Stalin hold power** such as the cult of personality that surrounded him, the Stalinist political system and the Gulag labour-camp system, all of which had been created and dominated by Stalin.

Hungarian Revolt

In October 1956 – a popular uprising in Hungary actually succeeded in overthrowing a government backed by Moscow. Khrushchev could not allow this and sent in Soviet tanks to crush the freedom fighters and restore control over Hungary. The U.S. took no action in the crisis. In effect by allowing Soviet tanks to roll into Hungary, the United States gave recognition to the Soviet sphere of influence in Eastern Europe and ended Dulles' talk of liberating this region.

Sputnik

The successful launching of Sputnik by the Soviets was interpreted in future terms. The Soviets had the technology to develop nuclear warheads, launch them in space with an **ICBM**, and deliver them over American cities. The U.S. relied on planes to deliver their nuclear arsenal. **The missile gap was now evident. Since the missiles that launched the satellites could also deliver thermonuclear warheads anywhere in the world in minutes and there was no defense against them.**

Even though Eisenhower's administration played down the event, the news media and other political leaders voiced the humiliation of the nation as several attempts to launch a U.S. satellite exploded in failure.

Many **blamed schools and inadequate instruction** in the sciences.

- 1958 – Congress passed the **National Defense and Education Act** which **authorized giving hundreds of millions in federal money to the schools for science and foreign language education.**
- Same year – **created National Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA) to direct U.S. efforts to build missiles and explore outer space.**
- Billions were spent to **compete with the Soviets in what now became a Space Race.**

Fears of nuclear war were intensified by Sputnik. The U.S. relied on planes to deliver their nuclear arsenal. The **Soviets developed long range rockets known as ICBMs or intercontinental ballistic missiles.** **The missile gap was now evident. Since the missiles that launched the satellites**

could also deliver thermonuclear warheads anywhere in the world in minutes and there was no defense against them.

Second Berlin Crisis

“We will bury capitalism.” Riding high on the pride of Sputnik, Khrushchev demanded we leave Berlin. Eisenhower would have none of it. Two agreed to put off the 1958 crisis and meet in Paris in 1960 to discuss the issue. Even as the superpowers competed for nuclear dominance, they continued to talk. In 1959 Khrushchev visited the United States. The visit ended on a sour note because he was denied a request to visit Disney Land. (Security could not be arranged on such short notice.)

Later in the year, Vice-president Nixon visited the Soviet Union, where he **engaged Khrushchev in the famous kitchen debate. The impromptu exchange between the two world leaders was over an American exhibition of an entire house. Both leaders argued their positions on capitalist luxuries and communist necessities before an audience of the tag-a-long press.**

U-2 Incident

Two weeks before the planned meeting in Paris, the Russians shot down a high altitude U.S. spy plane – the U-2 – over the Soviet Union. **The incident exposed a secret U.S. tactic for gaining information.** After its open-skies proposals had been rejected by the Soviets in 1955, the United States had decided to conduct regular spy flights over Soviet territory to find out about its enemy’s missile program. America initially said it was a research plane that went off course, however, pilot **Francis Gary Powers admitted to the Soviets that he was spying. Eisenhower took full responsibility for the flights. Eisenhower promised that the flights would stop but he would not apologize.** By 1960, the stage was set for the two sides to get down to real business – a nuclear test ban treaty. Such a treaty would drench the madness of MAD and soak it in sanity . . . but the famous Paris summit was not to be.

Communism in Cuba

Most alarming under Eisenhower, was the loss of Cuba to communism. **Fidel Castro overthrew the Cuban dictator Batista in 1959.** Early on the U.S. did not know if Castro would be better or worse than Batista. Once in power, Castro nationalized many American owned businesses and properties in Cuba. Eisenhower retaliated by cutting U.S. trade with Cuba. **With communism only 90 miles off the shores of Florida, Eisenhower authorized the CIA to train anticommunist Cuban exiles to retake their island. This would be an issue that would end up in Kennedy’s hands.**

Military Industrial Complex

In his farewell address Eisenhower spoke out against the negative impact of the Cold War on U.S. society. The persistent pressures from defense contractors, the military and the creation of more powerful weapons systems **had Congressmen competing for the next allotment of defense contract jobs for their state.** He warned the nation to **“guard against the acquisition of unwarranted influence . . . by the military industrial complex.”** He thought the arms race was taking on logic of its own. It seemed too many that the **U.S. was in danger of turning into a military or imperial state.**

Postwar Domestic Advances

Many WWII veterans achieved economic success by way of the **GI Bill of Rights** or the servicemen’s readjustment act of 1944. This important act **gave the 15 million veterans low-interest mortgages and gave them money to go to college.** It provided the fuel for the economic boom and middle class society that began in the 50s. Over 2 million GIs attended college and received over \$16 billion in low-interest government backed loans to buy homes, farms, and businesses.

A change occurred in the American work force. **For the first time, beginning in the 50s, white collar workers outnumbered blue collar workers. Postwar prosperity also led to an expanding**

middle class. With so many people working and making more money the baby boom occurred. It started in the mid-40s and continued through the 50s. 50 million babies are born between 1945 and 1960.

Postwar Politics

Truman became president when FDR died in office. **Most important in 1948, Truman ordered the end to racial discrimination in the departments of the federal government and all 3 branches of the military. The 22nd Amendment was added to the Constitution in response to FDR's four elected terms. It limited the presidential terms to two full terms in office.**

The HUAC

The **Second Red Scare**- just as the **first red scare** had followed the U.S. led victory after World War I, a **second red scare** followed the U.S. led victory after World War II. Regardless of political motivations or not, serious allegations and events characterize the fear of domestic communists influences in the country during the late 40s and early 1950s.

The House Un-American Activities Commission began a postwar probe of Communist infiltrators. Not only did the Committee search for **communists in the government and the military**, they also searched groups like the boy scouts and Hollywood.

Spies in America

One incident, the **Hiss-Chambers** case, came before the **House Un-American Activities Committee (HUAC)**. The case involved accusations of spying, secret document exchanges, and other espionage laments. The well media-hyped case was significant because:

- **Many Americans could not help wondering if the highest levels of government were infiltrated by communist spies**
- A young Congressman from California, **Richard Nixon**, was thrown into the lime light for his tenacious search for the truth in the spy case. He gained national prominence as a '**red hunter**.'

Another incident involved the targeting of the House on Un-American Activities on alleged rumors of Hollywood writers and actors associating with communist elements. **Ten actors and directors** who refused to cooperate with HUAC on first amendment right principles were made an example and jailed for their non-cooperation. The '**Hollywood Ten**' found themselves blacklisted from the movie industry.

The case of Julius and Ethel Rosenberg enhanced the red scare. In 1949 the Soviets tested their first atomic bomb, convincing many Americans that spies helped steal the atomic technology from the United States. **An FBI investigation traced a spy ring to the Rosenberg's who worked in the nuclear program. They were convicted under the 1917 Espionage act and sentenced to be electrocuted. They proclaimed their innocence up until their deaths in 1953.**

The McCarthy Era

Wisconsin Senator **Joseph McCarthy** became the person who **exceeded the zeal to purge the U.S. of 'nonconformists.'** His influence was so great that the term '**McCarthyism**' became **synonymous with the anti-communist crusade.**

He jumped into the national spotlight when he claimed that he had a list of 205 known communist working in the **State Department**. (No names were produced) The press covered McCarthy avidly. His picture on the front cover of Time, Newsweek, and other news magazines heightened cold war and **communist hysteria**. He became chairman of the Senate investigating committee that targeted thousands of 'un-American' and communist sympathizers.

McCarthy's anti-communist crusade violated fundamental constitutional rights of freedom of speech, press and 'association.' Thousands were humiliated and discredited, and hounded from their jobs. To be placed before McCarthy and his committee . . . assured your guilt.

In 1954, **McCarthy** accused the **Army** of harboring suspected communists. The army challenged McCarthy's accusations and key military personnel appeared before McCarthy's investigative committee. Much of the McCarthy-Army hearings were televised. For the first time **the nation was able to observe 'McCarthyism.'** **McCarthy was bullying, reckless and dishonest and people realized he was no more than a 'witch hunter.'** The Senate '**censured**' him for his 'recklessness.' With all of his support gone, the media hype died down and so did the **second red scare**.

Eisenhower Takes Command

Eisenhower dominates the 50s. Election of 1952: Eisenhower is the first Republican presidential victory in 20 years. Eisenhower's VP candidate was Richard Nixon.

Interstate Highway System

Eisenhower seized the opportunity to improve the nation's cold war defense strategy by passing the **Interstate Highway Act of 1956.** **It authorized construction of 42,000 miles of interstate highways linking major cities.** The act justified new taxes on fuel, tires, and vehicles to improve national defense.

The system of interstate highways created jobs, increased the transportation of goods efficiency and decreased regional isolation. Militarily, it would **enhance troop movement** if necessary and a nation-wide airplane run way system was designed within the highway system if needed by the military. **The highway public works project created jobs, promoted trucking industry, accelerated growth of suburbs.**
It became the most permanent legacy of the Eisenhower years.

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"If everyone is thinking alike, someone isn't thinking."

~General George Smith Patton Jr. was a general in the United States Army who commanded the Seventh Army in the Mediterranean Theater of World War II.

Notes and Observations:

Name: _____

Date: _____

Setting the Stage for the Cold War and Decolonization 8.1

Tehran Conference 1943	Yalta Conference 1945	Potsdam Conference 1945
U.S. and Britain Agreements/Demands:	U.S. and Britain Agreements/Demands:	U.S. and Britain Agreements/Demands:
Soviet Agreements/Demands:	Soviet Agreements/Demands:	Soviet Agreements/Demands:

Directions: Fill in the relevant details about how the United States and the Soviet Union became superpowers after World War II.

United States:
Soviet Union:

How was the relationship between colonies and their parent countries altered after World War II?

Name: _____

Date: _____

The Cold War 8.2

What is a "cold war"?

Directions: Fill in the relevant details about each event or system for the United States and Soviet Union during the Cold War below.

	United States	Soviet Union
Economic System		
Political System		
Arms Race		
Space Race		

Directions: Fill in the relevant details about the Non-Aligned Movement leaders below.

	Kwame Nkrumah	Sukarno	Jawaharlal Nehru
Country and Role in the Movement			

Name: _____

Date: _____

Effects of the Cold War 8.3

Directions: List the countries that were part of the new Cold War military alliances below.

NATO	Warsaw Pact

Directions: Fill in the relevant details about the proxy wars below.

	Korean War	Vietnam War	Contra War
Which sides did the U.S. and Soviet Union take?			
Result of the War			

Directions: Explain the terms of the treaties below.

Test-Ban Treaty	Nuclear Non-Proliferation Treaty

Name: _____

Date: _____

Spread of Communism After 1900 8.4

Cause

Effect



Communists seize power in China and establish the People's Republic of China in 1949.

Cause

Effects

The White Revolution reforms are implemented in Iran in 1963.



Cause

Effects

Haile Selassie returns to power in Ethiopia in 1941 after his exile.



Cause

Effect



President Jacob Arbenz is overthrown in 1954 marking the end of the Guatemalan Revolution of 1944-1954.

Cause

Effects

Vietnam declares its independence from Japan and France in 1945.



Cause

Effects

India declares its independence in 1947 marking the end of British rule.



Name: _____

Date: _____

Decolonization After 1900 8.5

Directions: Give a brief summary describing how each nation/region gained its independence. Include dates, important leaders, important events, and be sure to mention the parent country.

Negotiated Independence



India:

Armed Struggle for Independence



Vietnam:

Gold Coast:

Egypt:

French West Africa:

Algeria:

Give a summary of Quebec's attempts at independence in Canada since the 1960s.

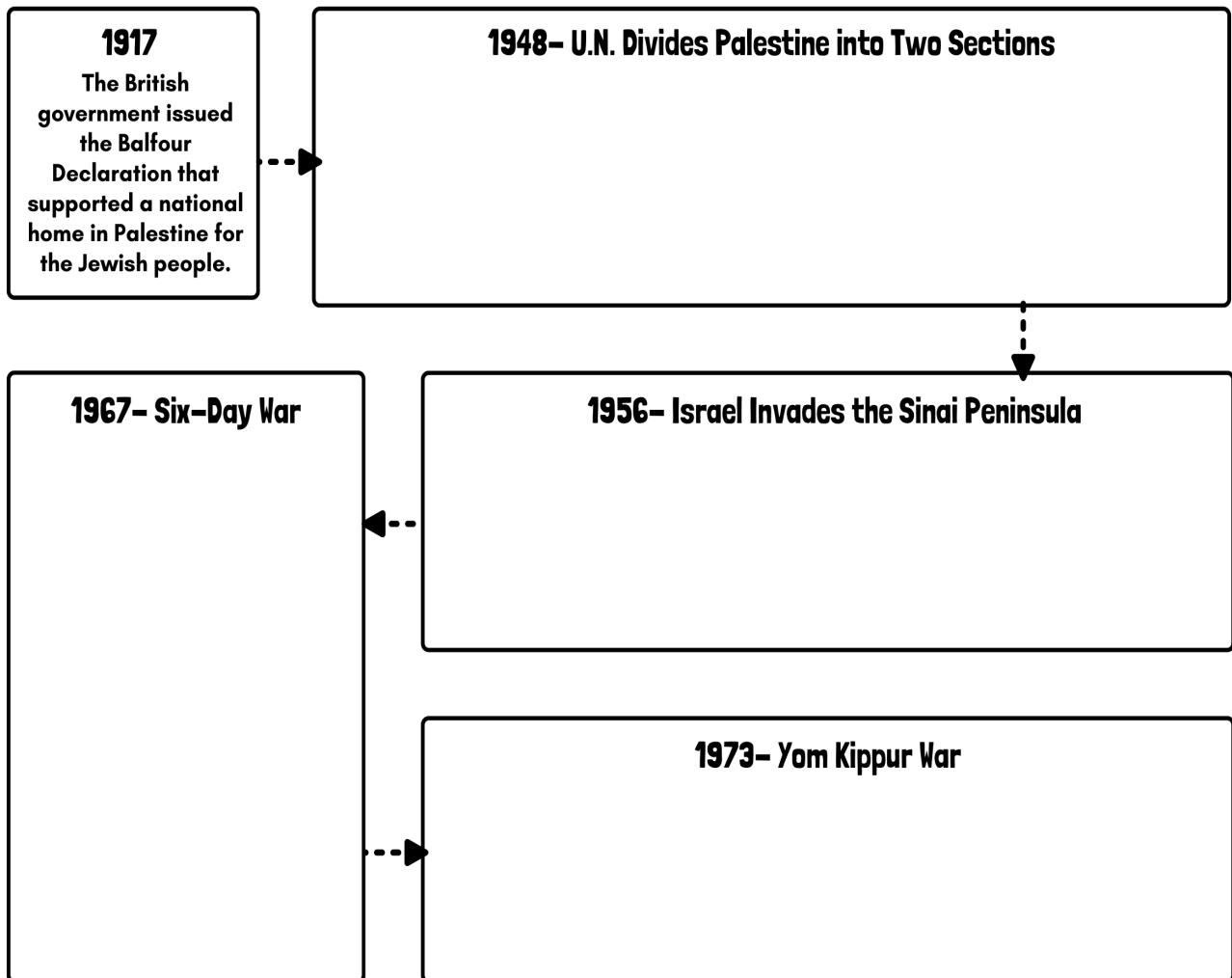
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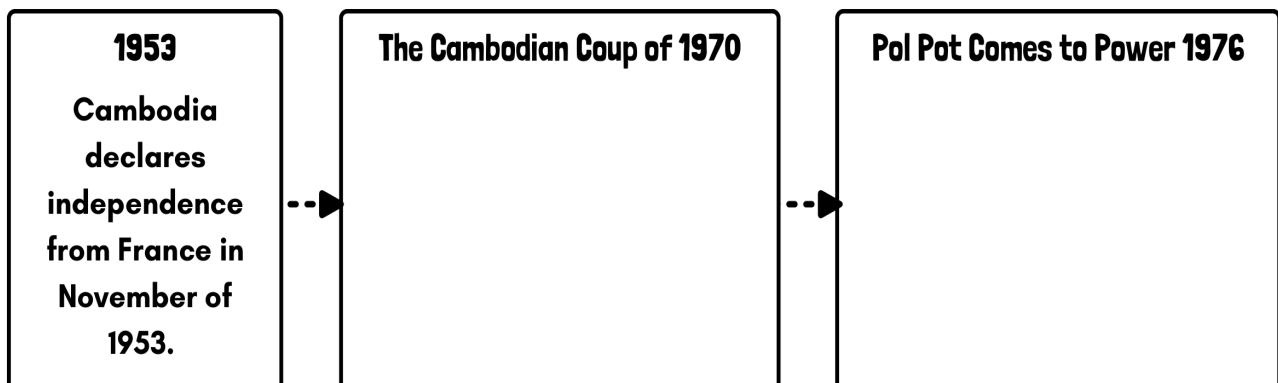
Newly Independent States 8.6

Directions: Fill in the timeline with relevant details about the conflicts, border disputes, and events in Israel and Palestine. Then, fill in the details about Cambodia below.

Israel/Palestine Timeline 1900s



Events in Cambodia



Name: _____

Date: _____

Global Resistance to Established Power Structures After 1900 8.7

Directions: Give relevant details about the resistance leaders or organizations below. Include the movements they were part of, where these movements took place, and who or what they were resisting.

Non-Violent Resistance



Mohandas Gandhi:

Violent Resistance



Abimael Guzmán:

Martin Luther King Jr.:

Irish Republican Army IRA:

Nelson Mandela:

Basque Homeland and Freedom ETA:

Directions: Explain how each leader below responded to internal conflict.

Francisco Franco:

Idi Amin:

Name: _____

Date: _____

End of the Cold War 8.8

Directions: Explain how each of the reasons listed below contributed to the end of the Cold War with specific examples.

U.S. Military Technology Development:

Soviet Union's Invasion of Afghanistan:

Public Discontent and Economic Weakness in the Soviet Union:

End of the Soviet Union in 1991

Directions: Explain what each of these policies were and how they contributed to the end of the Soviet Union under Gorbachev.

Perestroika

Glasnost

Name: _____

Date: _____

Causation in the Age of the Cold War and Decolonization 8.9

Directions: Answer the questions below with a paragraph each. Use relevant details from Unit 8 to support your answers.

Using specific examples, discuss the causes of the spread of communism after 1900.

Choose two movements from this unit that involved non-violent resistance and compare and contrast them.

Unit 8 – Cold War & Decolonization (1900-Present)

The Cold War era, spanning from 1945 to 1991, reshaped global politics. Tensions between the U.S. and Soviet Union led to proxy wars, nuclear arms races, and ideological battles that affected nations worldwide. Decolonization movements gained momentum during this period, with many African and Asian countries gaining independence. These shifts created new nations, altered power dynamics, and left lasting impacts on international relations and global economics.

Key Events and Timeline

World War II ends in 1945 with the defeat of Germany and Japan, setting the stage for the Cold War

The Cold War begins in the late 1940s, characterized by tensions between the United States and the Soviet Union

- The Truman Doctrine (1947) pledges U.S. support to nations threatened by communism
- The Marshall Plan (1948) provides economic aid to rebuild Western Europe

The Korean War (1950-1953) marks a significant conflict between communist North Korea and capitalist South Korea, with the U.S. and Soviet Union supporting opposing sides

The Cuban Missile Crisis (1962) brings the world to the brink of nuclear war after the Soviet Union places missiles in Cuba

The Vietnam War (1955-1975) becomes a proxy war between the U.S. and communist forces, ending with the fall of Saigon and a communist victory

The Berlin Wall, constructed in 1961, symbolizes the division between East and West Germany and the Iron Curtain separating communist and capitalist Europe

Decolonization accelerates in the post-World War II era, with many African and Asian nations gaining independence from European colonial powers (India, Indonesia, Ghana)

The Cold War ends in the late 1980s and early 1990s with the fall of the Berlin Wall (1989), the collapse of the Soviet Union (1991), and the dissolution of the Warsaw Pact

Major Players and Ideologies

The United States emerges as a superpower after World War II, promoting capitalism, democracy, and anti-communism

- Advocates for the containment of communism through military alliances (NATO) and interventions

The Soviet Union becomes a rival superpower, promoting communism and supporting communist movements worldwide

- Establishes the Warsaw Pact (1955) as a military alliance of communist states in Eastern Europe

Mao Zedong leads the Chinese Communist Party to victory in the Chinese Civil War (1949), establishing the People's Republic of China

Fidel Castro leads the Cuban Revolution (1959) and aligns Cuba with the Soviet Union,

creating a communist state in the Western Hemisphere

European colonial powers (Britain, France, Belgium) face increasing pressure to grant independence to their colonies

Nationalist leaders in Asia and Africa (Mahatma Gandhi, Kwame Nkrumah, Sukarno) lead independence movements and establish new nations

The Non-Aligned Movement emerges, with countries seeking to avoid alignment with either the U.S. or Soviet Union (India, Egypt, Indonesia)

Cold War Dynamics

The Cold War is characterized by a nuclear arms race between the U.S. and Soviet Union, leading to the concept of mutually assured destruction (MAD)

Proxy wars occur in various regions (Korea, Vietnam, Afghanistan) as the superpowers support opposing sides in local conflicts

The space race becomes a symbol of technological competition, with the Soviet Union launching Sputnik 1 (1957) and the U.S. landing on the moon (1969)

Espionage and intelligence operations (CIA, KGB) play a significant role in gathering information and undermining rival powers

The Cold War leads to the formation of military alliances (NATO, Warsaw Pact) and the division of Europe into Western and Eastern blocs

The threat of nuclear war looms large, with events like the Cuban Missile Crisis highlighting the dangers of escalation

Détente in the 1970s leads to a temporary easing of tensions, with arms control agreements (SALT I, SALT II) and increased diplomacy

The Soviet invasion of Afghanistan (1979) and the election of U.S. President Ronald Reagan (1981) mark a renewed escalation of Cold War tensions in the 1980s

Decolonization Movements

The Atlantic Charter (1941) and the United Nations Charter (1945) support the principle of self-determination, fueling decolonization movements

India gains independence from British rule in 1947, with the partition creating the separate states of India and Pakistan

The Indonesian National Revolution (1945-1949) leads to independence from Dutch colonial rule

The First Indochina War (1946-1954) results in the independence of Vietnam, Laos, and Cambodia from French colonial rule

- The Geneva Accords (1954) divide Vietnam into North and South, setting the stage for the Vietnam War

The Algerian War (1954-1962) ends with Algeria gaining independence from France after a prolonged and brutal conflict

The Suez Crisis (1956) marks a turning point in the decline of British and French influence in the Middle East and North Africa

Ghana becomes the first sub-Saharan African nation to gain independence (1957), followed by a wave of decolonization in Africa in the 1960s (Nigeria, Kenya, Tanzania)

The Bandung Conference (1955) brings together newly independent Asian and African nations, promoting solidarity and non-alignment

Global Impact and Consequences

The Cold War leads to a bipolar world order, with nations aligning with either the United States or the Soviet Union

The threat of nuclear war and the arms race create a climate of fear and tension, shaping international relations and domestic policies

Decolonization creates a multitude of new nations, altering the global balance of power and increasing the membership of the United Nations

The Non-Aligned Movement emerges as a third force in international politics, with nations seeking to maintain independence from the superpowers

The Cold War fuels proxy wars and regional conflicts (Vietnam, Angola, Afghanistan), leading to loss of life and political instability

The space race and technological competition spur advancements in science, technology, and innovation

The global economy is shaped by the ideological divide, with the Bretton Woods system and the rise of international financial institutions (World Bank, IMF)

The end of the Cold War leads to the triumph of capitalism and liberal democracy as the dominant global ideologies, with the United States emerging as the sole superpower

Cultural and Social Changes

The Cold War influences popular culture, with themes of espionage, nuclear war, and anti-communism appearing in films, literature, and television

The space race captures the public imagination, inspiring a generation of scientists and engineers

The counterculture movement of the 1960s in the United States and Europe challenges traditional values and authority, advocating for civil rights, women's rights, and anti-war sentiment

Decolonization leads to the rise of new cultural identities and expressions, with the emergence of post-colonial literature, art, and music

The global spread of mass media and communication technologies (radio, television, satellites) facilitates the dissemination of ideas and information across borders

The Cold War contributes to the politicization of sports, with events like the Olympics becoming arenas for ideological competition and propaganda

The Non-Aligned Movement fosters cultural exchanges and solidarity among developing nations, promoting the idea of a shared "Third World" identity

The end of the Cold War and the collapse of the Soviet Union lead to the spread of Western cultural influence and the rise of globalization

Economic Shifts

The post-World War II era sees the rise of the Bretton Woods system, establishing the U.S. dollar as the global reserve currency and creating international financial institutions (World Bank, IMF)

The Marshall Plan provides economic aid to rebuild Western Europe, promoting economic recovery and integration

The Cold War leads to the division of the global economy into capitalist and communist blocs, with the U.S. and Soviet Union promoting their respective economic systems

The arms race and military spending contribute to economic growth and technological innovation, particularly in the defense and aerospace industries

Decolonization leads to the emergence of new economies and the restructuring of global trade patterns, with former colonies seeking to develop their own industries and reduce dependence on former colonial powers

The rise of the Non-Aligned Movement and the Group of 77 (G77) promotes economic cooperation and solidarity among developing nations

The oil crises of the 1970s (1973, 1979) highlight the economic vulnerability of Western nations and the growing influence of oil-producing countries (OPEC)

The end of the Cold War and the collapse of communist economies in Eastern Europe and the Soviet Union lead to economic transitions and the spread of market-oriented reforms

Legacy and Modern Relevance

The Cold War leaves a lasting impact on international relations, with the United States emerging as the dominant global superpower

The legacy of the nuclear arms race continues to shape discussions on nuclear proliferation, disarmament, and the role of nuclear weapons in international security

Decolonization transforms the global political landscape, with the rise of new nations and the ongoing challenges of political stability, economic development, and social cohesion

The Non-Aligned Movement and the principles of self-determination and solidarity among developing nations continue to influence international politics and cooperation

The end of the Cold War leads to the triumph of liberal democracy and market economies as the dominant global models, shaping the direction of political and economic reforms in many countries

The Cold War era witnesses significant technological advancements (space exploration, computer technology, telecommunications), which continue to shape modern society and the global economy

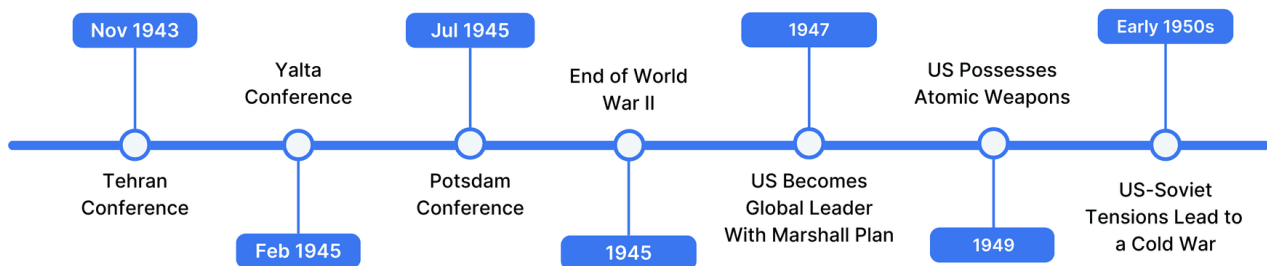
The ideological and geopolitical divisions of the Cold War continue to influence regional conflicts and tensions (Korean Peninsula, Cuba, Vietnam)

The study of the Cold War and decolonization provides valuable lessons for understanding contemporary global challenges, such as great power competition, nuclear proliferation, and the struggle for self-determination and equality

8.1: Setting the Stage for the Cold War and Decolonization

Post-World War 2, global dynamics shifted with states pursuing self-government. Shastri's anti-imperialist stance marked a pivotal moment, sparking an ideological conflict between the U.S. and the Soviet Union. Conferences like Tehran, Yalta, and Potsdam set the stage for the Cold War, fueled by U.S. empowerment through the Marshall Plan and atomic weapons. Simultaneously, colonies sought independence, creating a complex era of powerful nations, ideological clashes, and decolonization movements.

Key Timeline



Timeline of events preceding the Cold War and Decolonization.

Things to Know

Bringing the War to an End

Tehran Conference (November 1943)

- The conference took place in November 1943, with the participation of the **Big Three** leaders: Great Britain, the United States, and the Soviet Union.
- Its primary focus was on post-war plans and strategies.
- The leaders reached an agreement, designating roles for the liberation of Europe: the Soviet Union would be responsible for Eastern Europe, while Britain and the U.S. would concentrate on Western Europe.
- Territorial adjustments were part of the agreement, leading to the relocation of Polish territory to the Soviet Union.
- To compensate for this shift, Poland was to gain territorial concessions from Germany.

Yalta Conference (February 1945)

- Allies anticipated Germany's defeat and faced disagreements on post-war plans.
- Roosevelt's objectives included advocating for free, democratic elections in Eastern Europe and seeking Soviet assistance against Japan.
- Stalin's demands encompassed influence over Eastern Europe as a buffer zone, control of Japanese islands, Chinese ports, and the Manchurian railroad.
- A compromise was achieved, with the Soviet Union committing to fight Japan and providing vague assurances regarding free elections in Eastern Europe.

Potsdam Conference (July 1945)

- **Truman** replaced Roosevelt as U.S. president.
- Atlee replaced Churchill as British prime minister.
- Truman insisted on free elections in Eastern Europe.
- Soviet occupation hindered the possibility of free elections.
- Stalin rejected Truman's demand.
- As a result, Communists gained control of East Germany, Poland, Czechoslovakia, Hungary, Bulgaria, and Romania.

Post-Conference Developments

- Trust between the U.S. and the Soviet Union eroded.
- Aggressive rhetoric emerged, marking the start of the **Cold War**.
- The failure to settle key issues set the stage for a prolonged post-war conflict.

Shifting Balance of Power

Post-War Devastation (1945)

- Europe and Asia experienced widespread devastation, resulting in a significant loss of life estimated between 40 to 60 million deaths.
- The destruction extended to infrastructure, factories, roads, and bridges.
- Massive population movements occurred, driven by fear, as people sought safety and opportunities in the aftermath of the war.

Massive Destruction in Europe

- East and Central Europe experienced greater losses compared to Western Europe.
- The Soviet Union, Poland, and Germany were among the worst-hit nations, losing 10-20% of their populations.
- Despite significant losses, Great Britain and France managed to maintain democratic traditions, strong education systems, and innovative corporations.
- The advantages in Western Europe laid the foundation for global leadership in the post-war era.

US-Soviet Rivalry

- The U.S. experienced minimal damage on its soil, with the industrial base and infrastructure remaining intact and strengthened.
- Deaths in the U.S. was significantly lower compared to Europe.
- The development and use of atomic weapons further enhanced U.S. power on the global stage.
- The Soviets tested an atomic bomb in 1949, making them the sole challenger to the U.S. in terms of military might and political influence.

Advances During the War

- Military research during the war resulted in significant technological advancements.
- Developments included improvements in air pressure systems, refrigeration, and the enhancement of materials like stronger plywood and plastics.
- Penicillin (a crucial wartime advance) was developed and saved lives on the battlefield. Later it became widely used in civilian medicine, improving the health and well-being of millions of people.

The Start of the Cold War

Tensions and Settlement (1945-1949)

- Tensions between the U.S. and the Soviet Union were evident during the **Tehran, Yalta, and Potsdam** conferences.
- The high costs of the war deterred both superpowers from engaging in a full-scale conflict.
- **The Cold War** emerged as a result, characterized by indirect, non-military confrontation.
- This rivalry played out in various forms, including propaganda, secret operations, and an arms race between the two superpowers.

Global Impact and Transformation (1945-1950s)

- The deadliest consequences of the Cold War were often experienced outside the superpowers' own territories.
- The U.S.-Soviet rivalry fueled the support of opposing sides in global conflicts.
- Small civil wars and regional conflicts escalated as a result, leading to increased death tolls and widespread destruction in various parts of the world.

Nuclear Proliferation and Arms Race (Early 1950s)

- Both the U.S. and the Soviet Union advanced their nuclear capabilities by developing hydrogen bombs, surpassing the destructive power of World War II atomic bombs.
- The arms race intensified with close ties between the military and weapons development industries.
- President **Eisenhower** expressed concerns about the escalating U.S.-Soviet competition and the growing influence of the military-industrial complex.
- He warned against the alliance between the government and large defense contractors, raising awareness about the potential dangers of such collaborations.

Public Concerns and Protests (1960s and Beyond)

- Concerns among citizens heightened regarding the stockpiling of nuclear weapons.
- Ongoing concerns persist about the influence of the military-industrial complex and its potential impact on global stability.

Breakdown of Empires

Restructuring of Empires (Post-World War I)

- Austro-Hungary and Ottoman Empires crumbled, leading to the formation of multiple new countries
- Emphasis on **self-determination** and the right of each country to choose its own form of government

World War II Impact on Colonial Powers

- During World War II, leading colonial powers focused on stopping Hitler, leading to a temporary setback for **anti-colonial** movements
- Anti-colonial movements grew stronger, but actual **independence** progress was limited during the war

Post-World War II Context

- World War I marked the zenith of colonial empires, with British, French, and other European dominating in regions such as Africa, India, Southeast Asia, and China.
- Empires in Austria, Turkey, and Russia were multiethnic but often were dominated by one group, leading to discrimination against minority populations.
- After World War I, the demand for self-determination gained momentum, sparking renewed efforts to undermine colonialism globally.

Foundation for Dismantling Colonial Empires (Post-World War II)

- Movements for **self-determination** expanded in the colonized world
- Advocates for greater self-rule and full independence emerged within these movements
- Weakened colonial powers, particularly Great Britain and France, had fewer resources to resist independence after World War II

- The Cold War between the United States and the Soviet Union provided **anti-colonial** activists with two powerful supporters

Terms to Remember

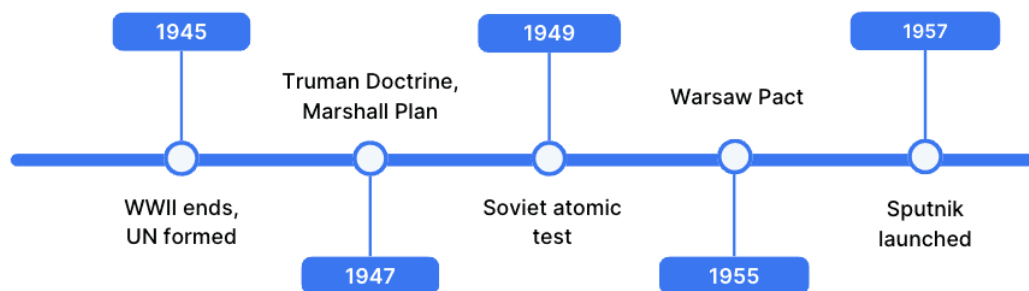
Term	Definition + Significance
Big Three	Allied leaders during World War II; Stalin (Soviet Union), Churchill (United Kingdom), and Roosevelt (United States).
Tehran Conference	Meeting between the Big Three to discuss their final attack on Germany.
Yalta Conference	Strategy meeting between Roosevelt, Churchill, and Stalin in 1945.
Potsdam Conference	The third meeting with the Big Three; included Truman.
Harry Truman	33rd President of the United States. Made the ultimate decision to use atomic weapons for the first time, leading to US victory. Shaped US foreign policy regarding the Soviet Union following the war.
Cold War	Political hostility between countries where threats, propaganda, and other measures of open warfare are present.
Dwight Eisenhower	34th U.S. President, WWII General, warned against Military-Industrial Complex.
Self-Determination	People's right to choose their own form of government.
Hydrogen Bomb	A new nuclear weapon that is even more destructive than the atomic bomb.
Military-Industrial Complex	Military and companies working together to make weapons for the government.

Topic 8.2: The Cold War

Main Idea

The Cold War, originating post-World War II, saw the United States and the Soviet Union in a global power struggle due to ideological differences between democracy and communism. The Iron Curtain divided Europe, leading to military interventions and the implementation of policies like the Marshall Plan and Truman Doctrine to curb communism. The space race added a technological dimension, while the Non-Aligned Movement complicated the geopolitical landscape by reflecting the desire of newly independent nations to avoid alignment with either superpower.

Key Timeline



Timeline of events during the Cold War.

Things to Know

Establishing a New International Organization

Allies were committed to creating a new organization post-World War II for peace and prosperity. Additionally wanting to replace the ineffective League of Nations.

League of Nations failed due to the lack of support from key countries, notably the United States, and the absence of a mechanism for swift intervention.

In 1943, leaders of the United States, Great Britain, the Soviet Union, and China discussed the concept of the United Nations (UN).

The United Nations was officially established in 1945.

Rivalry in Economics and Politics

Growing Tensions Post-United Nations (1946)

- The existence of the United Nations did not prevent worsening tensions between the Soviet Union and the West.
- Churchill's March 1946 speech marked the symbolic beginning of the Cold War.

Economic Contrasts: Capitalism vs. Communism

- United States and Capitalist Countries:
 - Economic assets were mostly privately owned, with private interests guiding economic decisions, and a strong emphasis on the freedom to act in self-

interest.

- Soviet Union and Communist Countries:
 - Economic assets were owned by the government, reflecting a system that emphasized equality and fairness.

Political System Variations: Democracy vs. Authoritarianism

- United States and Capitalist Countries:
 - People freely voted in elections, relying on independent news, and various parties competed.
- Soviet Union and Communist Countries:
 - Elections had little impact, the government controlled the news, and a single party ruled.

Criticisms and Mutual Accusations

- United States:
 - Criticisms of Soviet system for restricting rights and inefficient business operations.
- Soviet Union:
 - Accusations of giving poor people the “freedom to starve” and discriminating against minorities.

Analysts’ Emphasis on Similarities

- Despite differences, some analysts highlighted similarities.
- They both controlled a significant number of economic decisions in the hands of groups.
- Both countries had a powerful military, as they acted out of fear of each other.

Conflicts in International Affairs

Ideological Battle for Global Influence

- Both superpowers sought to spread their ideas globally, engaging in a prolonged struggle to influence public opinions and forge alliances with governments worldwide.

USSR and Satellite Countries

- Soviets sought to align Eastern European governments with the Soviet model.
- They imposed five-year economic plans emphasizing industry and collective agriculture.
- Outlawed all political parties other than the Communists.
- Exploited **satellite countries** for Soviet benefit, forcing them to trade exclusively with the Soviet Union.

World Revolution and Soviet Interference

- Soviet Union saw capitalism as a threat, tying it to the **world revolution**.
- Soviet support for revolutions raised Western suspicions, fueled Cold War tensions.

- Post-World War II revolutionary sentiments posed a serious threat to Western powers.

Containment Policy

- U.S. diplomat George Kennan advocated **containment** to prevent further spread of communism.
- The policy focused on preventing Soviet expansion and influence abroad.

Truman Doctrine (1947)

- Truman, following Kennan's advice, pledged to stop communism in Greece and Turkey by providing economic and military aid.

Marshall Plan (1947)

- U.S. concern about rebuilding Europe after World War II.
- \$12 billion aid was given for all European nations, including Germany.
- Aimed at modernizing industry, reducing trade barriers, and rebuilding infrastructure.
- Successfully increased economic output in aided countries by 35% in 1951.
- Soviet Union and Eastern European satellites refused to participate, creating the **Council for Mutual Economic Assistance (COMECON)** in 1949 with limited impact compared to the Marshall Plan.

The Space Race and the Arms Race

Space Race (1957-1969)

- In 1957, the Soviet Union launched the first artificial satellite, Sputnik, marking the beginning of the Space Race.
- The United States launched its first satellite in January 1958.
- Competition focused on achieving milestones like the first manned satellite orbit and landing a human on the moon.

Mutual Assured Destruction (MAD) (1959-present)

- Soviets tested the first intercontinental ballistic missile (ICBM) in 1959.
- The United States conducted a similar ICBM test later in the same year.
- Realization of Mutual Assured Destruction (MAD): Both superpowers reached a point where starting a nuclear war meant mutual obliteration.
- The arms race continued as both nations improved their technology, maintaining a balance of terror in the hope of keeping the peace.

The Non-Aligned Movement

Desire for Neutrality

- Many new African and Asian countries sought to distance themselves from the U.S.-Soviet Cold War.
- Aspired for an alternative framework in international economic, political, and social order, avoiding dominance by the two superpowers.

Bandung Conference (1955)

- Indonesia hosted a conference known as the Bandung Conference.
- Delegates from China, India, and 27 other countries, representing over half the world's population, passed resolutions condemning colonialism.

Formation of the Non-Aligned Movement (1961)

- The Bandung Conference's momentum led to the formal organization of the Non-Aligned Movement in 1961.

Balancing Act

- Member states attempted to blend support for stronger international institutions with advancing their interests.
 - Example: Jawaharlal Nehru, leader of India, advocated for a stronger UN but opposed its intervention in the India-Pakistan conflict over Kashmir.

8.3 Effects of the Cold War

The Cold War reshaped global political and military alliances, escalated ideological competition, and spurred numerous proxy conflicts across the globe. While the United States and the Soviet Union never directly fought each other, their rivalries played out in both subtle and violent ways, influencing nations on every continent.

Cold War Alliances

Following World War II, the world split into two competing ideological blocs. In order to solidify their influence, both the United States and the Soviet Union formed formal military alliances.

NATO (North Atlantic Treaty Organization) was created in 1949 by the United States and its Western European allies. Its goal was to provide collective security against the Soviet Union and promote democracy and capitalism.

The Warsaw Pact, formed in 1955, was the Eastern Bloc's response. Led by the Soviet Union, it included Eastern European satellite states and aimed to defend socialism and maintain Soviet dominance over the region.

These alliances heightened polarization between East and West and served as frameworks for global military coordination throughout the Cold War.

Non-Violent Cold War Conflicts

While not every Cold War confrontation resulted in war, the competition played out in symbolic, political, and technological arenas.

The Space Race

The Cold War reached beyond Earth's surface in a contest for space superiority.

The **Soviet Union** launched the world's first artificial satellite, **Sputnik**, in 1957, shocking the West and triggering major U.S. investments in science and education.

The **United States** responded with the successful **Apollo 11** mission in 1969, landing astronauts on the moon and establishing space dominance.

Beyond scientific achievement, space exploration was also tied to military power. The development of rockets for space also meant the possibility of **intercontinental ballistic missiles (ICBMs)**—capable of striking targets across the globe.

The Berlin Airlift and the Berlin Wall

In 1948, the Soviet Union imposed a blockade on **West Berlin**, attempting to starve out Allied control. In response, Western Allies launched the **Berlin Airlift**, delivering food and supplies by air for over a year until the blockade was lifted.

Later, in 1961, the **Berlin Wall** was constructed by East Germany to prevent citizens from fleeing to West Berlin. It symbolized the division between communism and capitalism and remained a physical and ideological barrier until its fall in 1989.

Proxy Wars

Rather than engaging in direct warfare, the United States and the Soviet Union backed opposing sides in conflicts around the world. These wars, often fought in postcolonial states, became deadly battlegrounds of Cold War ideology.

The Korean War (1950–1953)

North Korea, supported by the Soviet Union and China, invaded **South Korea**, backed by the United States and United Nations.

The war ended in a **stalemate** with an armistice in 1953 and the creation of the **Demilitarized Zone (DMZ)**.

This was the first major military conflict of the Cold War and set the precedent for future proxy wars.

The Vietnam War (1955–1975)

North Vietnam, led by the communist **Viet Cong** and supported by the USSR and China, fought against **South Vietnam**, which was backed by the U.S.

American involvement escalated in the 1960s, but after years of guerrilla warfare and growing domestic opposition, the U.S. withdrew.

In 1975, **Saigon fell** and Vietnam was unified under communist rule.

Impact: The Vietnam War deeply divided American society and raised serious questions about U.S. foreign policy and Cold War intervention.

The Angolan Civil War (1975–2002)

After independence from Portugal, civil war erupted between:

- **MPLA** (communist, backed by USSR and Cuba)
- **UNITA** (anti-communist, backed by U.S. and South Africa)

The war continued for decades, ending in 2002 after the death of UNITA leader **Jonas Savimbi**.

The Sandinista-Contras Conflict (1979–1990)

In **Nicaragua**, the **Sandinistas**, a socialist group supported by the Soviet Union, overthrew the Somoza dictatorship.

The **Contras**, an anti-communist rebel group, were covertly supported by the **United States**.

The conflict ended in 1990 with democratic elections and the Sandinistas' peaceful loss of power.

Nuclear Proliferation and the Arms Race

The Cold War also escalated into a race for nuclear dominance.

Both the U.S. and USSR developed **hydrogen bombs**, far more powerful than those used in WWII.

The doctrine of **Mutually Assured Destruction (MAD)** kept both sides in check, as any nuclear conflict would likely destroy both nations.

Several disarmament talks, such as **SALT I and II (Strategic Arms Limitation Talks)**, were attempted to reduce nuclear stockpiles, but deep mistrust lingered.

Comparison of Cold War Influence Strategies

Method	United States	Soviet Union
Military Alliances	NATO	Warsaw Pact
Economic Aid	Marshall Plan	Comecon
Ideological Messaging	Containment of Communism	Promotion of Socialism
Proxy Conflicts	Vietnam, Korea, Angola, Nicaragua	Vietnam, Korea, Angola, Nicaragua
Nuclear Strategy	MAD, arms buildup, disarmament talks	MAD, arms buildup, disarmament talks

The Cold War reshaped the world through ideological battles, military buildup, and foreign interventions. Although it never erupted into full-scale war between the superpowers, its consequences defined international relations for nearly half a century and continue to influence global politics today.

Key Terms to Review

Angolan Civil War: The Angolan Civil War was a protracted conflict that lasted from 1975 to 2002, primarily between the MPLA and UNITA factions in Angola following the country's independence from Portugal. This war was heavily influenced by the Cold War dynamics, as it drew in support from the Soviet Union and Cuba for the MPLA, while the United States and South Africa backed UNITA, reflecting broader global tensions.

Apollo 11 mission: The Apollo 11 mission was the first manned spaceflight to land on the moon, occurring in July 1969. This landmark event marked a significant achievement in space exploration and served as a powerful symbol of technological and ideological competition during the Cold War between the United States and the Soviet Union.

Berlin Blockade/Airlift: The Berlin Blockade was a Soviet attempt to limit the ability of France, Great Britain, and the United States to travel to their sectors of Berlin from 1948 to 1949, which led to the Berlin Airlift, where the Western Allies supplied West Berlin via air transportation. This event highlighted the tensions of the Cold War and the struggle for influence between the East and West, marking a significant point in post-World War II Europe.

Berlin Wall: The Berlin Wall was a concrete barrier that divided East and West Berlin from 1961 to 1989, symbolizing the Cold War's division of Europe into communist and capitalist spheres. Its construction marked a physical representation of the ideological struggle between the Soviet Union and Western powers, while its fall became a powerful emblem of the end of the Cold War and the reunification of Germany.

Cease-fire through peace negotiations: Cease-fire through peace negotiations refers to the process where conflicting parties agree to stop hostilities temporarily or permanently while engaging in discussions aimed at reaching a lasting peace agreement. This approach is significant in conflict resolution as it can provide a platform for dialogue, address underlying issues, and potentially lead to the stabilization of regions affected by war. Successful cease-fires often rely on mutual concessions, international mediation, and can have lasting impacts on post-conflict reconstruction and reconciliation efforts.

China and the Soviet Union: The relationship between China and the Soviet Union was a complex interaction characterized by ideological alignment, competition, and eventual estrangement during the Cold War. Initially united by a shared commitment to communist ideology, tensions arose due to differing national interests, leading to a split that significantly influenced global politics and shaped the dynamics of the Cold War.

Contras: The Contras were a rebel group in Nicaragua that opposed the Sandinista government from the early 1980s until the late 1990s. Backed by the United States, particularly during the Reagan administration, they aimed to overthrow the Sandinista regime, which was seen as a communist threat in Central America. This conflict reflected broader Cold War tensions as the U.S. sought to contain Soviet influence in the region.

Demilitarized Zone (DMZ): A Demilitarized Zone (DMZ) is an area where military forces and equipment are prohibited or restricted, typically established by international agreements to reduce the likelihood of conflict. This concept emerged prominently during the Cold War, serving as a buffer between opposing military forces, particularly in the context of heightened tensions and ideological divisions.

Eastern Europe: Eastern Europe refers to a region that encompasses various countries situated to the east of Germany and Austria, characterized by a complex history of political, cultural, and social dynamics, particularly during the Cold War and its aftermath. This region has been significantly shaped by its experiences under communist rule, the impact of decolonization, and the shifting balance of power in the 20th century.

French colonial rule: French colonial rule refers to the system of governance and administration established by France in its overseas territories, particularly during the 19th and early 20th centuries. This system aimed to exploit resources, spread French culture, and assert control over vast regions in Africa, Asia, and the Caribbean, shaping global dynamics and influencing local societies.

German Democratic Republic: The German Democratic Republic (GDR), commonly known as East Germany, was a socialist state established in 1949 in the eastern part of Germany, existing until its reunification with West Germany in 1990. It emerged as a result of the post-World War II division of Germany and was heavily influenced by Soviet policies, both politically and economically. The GDR played a significant role in the Cold War as a frontline state in the ideological conflict between the capitalist West and the communist East.

Guerrilla Warfare: Guerrilla warfare is a form of irregular combat in which small, mobile groups of armed civilians or irregulars use hit-and-run tactics to engage a larger, less-mobile traditional military force. This style of fighting became prominent during the Cold War as various groups employed these tactics to resist foreign intervention and control, often relying on the element of surprise and local knowledge.

Jonas Savimbi: Jonas Savimbi was a prominent Angolan political and military leader who founded the National Union for the Total Independence of Angola (UNITA) and became a key figure in the Angolan Civil War from 1975 until his death in 2002. His activities were heavily influenced by the Cold War dynamics, as he received support from the United States and other Western nations in their efforts to counteract Soviet influence in Africa.

Korean War: The Korean War was a conflict that lasted from 1950 to 1953, arising from the division of Korea into North and South after World War II. This war was a significant manifestation of Cold War tensions, showcasing the ideological battle between communism and democracy and leading to long-lasting effects on both Korea and international relations.

MPLA: The MPLA, or People's Movement for the Liberation of Angola, is a Marxist political party in Angola that played a crucial role in the country's struggle for independence from Portuguese colonial rule and in the subsequent civil war. Established in 1956, the MPLA became the ruling party after Angola gained independence in 1975, aligning itself with Soviet interests during the Cold War and impacting regional politics significantly.

North Korea: North Korea is a country in East Asia, officially known as the Democratic People's Republic of Korea (DPRK), that was established in 1948 following the end of World War II and the division of Korea. This state emerged from the geopolitical tensions of the Cold War, becoming a focal point for the ideological conflict between communism and capitalism, particularly influenced by Soviet support and American opposition. Its history is marked by authoritarian leadership, military conflict, and ongoing tensions with South Korea and other nations.

North Vietnam: North Vietnam was a communist-led state that existed from 1945 to 1976, officially known as the Democratic Republic of Vietnam. It played a crucial role in the Cold War, particularly through its conflict with South Vietnam and its alignment with the Soviet Union and China, reflecting the broader ideological struggle between communism and capitalism during this era.

Policy of Containment: The Policy of Containment was a geopolitical strategy adopted by the United States during the Cold War aimed at preventing the spread of communism beyond its existing borders. This strategy involved a mix of military, economic, and diplomatic efforts to counter the influence of the Soviet Union and communist movements worldwide. It was a response to fears that communism could expand into vulnerable nations, influencing their political systems and economies.

Proxy Wars: Proxy wars are conflicts where two opposing countries or powers support rival factions or groups in a third country, rather than engaging in direct military confrontation themselves. This strategy was notably used during the Cold War, as the United States and the Soviet Union sought to expand their influence globally while avoiding direct conflict, which could escalate into a nuclear war. By supporting various groups, each superpower could promote its ideology and interests while keeping hostilities at arm's length.

Reunification of Vietnam under communist rule: The reunification of Vietnam under communist rule occurred in 1975 when North Vietnam successfully defeated South Vietnam, leading to the establishment of a unified socialist republic. This event marked the end of a prolonged conflict influenced by Cold War dynamics, where Vietnam became a focal point for both Western and communist ideologies.

Saigon: Saigon, now known as Ho Chi Minh City, is the largest city in Vietnam and was a major center during the Vietnam War. It served as the capital of South Vietnam and became a symbol of the Cold War conflict between communism and capitalism, showcasing the tensions and ideologies that characterized the era.

Sandinista-Contras conflict: The Sandinista-Contras conflict was a political and military struggle in Nicaragua during the 1980s between the Sandinista National Liberation Front (FSLN), which had overthrown the Somoza dictatorship, and the Contra rebels, who opposed the Sandinista government. This conflict was emblematic of Cold War tensions, as it involved U.S. support for the Contras and highlighted the broader ideological battle between communism and capitalism in Central America.

Sandinista government: The Sandinista government refers to the ruling political party in Nicaragua, known as the Sandinista National Liberation Front (FSLN), which came to power after overthrowing the Somoza dictatorship in 1979. This government played a significant role during the Cold War as it embraced socialist policies and aligned itself with the Soviet Union, leading to a conflict with the U.S. that heavily influenced Nicaraguan politics and society.

Somoza dictatorship: The Somoza dictatorship refers to the authoritarian regime established by the Somoza family in Nicaragua, which lasted from the 1930s until the late 1970s. This regime was characterized by political repression, corruption, and a strong alliance with the United States during the Cold War, where it served as a bulwark against leftist movements in Central America.

Southeast Asia: Southeast Asia is a region located south of China and east of India, comprising several countries including Indonesia, Malaysia, the Philippines, Thailand, and Vietnam. The area has been shaped by diverse cultures, trade routes, and significant migrations throughout history, playing a critical role in global commerce and cultural exchange.

South Vietnam: South Vietnam was a state that existed from 1955 to 1975, formally known as the Republic of Vietnam, which was established during the Cold War era as a non-communist government in the southern part of Vietnam. It was created as a response to the rise of communism in North Vietnam and became a focal point of U.S. foreign policy, leading to significant military involvement and the eventual escalation of the Vietnam War.

South Korea: South Korea, officially known as the Republic of Korea, is a nation located on the southern half of the Korean Peninsula. Established in 1948, it emerged from the aftermath of World War II and the division of Korea, playing a pivotal role in the Cold War as a frontline state against communism and shaping the dynamics of international relations in East Asia.

Sputnik: Sputnik was the first artificial satellite launched into orbit by the Soviet Union on October 4, 1957. This landmark event marked the beginning of the space race, a crucial aspect of the Cold War, highlighting technological competition between the United States and the Soviet Union. Sputnik not only demonstrated Soviet technological capabilities but also instilled fear in the U.S. about the potential for missile technology and space exploration being used for military purposes.

UNITA: UNITA, or the National Union for the Total Independence of Angola, was a prominent political and military organization in Angola, founded in 1966 to fight for independence from Portuguese colonial rule. As a key player in the Angolan Civil War, UNITA was primarily supported by the United States and South Africa during the Cold War, opposing the rival MPLA (People's Movement for the Liberation of Angola) which was backed by the Soviet Union and Cuba.

United Nations: The United Nations (UN) is an international organization founded in 1945 to promote peace, security, and cooperation among nations. It was established in the aftermath of World War II to prevent future conflicts and to foster international collaboration in addressing global challenges.

Vietnam War: The Vietnam War was a prolonged conflict that took place from 1955 to 1975, primarily involving North Vietnam and its communist allies against South Vietnam and the United States. This war was a significant manifestation of Cold War tensions, as it highlighted the struggle between communism and democracy, while also shaping U.S. foreign policy and military strategies in the latter half of the 20th century.

West Germany: West Germany, officially known as the Federal Republic of Germany (FRG), was established in 1949 as a result of the division of Germany post-World War II. It emerged as a key player during the Cold War, representing a capitalist democracy aligned with Western powers, in contrast to East Germany's communist regime. This division highlighted ideological differences and led to significant political, social, and economic developments that shaped both German identity and international relations.

- **Western Europe:** Western Europe refers to a geographical and cultural region that includes countries like France, Germany, the United Kingdom, and the Benelux nations. This area has been central to many significant historical events, shaping political dynamics and cultural developments from the medieval period through modern times. Member states often found themselves leaning towards alignment with one superpower or the other.
 - Example: The war between Somalia and Ethiopia in 1977 prompted the Soviet Union to aid Ethiopia, leading the United States to support Somalia.

Terms to Remember

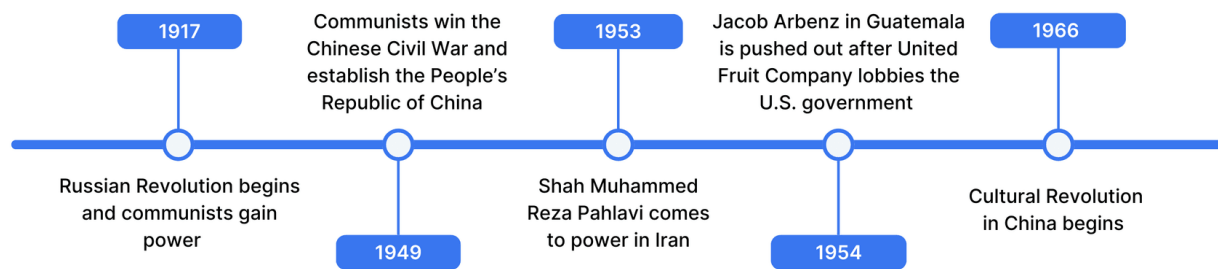
Term	Definition + Significance
United Nations	Global peace organization formed post-WWII
Iron Curtain	Symbolic division of Europe during the Cold War
Satellite Countries	Eastern Bloc nations under Soviet influence
World Revolution	Soviet belief in overthrowing global capitalism
Containment	U.S. policy to prevent communism's spread
Truman Doctrine	U.S. commitment to aid nations resisting communism
Non-Aligned Movement	Nations seeking independence amid Cold War
Sputnik	Soviet's first artificial satellite, triggering the Space Race
Marshall Plan	U.S. aid initiative to rebuild post-war Europe
Council for Mutual Economic Assistance	Soviet-led economic organization in Eastern Bloc

Topic 8.4 Spread of Communism after 1900

Main Idea

Past systems of global economics like feudalism, capitalism, and later colonialism produced many countries where wealth, land, and power was concentrated within a small class of people. By the 1900s, the ideas of communism and redistribution of land and wealth among the mass of working people began to materialize in many countries previously afflicted by these inequalities. As they examined the merits of communism, many countries in Asia and Latin America were also pulled into the ideological debate between the US and USSR over capitalism vs. communism.

Key Timeline



Timeline of events following the spread of communism throughout the 1900s

Things to Know

Communism in China

By 1927 the Nationalists and Communists in China were fighting for control of the country (paused after Japanese invasion) and continued after Japan's defeat in 1945

- The large peasant population in China allowed Mao Zedong and the Communists to gain support for their agenda that focused on redistributing land from landlords to the peasants
- By 1949 Mao and the Communists defeated the Nationalists and established the People's Republic of China as a communist nation with majority nationalized industries

Mao's agenda included many five-year plans in the style of Stalin's in the USSR focused on rapidly reorganizing the agrarian economy and promoting rural industrialization

- Chief among these reforms was the **Great Leap Forward**
- Taking of land previously held by landlords and redistributing to peasant as land fit to use for the collectivist agricultural communes

Adherence to communism were promoted through cultural reforms like **Cultural Revolution**

In Communist China, refusal to comply with land and cultural reforms could lead to being sent to a **"reeducation" camp** or killed

Failure of **collectivist agricultural communes** to produce food caused massive food shortages that led to the starvation and deaths of millions

Its relationship with the other major communist global power, the USSR, was not entirely peaceful due to their competition as the most influential communist nation

Foreign Influence in Iran

By the early 1900s and Britain and Russia vied for control over the country due to its oil reserves

- To prevent the country's leader caving to Hitler during WWII, Britain and Russia mutually agreed to invade Iran and force him out to make way for his son **Shah Muhammad Reza Pahlavi** as ruler
- The two powers remained in the country until the war's end

Nationalists opposed the western-backed shah, pushed him to flee, and selected a prime minister to lead Iran but he was overthrown by US and British forces who helped reinstall the shah

The Shah instituted many progressive reforms in the **White Revolution**, but used brutal secret police force to do it

- Significant reforms included women's right to vote and land reform to give more land to peasants
- These were opposed greatly by religious conservatives
- Civilians also opposed these changes because landowners were forced to give away land and majority of peasants still gained nothing from the reforms

While communism was staved off, the **Iranian Revolution** in 1979 toppled the shah and put in place a theocracy that opposed Western policies

Latin American

The concentration of land ownership among the few was a large issue in Latin American countries following independence from colonialism

In Venezuela, the government confiscated land and redistributed about 5 million acres of land

In Guatemala, the United Fruit Company felt threatened by the land reforms imposed by the Jacob Arbenz' democratically elected government and lobbied the U.S. to remove him

- He was overthrown in 1954

Land Reform in Asia and Africa

After Vietnam declared independence from Japan and France at the end of WWII, Communists seized land from large landowners and redistribute it to peasants

South Vietnam was slower to implement land reform than the North making it less popular and splitting the two regions along the lines of communism

In Ethiopia post-WWII, the government of Haile Selassie aligned with western powers and found economic success from the coffee trade but was unable to implement land reform

- People became unsatisfied with Selassie's leadership and he was deposed in 1974 by Mengistu Haile Mariam and Mariam's military leaders who declared the country socialist and aligned itself with the USSR
- This caused famine, economic instability, and rebellion and Mariam eventually fled the country to Zimbabwe

After India became an independent state:

- Land reforms were attempted to distribute land to the landless from rent collectors
- Protections were imposed to help tenants become more independent from landowners and purchase their own land

Eventually the progress of land reform was slowed

Terms to Remember

Term	Definition + Significance
Land Reform	Governmental division of agricultural land and reallocation to people who do not possess land
Mao Zedong	Leader of Chinese Communists in Chinese Civil War and first leader of the People's Republic of China who promoted the cause of peasants imposed drastic economic and cultural reforms
Great Leap Forward	Land reform economic policy instituted by Mao where peasant lands were reorganized into collectivist communes. The plan meant to use capital from sale of agriculture from the communes to fund rapid industrialization through manpower rather than machine. The policy led to widespread famine that killed around 20 million people.
Cultural Revolution	Sociopolitical reform imposed by Mao to bolster communist revolutionary ideals and cement his position. During this, Mao replaced leaders around him with those faithful to him and mobilized the youth to the revolutionary cause.
Reeducation Camps	Bureaucrats and leaders who were seen as "bourgeois" or not revolutionary enough were sent to labor in camps to reeducate them to accept communist ideology. People who refused to comply with Mao's reforms may have also been sent.
Red Guards	Groups of high school and college-aged youths who were organized into militant groups to combat "revisionist" authority who were not committed enough to communism and party leaders who Mao felt were not revolutionary
Shah Muhammad Reza Pahlavi	Imperial ruler of Iran who came to power in 1941 and was later placed back into power while being propped up by British and American forces in 1953. Western powers feared Iran falling into Soviet/communist influence so ensured a western-supporting monarch ruled Iran
Mohammad Mosaddegh	Prime Minister of Iran from 1951 to 1953 before Shah Muhammad Pahlavi's ascension. Democratically elected but was removed due to the West's desire to put the Shah who would be sympathetic in place

Term	Definition + Significance
White Revolution	Series of reforms imposed by Shah Reza Pahlavi during his 25-year rule. Policies were western-style and progressive with the most prominent being the government buying land from landlords and selling it to peasants at a lower price to undercut traditional landlord power. Other reforms came in the form of women voting and a social welfare system.
Iranian Revolution	The reorganization of Iranian governmental system after the fall of Shah Reza Pahlavi. Conservative religious leaders led the charge against the western-backed shah and eventually rose to power and converted Iran into a theocratic government.
Communes	Large agricultural communities where the state held the land, not private owners

Notes and Observations:

8.5 Decolonization After 1900

Defining Decolonization

Decolonization refers to the process through which former colonies—primarily in Asia, Africa, and the Caribbean—gained independence from European imperial powers. This movement accelerated after **World War II**, as anti-colonial sentiment grew globally and imperial powers faced economic strain and mounting pressure to deconstruct their empires.

The path to independence varied widely. Some countries achieved it through **negotiation**, while others resorted to **armed struggle**. Regardless of method, decolonization reshaped global politics, led to the creation of new nations, and forced former imperial powers to redefine their international roles.

Paths to Independence Across the World

India: Nonviolent Resistance and Partition

The independence movement in **India** had been growing since the early 20th century, especially after Britain failed to grant self-rule following Indian contributions in **World War I**.

The **Indian National Congress (INC)**, led by **Mohandas Gandhi**, adopted nonviolent methods such as civil disobedience and boycotts to protest British rule.

In 1947, India gained independence through negotiation. However, religious tensions between Hindus and Muslims led to the **partition of India and Pakistan**, resulting in widespread violence and displacement.



India's Decolonization Courtesy of FREEMANPEDIA

Gandhi's strategy of nonviolent resistance inspired later global civil rights movements and marked a shift in how anti-colonial struggles could be waged.

Ghana (British Gold Coast): Political Organization and Protest

Ghana was the first sub-Saharan African country to gain independence from colonial rule.

Kwame Nkrumah, a Western-educated leader, organized the **Convention People's Party** to demand self-rule.

Through **strikes**, **boycotts**, and political mobilization, Ghana negotiated its independence from Britain in **1957**, largely without bloodshed.

Kenya: Armed Resistance and Nationalism

Unlike Ghana, Kenya's path to independence was more violent.

The **Mau Mau Rebellion** (1952–1960) was a nationalist uprising primarily led by the **Kikuyu ethnic group** against British land policies and colonial rule.

Britain responded with brutal military suppression and mass detentions.

Despite the bloodshed, international pressure and continued resistance led to **Kenya's independence in 1963**.

Algeria: Guerrilla Warfare Against French Rule

Decolonization in **Algeria** was among the most violent of the post-WWII era.

The **National Liberation Front (FLN)** launched a **guerrilla war** against French forces in 1954.

The war involved urban bombings, torture, and massacres. French society was bitterly divided over the conflict.

Algeria gained independence in **1962** following the **Evian Accords** and mounting international pressure.

The Algerian War exposed the deep costs of colonialism and shaped France's future military and diplomatic strategies.

French West Africa: Political Reform and Gradual Negotiation

In contrast to Algeria, many French colonies in West Africa followed a **negotiated path** to independence.

French policies shifted after WWII, allowing local participation in governance through laws like the **Loi-Cadre**.

By **1960**, territories such as **Senegal**, **Niger**, and **Mali** gained independence with limited violence.

Vietnam (French Indochina): Communist Nationalism and War

Vietnam's decolonization was long and complex:

Ho Chi Minh, a communist and nationalist leader, formed the **Viet Minh** to fight for Vietnamese independence.

After defeating the French at the **Battle of Dien Bien Phu** in 1954, Vietnam was temporarily divided into communist North and anti-communist South.

Continued U.S. involvement led to the prolonged **Vietnam War**, which ended in reunification in **1975**.

Vietnam illustrates how Cold War dynamics influenced decolonization, especially in regions where communism took root.

Nigeria: Federal Independence and Ethnic Tensions

Nigeria, rich in natural resources and home to diverse ethnic groups, gained independence from Britain in **1960**.

Political tensions soon emerged between regions, especially among the **Igbo**, **Hausa-Fulani**, and **Yoruba** ethnic groups.

In **1967**, the Igbo-dominated southeast attempted to secede as **Biafra**, sparking a civil war.

The **Biafran War** lasted until 1970 and resulted in mass famine and deaths.

Angola: Colonial War and Civil Conflict

Angola's decolonization was part of a broader wave of anti-Portuguese resistance.

Independence movements clashed with Portuguese forces starting in the 1960s.

Portugal's **Carnation Revolution** in 1974 ended authoritarian rule and triggered decolonization.

Angola declared independence in **1975**, but was immediately plunged into a **civil war** between rival factions, often backed by Cold War superpowers.

Comparative Overview of Decolonization Movements

Region/ Country	Colonial Power	Method of Independence	Key Leader(s)	Nature of Struggle
India	Britain	Negotiation	Gandhi, INC	Nonviolent, Partition
Ghana	Britain	Negotiation	Kwame Nkrumah	Peaceful Protests
Kenya	Britain	Armed Struggle	Mau Mau (Kikuyu leaders)	Violent Rebellion
Algeria	France	Armed Struggle	FLN	Guerilla Warfare
Vietnam	France	Armed Struggle	Ho Chi Minh	Cold War Proxy Conflict
French W. Africa	France	Negotiation	Léopold Senghor (Senegal)	Gradual Decolonization
Nigeria	Britain	Negotiation	Nnamdi Azikiwe, others	Civil War Post- Independence
Angola	Portugal	Armed Struggle	MPLA, UNITA, FNLA	Colonial & Civil War

Broader Themes of Decolonization

Nationalist movements were shaped by both **Western education** and **traditional leadership**.

Cold War rivalries influenced the outcome of decolonization, especially where communism or U.S. intervention played a role.

Former colonies struggled with **ethnic division**, **border disputes**, and **economic dependence**, which often stemmed from **imperial boundaries** and **resource exploitation**.

Not all independence movements succeeded. In places like **Quebec**, efforts at secession (led by the **Quebecois separatist movement**) failed, but revealed broader global trends in self-determination.

Key Terms to Review

Algeria: Algeria is a North African country that gained independence from France in 1962 after a protracted and violent struggle known as the Algerian War of Independence. This conflict was a significant example of decolonization after 1900, showcasing the intense nationalist movements that emerged in various colonized regions as people sought self-determination and autonomy.

Angola: Angola is a country located in Southern Africa, bordered by Namibia, Zambia, and the Atlantic Ocean. It became a focal point for European expansion during the late 15th century, particularly due to the demand for slave labor and the establishment of the slave trade. In the context of resistance to European expansion, Angola's struggles against Portuguese colonization were significant, particularly during the 19th century. The nation later played a crucial role in the decolonization movement after World War II, gaining independence from Portugal in 1975 after a protracted liberation struggle.

Anti-Colonial Movements: Anti-Colonial Movements are efforts by colonized people to resist and overthrow colonial rule and foreign domination. These movements emerged in response to the exploitation, oppression, and cultural erasure imposed by imperial powers, often leading to significant political, social, and economic changes in the affected regions.

Angolan Civil War: The Angolan Civil War was a protracted conflict that lasted from 1975 to 2002, primarily between the MPLA and UNITA factions in Angola following the country's independence from Portugal. This war was heavily influenced by the Cold War dynamics, as it drew in support from the Soviet Union and Cuba for the MPLA, while the United States and South Africa backed UNITA, reflecting broader global tensions.

Biafra Secessionist Movement: The Biafra Secessionist Movement was a political and military campaign in Nigeria aimed at establishing the independent Republic of Biafra from 1967 to 1970. This movement arose in response to ethnic tensions, political instability, and economic disparities following Nigeria's independence, ultimately leading to a brutal civil war known as the Nigerian Civil War or Biafran War.

British Gold Coast (Ghana): The British Gold Coast, known today as Ghana, was a British colony located along the West African coast from the late 19th century until its independence in 1957. It played a critical role in the broader context of decolonization after 1900, representing a significant movement towards self-governance and independence in Africa, as well as the struggle against colonial exploitation and economic control.

Canada: Canada is a North American country known for its vast landscapes, diverse culture, and strong economy. As a member of the British Commonwealth, Canada has played significant roles in global conflicts, the process of decolonization, and the development of international institutions that reflect its commitment to peace and cooperation.

Convention People's Party: The Convention People's Party (CPP) is a political party in Ghana, founded in 1949 by Kwame Nkrumah. It emerged as a key player in the struggle for Ghana's independence from British colonial rule and became the ruling party after independence in 1957, symbolizing a significant shift in African politics during the wave of decolonization after 1900.

Decolonization: Decolonization is the process through which colonies gain independence from colonial powers, leading to the establishment of sovereign nations. This term is closely linked to the global shifts in political power after World War II, as many nations sought to assert their rights and identities outside of colonial rule.

French Indochina (Vietnam): French Indochina was a colonial territory in Southeast Asia, which included modern-day Vietnam, Laos, and Cambodia, established by France in the mid-19th century. The region became a focal point of decolonization movements after World War II as nationalist leaders sought to gain independence from French colonial rule.

French West Africa: French West Africa was a federation of eight French colonial territories in West Africa, established in the late 19th century and lasting until the mid-20th century. It played a pivotal role in the context of decolonization after 1900 as it became a focal point for anti-colonial movements and independence efforts across the region.

General Yakubu Gowon: General Yakubu Gowon was a Nigerian military officer who served as the head of state of Nigeria from 1966 to 1975. He came to power following a coup and played a pivotal role during the Nigerian Civil War, which occurred from 1967 to 1970, influencing Nigeria's post-colonial state and its journey toward nation-building.

Ho Chi Minh: Ho Chi Minh was a Vietnamese revolutionary leader who played a crucial role in the struggle for Vietnam's independence from French colonial rule and the subsequent establishment of a communist state. His leadership significantly influenced the spread of communism in Southeast Asia and contributed to decolonization efforts around the world.

Indian National Congress (INC): The Indian National Congress (INC) is a political party in India that was founded in 1885, primarily to give a voice to Indians in the colonial administration and to advocate for greater rights and self-governance. It played a pivotal role in India's struggle for independence from British rule, evolving from a platform for moderate reforms to a leading force for national liberation in the early 20th century, marking a significant chapter in the story of decolonization after 1900.

Indochinese Communist Party: The Indochinese Communist Party (ICP) was a revolutionary political party founded in 1930 to promote communism and independence in Vietnam, Laos, and Cambodia. It played a crucial role in the decolonization process after World War II, particularly in mobilizing nationalist sentiments against French colonial rule and later against American involvement in the region.

Kenya: Kenya is an East African nation that gained independence from British colonial rule in 1963. It played a pivotal role in the broader process of decolonization across Africa, marked by political movements and social upheavals as various groups sought self-determination and national identity following World War II.

Kikuyu Ethnic Group: The Kikuyu ethnic group is the largest ethnic community in Kenya, known for their rich cultural heritage and significant role in the country's history, especially during the period of decolonization. Their involvement in the struggle against British colonial rule, particularly through the Mau Mau Uprising, highlights their quest for land rights and self-governance. The Kikuyu have played a crucial part in shaping modern Kenya's political landscape and identity.

Kwame Nkrumah: Kwame Nkrumah was a prominent Ghanaian politician and activist who became the first Prime Minister and President of Ghana, leading the country to independence from British colonial rule in 1957. He played a key role in the broader movement of decolonization across Africa and promoted Pan-Africanism during the Cold War, advocating for unity among African nations.

Lieutenant Colonel Chukwuemeka Odumegwu Ojukwu: Lieutenant Colonel Chukwuemeka Odumegwu Ojukwu was a Nigerian military officer and political leader who is best known for his role as the leader of the secessionist state of Biafra during the Nigerian Civil War from 1967 to 1970. His actions were pivotal in the context of decolonization in Africa, as they reflected the struggles for self-determination and the impact of colonial legacies on ethnic tensions within newly independent nations.

Loi-Cadre: The Loi-Cadre, or Framework Law, was a pivotal piece of legislation passed in 1956 by the French government that aimed to provide a framework for the governance of its colonies in Africa. This law marked a significant shift toward decolonization by granting limited autonomy to French colonies and acknowledging their aspirations for self-governance, reflecting the broader global movement toward independence during the mid-20th century.

Mahatma Gandhi: Mahatma Gandhi was a prominent leader in the Indian independence movement against British colonial rule, known for his philosophy of nonviolent resistance, or 'satyagraha.' His efforts inspired global movements for civil rights and freedom, making him a pivotal figure in the context of decolonization and social reform.

Mau Mau Movement: The Mau Mau Movement was a nationalist uprising in Kenya during the 1950s, primarily involving the Kikuyu people, who sought to end British colonial rule and reclaim land. This movement became known for its violent resistance against colonial authorities and its role in the broader context of decolonization in Africa, symbolizing the struggle for independence and self-determination.

National Liberation Front (FLN): The National Liberation Front (FLN) was a revolutionary political and military organization in Algeria that played a key role in the country's struggle for independence from French colonial rule beginning in 1954. The FLN united various nationalist groups, employing guerrilla warfare and political strategies to mobilize the Algerian population and gain international support, significantly influencing the broader process of decolonization during the mid-20th century.

Nationalist Sentiments: Nationalist sentiments refer to the feelings of pride, loyalty, and devotion that individuals have toward their nation, often leading to the desire for self-determination and independence from colonial or foreign rule. This term is crucial in understanding the motivations behind decolonization movements after 1900, as colonized peoples sought to assert their identity and rights while challenging imperial powers.

Niger: Niger is a landlocked country in West Africa, known for its rich cultural heritage and diverse ethnic groups. It gained independence from French colonial rule in 1960, marking a significant moment in the wave of decolonization that swept across Africa during the mid-20th century, leading to the establishment of national identities and governments free from colonial influence.

Nigeria: Nigeria is a West African country, known for its rich cultural diversity, abundant natural resources, and complex history of colonialism and post-colonial challenges. Following the end of British colonial rule in 1960, Nigeria became a focal point of decolonization, navigating issues of ethnic tensions, economic development, and governance while striving for national unity and identity.

Quebecois Separatist Movement: The Quebecois Separatist Movement is a political and social movement that seeks to promote the independence of Quebec from Canada, emphasizing the province's distinct French-speaking culture and identity. This movement emerged in the mid-20th century as a response to perceived economic and political marginalization, advocating for greater autonomy and ultimately full sovereignty for Quebec.

Senegal: Senegal is a West African nation located on the Atlantic coast, known for its rich cultural heritage and historical significance, particularly as a center of the transatlantic slave trade. The country played a crucial role in the decolonization movements of the mid-20th century, advocating for independence from French colonial rule and becoming one of the first sub-Saharan African nations to gain independence in 1960.

World War II: World War II was a global conflict that lasted from 1939 to 1945, involving most of the world's nations and resulting in significant military, political, and social changes. It was marked by widespread atrocities, the rise of totalitarian regimes, and the use of advanced technology in warfare, ultimately reshaping the global order.

“When I criticize a system, they think I criticize them—and that is of course because they accept the system and identify themselves with it.”

~Thomas Merton OCSO, religious name M. Louis, was an American Trappist monk, writer, theologian, mystic, poet, social activist and scholar of comparative religion.

8.6 Newly Independent States After 1900

The 20th century witnessed the emergence of dozens of newly independent states, many formed in the wake of colonial empires' collapse. These states often arose from political boundaries drawn without regard for ethnic, cultural, or religious cohesion, resulting in lasting instability. New governments struggled to assert national identity, manage population displacement, and establish effective economic systems. In many cases, colonial legacies and Cold War geopolitics directly shaped the nature of independence and state formation.

Israel and the Partition of Palestine

The creation of **Israel** in 1948 marked a profound political shift in the Middle East and a deeply contested instance of post-colonial state formation.

During the interwar years, **Britain held a League of Nations mandate over Palestine**, where increasing Jewish immigration—fueled by Zionist movements and the aftermath of the Holocaust—created growing tension with the Arab Palestinian population. Britain, weakened after World War II and facing growing violence from both Arab and Jewish groups, referred the issue to the **United Nations**, which proposed a partition plan in 1947.

Jewish leaders accepted the plan, but Arab leaders rejected it, seeing it as unjust and imposed. When **Israel declared independence in May 1948**, several Arab nations launched a war against the new state. Israel survived and expanded its territory beyond the UN's proposed borders. Meanwhile, over **700,000 Palestinians were displaced**, marking the beginning of the **Nakba** ("catastrophe").

The Israeli-Palestinian conflict remains one of the most enduring examples of the complications and violence that can arise from externally imposed state creation and unresolved nationalist tensions.

Cambodia and the Rise of the Khmer Rouge

Cambodia's path to independence and self-rule was shaped by both colonial legacies and Cold War intervention. After gaining independence from France in 1953, Cambodia struggled with political instability, especially as the Vietnam War spilled into its borders.

The rise of the **Khmer Rouge**, led by **Pol Pot**, was partially fueled by rural dissatisfaction and anti-Western sentiment. After seizing power in 1975, the regime attempted to turn Cambodia into a **rural, classless society** by abolishing money, closing schools, and forcibly relocating urban populations.

These policies led to the **Cambodian Genocide**, in which 1.5 to 2 million people—roughly a quarter of the population—died due to starvation, forced labor, and executions.

Cambodia's experience shows how Cold War dynamics and the vacuum left by colonialism can lead to radical, violent transformations in newly independent states.

Partition and the Creation of Pakistan

The **Partition of British India in 1947** resulted in the creation of two independent states: **India and Pakistan**. The division was driven by growing Hindu-Muslim tensions, exacerbated by British “divide and rule” strategies and communal politics.

The **Muslim League**, led by **Muhammad Ali Jinnah**, advocated for a separate Muslim state to protect Muslim interests.

The hasty partition led to the **largest mass migration in human history**, as millions of Muslims moved to Pakistan and Hindus/Sikhs to India.

The movement of over **14 million people** triggered widespread **communal violence**, with an estimated **2 million deaths**.

Partition also left unresolved territorial disputes, especially in **Kashmir**, fueling ongoing conflict between India and Pakistan.

Economic Strategies in Newly Independent States

New states emerging from colonialism often rejected capitalist models associated with Western powers, instead embracing **state-led economic planning**. These strategies aimed to industrialize economies, reduce inequality, and assert national control over key industries.

Country	Leader	Economic Policy	Goals and Outcomes
India	Indira Gandhi	Nationalized banks & key industries	Sought equity, but caused inefficiency and slowed growth
Egypt	Gamal Abdel Nasser	Nationalized Suez Canal; state planning	Asserted anti-imperialism; provoked Suez Crisis
Tanzania	Julius Nyerere	Ujamaa (African socialism)	Boosted literacy; collectivization hurt agricultural output
Sri Lanka	Sirimavo Bandaranaike	Balanced nationalization & free market	Reduced inequality; couldn't prevent ethnic conflict

These approaches often struggled to overcome deep-rooted structural inequalities and the global dominance of capitalist economies.

Migrations After Decolonization

Decolonization also reshaped **global migration patterns**, as former colonial subjects moved to imperial metropolises in search of opportunity or refuge. These migrations both sustained economic ties and highlighted cultural continuities between former colonies and colonizers.

South Asians to Britain: Citizens from India, Pakistan, and Bangladesh migrated to Britain after independence, contributing to labor markets and reshaping British society.

Algerians to France: Many Algerians moved to France after independence in 1962, continuing a migration pattern that began during French colonial rule.

Filipinos to the United States: A legacy of American colonization, many Filipinos moved to the U.S. for work, especially in healthcare and domestic labor sectors.

These migration flows highlight how colonial relationships often persisted long after independence through economic dependency, labor markets, and diasporic communities.



Source: Freemanpedia

Key Terms to Review

Algerians to France: The movement of Algerians to France primarily refers to the significant migration of people from Algeria, especially during and after the Algerian War of Independence (1954-1962). This migration was influenced by various factors including economic opportunities, political instability, and the quest for a better life. As Algeria transitioned from being a French colony to an independent state, many Algerians sought refuge and new beginnings in France, leading to complex social and cultural dynamics in both nations.

British Balfour Declaration: The British Balfour Declaration was a statement issued by the

British government in 1917 that expressed support for the establishment of a 'national home for the Jewish people' in Palestine. This declaration marked a significant moment in the context of geopolitical shifts following World War I and the emergence of newly independent states, as it contributed to the complexities of nationalism and territorial claims in the Middle East.

Cambodian Genocide: The Cambodian Genocide refers to the systematic extermination of approximately 1.7 million people in Cambodia from 1975 to 1979, perpetrated by the Khmer Rouge regime led by Pol Pot. This period of mass violence was characterized by extreme brutality, forced labor, starvation, and widespread executions, targeting intellectuals, professionals, and ethnic minorities. The genocide highlights the devastating consequences of totalitarian ideologies and the impacts of civil conflict on newly independent states.

Economic Systems in the New States: Economic Systems in the New States refer to the various approaches and frameworks adopted by newly independent nations after the 1900s to manage their economies and resources. These systems were shaped by historical contexts, colonial legacies, and the need for rapid development while addressing social inequalities. Different economic strategies, such as capitalism, socialism, and mixed economies, emerged as countries sought to establish their identities and foster growth.

Egypt: Egypt is a country in North Africa known for its rich history, ancient civilization, and pivotal role in the development of early cultures. As a significant player in various global conflicts and a focal point for newly independent states post-1900, Egypt's strategic location and resources have influenced political dynamics and social movements throughout history.

Filipinos to the U.S.: The migration of Filipinos to the United States began significantly in the early 20th century, particularly after the Philippines became a U.S. territory following the Spanish-American War in 1898. This migration was driven by various factors, including economic opportunities, education, and labor demand in the U.S., leading to the establishment of vibrant Filipino communities across the country.

Gamal Abdel Nasser: Gamal Abdel Nasser was an influential Egyptian leader and a prominent figure in the Arab nationalist movement, serving as the second President of Egypt from 1956 until his death in 1970. He is best known for his role in promoting pan-Arabism, advocating for the modernization of Arab states, and implementing significant social and economic reforms in Egypt. Nasser's policies and actions not only transformed Egypt but also inspired independence movements across the Middle East and North Africa.

India: India is a vast South Asian country known for its rich cultural heritage, diverse population, and significant historical impact. It emerged as an independent nation in 1947, navigating the complexities of post-colonial identity, economic development, and global influence.

Indian National Congress: The Indian National Congress (INC) is a political party in India that played a crucial role in the struggle for independence from British colonial rule. Formed in 1885, the INC became the principal organization representing Indian interests and aspirations, leading to significant movements against colonial policies and shaping the political landscape of newly independent India.

Indira Gandhi: Indira Gandhi was an influential Indian politician who served as the Prime Minister of India from 1966 to 1977 and again from 1980 until her assassination in 1984. She was the first and, to date, the only female Prime Minister of India, playing a critical role in shaping modern India's political landscape and navigating the complexities of post-colonial governance.

Israel: Israel is a Middle Eastern country established in 1948 as a homeland for the Jewish people following the Holocaust and centuries of Jewish diaspora. Its formation marked a significant moment in global history, influencing regional politics, international relations, and the dynamics of newly independent states emerging after World War II.

Julius Nyerere: Julius Nyerere was the first president of Tanzania, serving from 1964 until 1985, and is known for his role in the country's independence and development. He advocated for African socialism and established the philosophy of Ujamaa, which emphasized community cooperation and self-reliance in the newly independent state.

Khmer Rouge: The Khmer Rouge was a radical communist regime that ruled Cambodia from

1975 to 1979, led by Pol Pot. This regime is infamous for its brutal policies aimed at creating an agrarian socialist society, resulting in mass atrocities and the deaths of approximately 1.7 million people through forced labor, starvation, and executions. The Khmer Rouge's rise to power and its subsequent actions are crucial in understanding the broader themes of mass atrocities and the challenges faced by newly independent states in the late 20th century.

Migrations: Migrations refer to the movement of people from one place to another, which can occur for various reasons such as economic opportunity, political unrest, environmental changes, or social factors. In the context of newly independent states after 1900, migrations played a significant role in shaping demographics, influencing national identities, and affecting socio-economic development as populations adjusted to new political realities and challenges.

Muslim League: The Muslim League was a political party in the Indian subcontinent founded in 1906 to advocate for the rights of Muslims and to promote their political interests. It played a crucial role in the struggle for independence from British rule and later became the driving force behind the demand for a separate Muslim state, leading to the creation of Pakistan in 1947.

Muhammad Ali Jinnah: Muhammad Ali Jinnah was a prominent leader in the Indian independence movement and the founder of Pakistan, serving as its first Governor-General from 1947 until his death in 1948. He played a crucial role in advocating for the rights of Muslims in British India, ultimately leading to the establishment of Pakistan as a separate nation for Muslims following the partition of India.

Palestine: Palestine refers to a geographic region in Western Asia that has been a focal point of conflict and nationalism, particularly during the 20th century as various groups sought self-determination and statehood. The struggle over Palestine is intricately tied to the broader themes of newly independent states, colonialism, and national identity as these elements shaped political landscapes in the post-World War I era and beyond.

Pakistan: Pakistan is a South Asian country that emerged as a separate nation in 1947 during the partition of British India, primarily to serve as a homeland for Muslims in the region. Its creation marked a significant moment in the decolonization process and was influenced by the broader currents of nationalism and colonial legacy, shaping its identity and geopolitical significance.

Partition of India and Pakistan: The Partition of India and Pakistan refers to the division of British India in 1947 into two independent dominions: India and Pakistan. This event marked a significant moment in history, as it not only established the borders of two new countries but also triggered massive population migrations, communal violence, and long-lasting political tensions that shaped the region's future.

Sirimavo Bandaranaike: Sirimavo Bandaranaike was the world's first female prime minister, serving three terms in Sri Lanka from 1960 to 1977 and again in 1990 to 2000. Her leadership marked a significant shift towards socialist policies and non-alignment during a period of decolonization and the establishment of newly independent states after 1900, reflecting the challenges and aspirations faced by these nations.

South Asians to Britain: The term 'South Asians to Britain' refers to the significant migration of people from the Indian subcontinent, including India, Pakistan, and Bangladesh, to the United Kingdom, particularly during the 20th century. This movement was driven by various factors including colonial ties, economic opportunities, and political changes, profoundly influencing British society and culture.

Sri Lanka: Sri Lanka is an island nation located in South Asia, known for its rich cultural heritage and diverse population. Gaining independence from British colonial rule in 1948, Sri Lanka faced various challenges, including ethnic tensions and civil conflict, that shaped its political landscape in the context of newly independent states after 1900.

Tanzania: Tanzania is a country in East Africa, formed in 1964 from the union of the mainland territory of Tanganyika and the islands of Zanzibar. As a newly independent state, Tanzania represents the challenges and successes faced by African nations after colonial rule, particularly in terms of nation-building, economic development, and political stability.

United Nations: The United Nations (UN) is an international organization founded in 1945 to

promote peace, security, and cooperation among nations. It was established in the aftermath of World War II to prevent future conflicts and to foster international collaboration in addressing global challenges.

Yom Kippur War: The Yom Kippur War, also known as the October War, was a conflict that erupted on October 6, 1973, when a coalition of Arab states led by Egypt and Syria launched a surprise attack against Israel during the Jewish holy day of Yom Kippur. This war significantly impacted the geopolitical landscape of the Middle East and underscored the ongoing tensions in the region following the establishment of Israel and the decolonization processes that were taking place in various newly independent states.

Zionism: Zionism is a nationalist movement that emerged in the late 19th century advocating for the establishment of a Jewish homeland in Palestine. This movement arose in response to widespread anti-Semitism and persecution faced by Jews in Europe, and it was influenced by ideas of nationalism stemming from the Enlightenment. Zionism played a crucial role in the eventual establishment of the State of Israel in 1948 and has had lasting implications for Middle Eastern politics.

Notes and Observations:

8.7 Global Resistance to Established Power Structures After 1900

Throughout the 20th century, established power structures—including colonial regimes, authoritarian governments, and militarized states—were increasingly challenged by both violent and nonviolent movements. Some individuals and groups intensified conflict through state repression or terrorism, while others promoted peaceful resistance and sought justice through civil disobedience. These varied responses reflected broader global tensions and ideological divides, especially during the Cold War.

Intensified State Repression and Militarized Violence

Spain: Francisco Franco

Francisco Franco came to power during the Spanish Civil War (1936–1939) and ruled as a fascist dictator until his death in 1975. He crushed opposition through widespread executions, imprisonment, and censorship.

Franko's regime specifically targeted **regional identities**, including **Catalans and Basques**, suppressing their languages and cultures.

A secret police network enforced loyalty to the regime.

Only **Roman Catholicism** was officially tolerated, and political dissent was brutally punished.

Franko's rule exemplifies how militarized states used extreme nationalism and violence to suppress democratic resistance and cultural diversity.

Uganda: Idi Amin

Idi Amin ruled Uganda from 1971 to 1979, establishing a violent military dictatorship.

Amin expanded the military and used it to **persecute ethnic groups**, including the **Acholi** and **Lango**.

In 1972, he **expelled over 50,000 Asians** from Uganda, seizing their businesses and redistributing them to his supporters.

His regime is estimated to have caused **300,000 to 500,000 deaths** due to executions, disappearances, and torture.

Amin's fall in 1979 left Uganda in political and economic disarray, illustrating the devastating impact of militarized leadership.

Chile: Augusto Pinochet

Augusto Pinochet came to power in Chile through a **military coup in 1973**, ousting democratically elected socialist president Salvador Allende.

His regime (1973–1990) reversed land reforms and privatized industries.

Thousands of opponents were **tortured, executed, or “disappeared”**, often by the **National Intelligence Directorate (DINA)**.

Pinochet justified his actions as protecting Chile from communism, aligning closely with U.S. Cold War interests.

Pinochet’s dictatorship is an example of how Cold War geopolitics often supported authoritarian repression in the name of anti-communism.

Militarized Arms Trade and Conflict Proliferation

During the 20th century, global arms trading expanded dramatically. Many nations increased military spending, stockpiled weapons, and supported proxy wars. Rather than stabilizing regions, this **militarization** often **escalated violence** and empowered authoritarian regimes.

The Cold War led to **massive weapons exchanges**, particularly between the U.S., USSR, and their allies.

Proxy conflicts, such as in Vietnam, Angola, and Afghanistan, were fueled by foreign arms supplies.

Non-state actors, including guerrilla groups and terrorist organizations, also gained access to sophisticated weapons.

The arms race intensified global conflict and undermined efforts at peaceful diplomacy or reconstruction.

Violent Political Movements

Some resistance movements turned to **violence and terrorism** in pursuit of political goals, often targeting civilians and state institutions.

Shining Path (Peru)

The **Shining Path** (Sendero Luminoso) was a **Maoist insurgent group** that launched a violent campaign against the Peruvian government in the 1980s.

Led by **Abimael Guzmán**, the group aimed to create a communist society.

The movement targeted rural communities, assassinated local officials, and bombed infrastructure.

Civilians often suffered the most, caught between rebel forces and government counter-insurgency.

By the late 1990s, the group was largely dismantled due to government crackdowns and loss of public support, though remnants remain active.

Al-Qaeda

Al-Qaeda, founded by **Osama bin Laden**, is a **terrorist organization** that emerged in the late 1980s during the Afghan resistance to Soviet occupation.

Al-Qaeda later turned its focus to the **United States and its allies**, accusing them of supporting corrupt regimes in the Muslim world.

The group planned and executed the **September 11 attacks** in 2001, killing nearly 3,000 people.

Al-Qaeda's ideology is rooted in **Salafi-jihadism**, but it **does not represent mainstream Islam**.

Jihad, in Islamic thought, refers to spiritual or moral struggle. Violent jihadist interpretations like Al-Qaeda's are rejected by the vast majority of Muslims.

Nonviolent Resistance and Civil Disobedience

Other individuals and movements chose **nonviolent protest** to challenge established power structures and bring about social or political reform.

Mohandas Gandhi

Mahatma Gandhi led India's nationalist movement against British colonial rule through **nonviolent resistance**.

Tactics included **boycotts**, **peaceful marches**, and **civil disobedience**.

The **Salt March** (1930) protested British salt taxes and became a global symbol of defiance.

Gandhi's philosophy of **Satyagraha** (truth-force) emphasized moral strength over physical force.

His leadership ultimately helped secure Indian independence in 1947 and inspired future movements for justice worldwide.

Martin Luther King, Jr.

Inspired by Gandhi, **Martin Luther King Jr.** became the face of the **American civil rights movement** in the 1950s and 60s.

Organized **sit-ins**, **marches**, and the **Montgomery Bus Boycott** to protest segregation.

Emphasized the power of **nonviolence** to expose systemic injustice and provoke change.

Delivered the famous "**I Have a Dream**" speech in 1963, advocating for racial equality and unity.

King's leadership helped pass landmark laws such as the **Civil Rights Act (1964)** and the **Voting Rights Act (1965)**.

Nelson Mandela

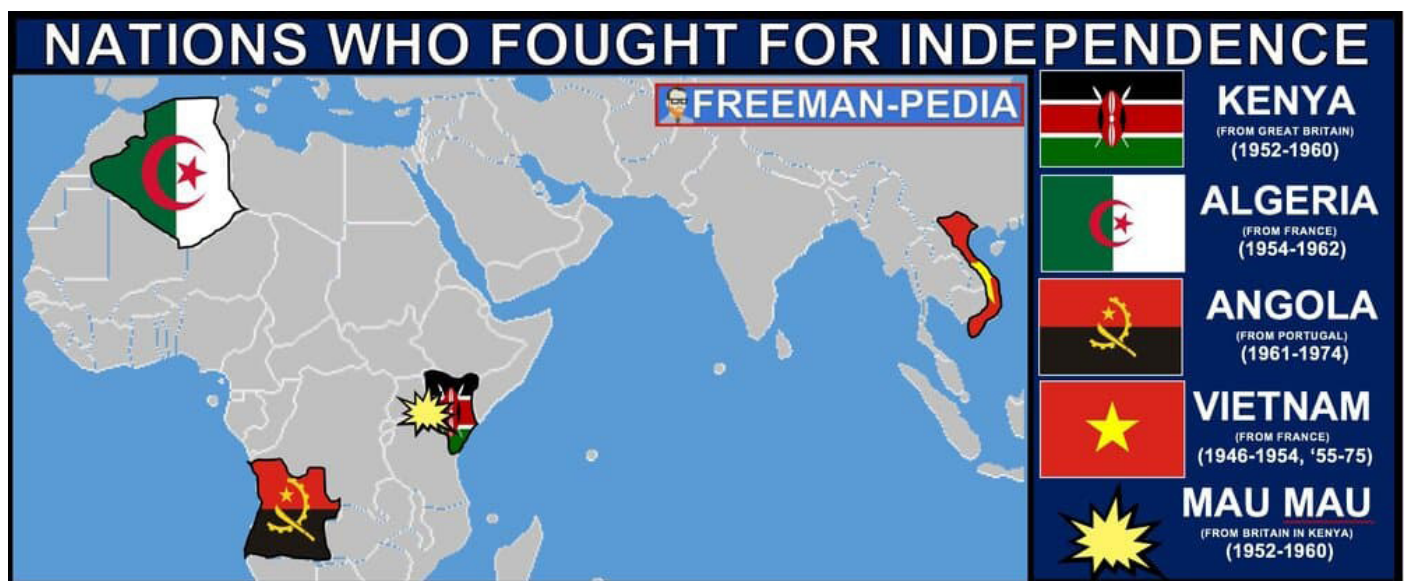
Nelson Mandela led resistance to apartheid in **South Africa** through the **African National Congress (ANC)**.

Initially a proponent of nonviolence, Mandela later endorsed sabotage against infrastructure after peaceful methods were met with repression.

Spent **27 years in prison**, becoming a symbol of anti-apartheid resistance.

Released in 1990, he negotiated an end to apartheid and became **South Africa's first Black president** in 1994.

Mandela emphasized **reconciliation**, not revenge, and worked to build a multiracial democracy.



Source: Freemanpedia

Comparing Global Resistance Strategies

Leader/Group	Method of Resistance	Region	Key Legacy
Francisco Franco	Military dictatorship	Spain	Suppressed regional identity, ruled until 1975
Idi Amin	Ethnic persecution	Uganda	Military terror and expulsion of minorities
Augusto Pinochet	State violence	Chile	U.S.-backed repression of leftists
Shining Path	Maoist insurgency	Peru	Rural terrorism and infrastructure attacks
Al-Qaeda	Terrorist network	Global	Orchestrated 9/11, redefined global security
Gandhi	Nonviolent protest	India	Led India to independence, inspired civil rights
MLK Jr.	Civil disobedience	United States	Major figure in U.S. civil rights legislation
Nelson Mandela	Nonviolence & negotiation	South Africa	Dismantled apartheid, promoted reconciliation

Key Terms to Review

Al-Qaeda: Al-Qaeda is a militant Islamist organization founded in the late 1980s by Osama bin Laden and others, primarily known for orchestrating global terrorist attacks, most notably the September 11, 2001 attacks in the United States. The group promotes a radical interpretation of Islam and aims to establish a global jihad against perceived enemies of Islam, which connects it to broader themes of resistance and conflict in the late 20th century.

African National Congress: The African National Congress (ANC) is a political party in South Africa that played a crucial role in the struggle against apartheid and the establishment of a democratic government. Founded in 1912, the ANC evolved from advocating for the rights of black South Africans to leading a mass resistance movement that ultimately helped dismantle apartheid and promote equality and justice in South Africa.

Abimael Guzmán: Abimael Guzmán was the founder and leader of the Shining Path, a Marxist-Leninist guerrilla group in Peru that sought to overthrow the government through armed struggle. His ideology was heavily influenced by Maoism, and he aimed to create a communist society in Peru, leading to significant violence and resistance during the late 20th century.

Augusto Pinochet: Augusto Pinochet was a Chilean military dictator who ruled Chile from 1973 to 1990 following a coup that overthrew the democratically elected president Salvador Allende. His regime is known for its authoritarian governance, widespread human rights abuses, and efforts to implement neoliberal economic policies that transformed Chile's economy, making him a controversial figure in discussions about resistance movements and global economic shifts.

Communist Party of Peru: The Communist Party of Peru, also known as the Shining Path (Sendero Luminoso), is a Marxist-Leninist political party founded in 1980 that sought to establish a communist regime in Peru through revolutionary violence and guerrilla warfare. It became notorious for its extreme tactics and brutal violence against both the state and civilians, significantly impacting the country's political landscape during the late 20th century.

Francisco Franco: Francisco Franco was a Spanish general and dictator who ruled Spain from 1939 until his death in 1975. He rose to power during the Spanish Civil War, leading the Nationalist forces against the Republican government, and established a fascist regime characterized by authoritarianism and repression. His rule is significant in understanding the broader themes of global resistance in the 20th century, particularly regarding anti-fascism and the responses to totalitarian regimes.

Idi Amin: Idi Amin was a Ugandan military officer and politician who served as the President of Uganda from 1971 to 1979. He is known for his brutal regime, characterized by widespread human rights abuses, political repression, and economic turmoil, making him a notorious figure in the history of global resistance movements against oppressive governments in the 20th century.

Indian National Congress: The Indian National Congress (INC) is a political party in India that played a crucial role in the struggle for independence from British colonial rule. Formed in 1885, the INC became the principal organization representing Indian interests and aspirations, leading to significant movements against colonial policies and shaping the political landscape of newly independent India.

Martin Luther King, Jr.: Martin Luther King, Jr. was an influential American civil rights leader known for his role in advocating for nonviolent resistance to racial segregation and discrimination in the 20th century. His leadership during pivotal moments of the civil rights movement, including the Montgomery Bus Boycott and the March on Washington, helped to mobilize public support for racial equality and influenced social change across the globe.

Mohandas Gandhi: Mohandas Gandhi, also known as Mahatma Gandhi, was a key figure in India's struggle for independence from British rule. He is best known for his philosophy of nonviolent resistance, which influenced global movements for civil rights and freedom. Gandhi's approach to political activism not only shaped India's path to independence but also contributed to broader global resistance against colonialism and oppression.

National Intelligence Directorate: The National Intelligence Directorate refers to an agency typically tasked with coordinating and overseeing the intelligence operations within a nation, often involved in gathering, analyzing, and disseminating intelligence to inform government decisions. This body plays a crucial role in global resistance movements in the 20th century by influencing national security policies and international relations through intelligence activities.

Nelson Mandela: Nelson Mandela was a South African anti-apartheid revolutionary and political leader who served as President of South Africa from 1994 to 1999. He is renowned for his role in ending apartheid and establishing multiracial elections, symbolizing the struggle against racial oppression and inspiring global movements for justice and equality.

Osama bin Laden: Osama bin Laden was the founder of the militant Islamist organization al-Qaeda, known for orchestrating numerous terrorist attacks against Western nations, most notably the September 11 attacks in 2001. His actions and ideology have significantly shaped global resistance movements in the late 20th and early 21st centuries, particularly in relation to U.S. foreign policy in the Middle East.

Salt March: The Salt March was a nonviolent protest led by Mahatma Gandhi in 1930 against the British salt tax in India, symbolizing the broader struggle for Indian independence. This 240-mile march from Sabarmati Ashram to the Arabian Sea coast became a pivotal moment in the Indian independence movement, demonstrating the power of civil disobedience and mass mobilization against colonial rule.

Shining Path: The Shining Path, known as Sendero Luminoso in Spanish, is a Maoist guerrilla group founded in the late 1970s in Peru. This organization aimed to overthrow the Peruvian government and establish a communist state through violent revolutionary means. The group's

actions and ideology are important examples of resistance movements that emerged in the context of global struggles against imperialism, capitalism, and social injustice during the 20th century.

8.8 End of the Cold War

The **Cold War**, a decades-long geopolitical struggle between the United States and the Soviet Union, came to an end with the **collapse of the Soviet Union in 1991**. A combination of internal economic stagnation, costly foreign interventions, technological disparity, and increasing popular resistance contributed to the downfall of communist regimes across Eastern Europe and the end of the bipolar world order.

The Cold War Begins to Thaw

By the 1980s, the strain of Cold War competition—militarily, politically, and economically—was becoming unsustainable for the Soviet Union. The United States, under Ronald Reagan, sharply increased defense spending and took a more aggressive anti-communist stance, including initiatives like the **Strategic Defense Initiative** (also known as “Star Wars”).

U.S. Military and Technological Superiority

The United States held a decisive advantage in **technological innovation and military capability** by the late Cold War period:

Massive investments in nuclear weapons, intercontinental ballistic missiles (ICBMs), and satellite surveillance allowed the U.S. to deter Soviet expansion.

American advances in **space technology**—exemplified by the Apollo missions and the Strategic Defense Initiative—further emphasized the Soviet Union’s lagging infrastructure and innovation.

This arms race placed immense pressure on the Soviet economy, which was already struggling with inefficiency and stagnation.

The Soviet-Afghan War and Its Consequences

In **1979**, the Soviet Union invaded **Afghanistan** to prop up a faltering communist government. The invasion proved to be one of the most costly mistakes in Soviet foreign policy.

Afghan resistance fighters, known as the **mujahideen**, waged a prolonged **guerrilla war** against Soviet forces.

The conflict became a Cold War proxy war, with the **United States, Pakistan, and Saudi Arabia** supporting the mujahideen.

The war lasted until **1989**, costing the USSR **billions of dollars**, thousands of lives, and global credibility.

The Soviet invasion of Afghanistan has often been referred to as “the USSR’s Vietnam”—a drawn-out conflict that drained resources and eroded public trust in the government.

Gorbachev’s Reforms and the Decline of Soviet Authority

When **Mikhail Gorbachev** became General Secretary in 1985, he introduced sweeping reforms to revitalize the Soviet Union.

Perestroika and Glasnost

Perestroika (restructuring) aimed to decentralize the economy by introducing **limited market mechanisms** and reducing government control over production.

Glasnost (openness) encouraged **freedom of expression, freedom of the press**, and political transparency.

These policies had unintended consequences:

Citizens and satellite states used newfound liberties to **demand more radical reforms** and even independence.

The Communist Party’s monopoly on power weakened, and nationalist movements surged across Eastern Europe and Central Asia.

The Fall of Eastern Bloc Regimes

By **1989**, a wave of revolutions swept through Eastern Europe:

Communist regimes in **Poland, East Germany, Czechoslovakia, Romania, and Hungary** collapsed, largely without Soviet intervention.

The **Berlin Wall**, the most prominent symbol of Cold War division, was torn down in **November 1989** after weeks of mass protests.

These events signaled the end of Soviet dominance in the region and marked a decisive turn in the Cold War.

The Collapse of the Soviet Union (1991)

Despite reform efforts, Gorbachev faced mounting pressure from both conservatives and reformists. In **1991**, a failed coup by hardline communists accelerated the disintegration of Soviet authority.

Economic crisis, food shortages, and inflation led to widespread unrest.

Soviet republics, emboldened by glasnost, began **declaring independence**.

In **December 1991**, the **Soviet Union formally dissolved**, ending nearly 70 years of communist rule.

The Russian Federation emerged as the USSR’s successor, with **Boris Yeltsin** elected as its first president.

Diplomacy and Arms Reduction

The end of the Cold War was also marked by diplomatic progress between the United States and the USSR.

Treaty/Agreement	Year	Key Terms	Significance
INF Treaty	1987	Eliminated short-and medium-range nuclear missiles	First treaty to reduce—not just limit—nuclear weapons
Strategic Arms Reduction Treaty (START I)	1991	Cut long-range nuclear arsenals by 25-30%	Symbolized end of Cold War tensions
Reunification of Germany	1990	East and West Germany formally unified under NATO terms	Ended decades of division; symbolized Cold War's end

These agreements reflected mutual recognition that the arms race had become unsustainable and that cooperation was essential for global stability.



Source: Britannica

Key Terms to Review

Atom Bombs: Atom bombs, or atomic bombs, are explosive devices that derive their destructive power from nuclear reactions, either fission or fusion. The development and use of atom bombs marked a significant turning point in warfare and international relations, especially during the Cold War era, as they symbolized the immense destructive potential of nuclear weapons and shaped the dynamics between superpowers in the struggle for influence and control.

Baltic to Eastern Europe to Central Asia: This term refers to a geographic and cultural continuum stretching from the Baltic Sea region in Northern Europe, through Eastern Europe, and extending into Central Asia. This area has experienced significant political, social, and economic changes, especially during the period marked by the end of the Cold War, which reshaped alliances, borders, and national identities across these regions.

Berlin Wall: The Berlin Wall was a concrete barrier that divided East and West Berlin from 1961 to 1989, symbolizing the Cold War's division of Europe into communist and capitalist spheres. Its construction marked a physical representation of the ideological struggle between the Soviet Union and Western powers, while its fall became a powerful emblem of the end of the Cold War and the reunification of Germany.

Boris Yeltsin: Boris Yeltsin was the first President of the Russian Federation, serving from 1991 to 1999, and is known for his role in the dissolution of the Soviet Union and the transition towards a market economy. His leadership during a tumultuous period marked the end of Communist rule in Russia and the emergence of a new political landscape, which included significant social and economic reforms.

Communist Party: The Communist Party is a political party that advocates for the principles of communism, which emphasize the collective ownership of the means of production and the establishment of a classless society. Originating in the 19th century, it gained significant influence in the 20th century, particularly after the Russian Revolution, leading to the establishment of communist states. The party played a crucial role in shifting global power dynamics, influencing resistance movements and ultimately shaping the end of the Cold War.

Eastern Europe: Eastern Europe refers to a region that encompasses various countries situated to the east of Germany and Austria, characterized by a complex history of political, cultural, and social dynamics, particularly during the Cold War and its aftermath. This region has been significantly shaped by its experiences under communist rule, the impact of decolonization, and the shifting balance of power in the 20th century.

Fall of the Berlin Wall: The Fall of the Berlin Wall refers to the event on November 9, 1989, when the barrier dividing East and West Berlin was opened, symbolizing the end of the Cold War and the collapse of communist control in Eastern Europe. This historic moment represented a significant shift towards democracy and reunification in Germany, marking a turning point in global politics as it led to the dissolution of the Soviet Union's influence over Eastern Europe.

Freedom of the Press and Assembly: Freedom of the Press and Assembly refers to the rights that protect individuals' abilities to express themselves through various forms of media and to gather peacefully for protests, demonstrations, or meetings. These rights are essential for promoting democratic governance, allowing citizens to voice their opinions, hold authorities accountable, and advocate for social change, especially during pivotal moments like the end of the Cold War when political transformations and public dissent were prevalent.

Glasnost: Glasnost, meaning 'openness' in Russian, was a policy introduced by Mikhail Gorbachev in the 1980s aimed at increasing transparency and freedom of expression within the Soviet Union. This policy encouraged public debate and allowed citizens to express their opinions about the government, leading to greater access to information and a reduction in censorship. Glasnost was crucial in reshaping Soviet society and contributed significantly to the events that led to the end of the Cold War.

Mikhail Gorbachev: Mikhail Gorbachev was the last leader of the Soviet Union, serving from 1985 until its dissolution in 1991. He is best known for his policies of glasnost (openness) and perestroika (restructuring), which aimed to reform the stagnant Soviet economy and encourage greater political freedom. Gorbachev's leadership played a crucial role in ending the Cold War, as his reforms and diplomatic efforts led to improved relations with the West and ultimately contributed to the collapse of communist regimes in Eastern Europe.

Mujahideen: The Mujahideen refers to various groups of Islamic guerrilla fighters who fought against foreign invaders and local governments perceived as un-Islamic, particularly in Afghanistan during the Soviet-Afghan War (1979-1989). These fighters emerged as significant players in the geopolitical landscape of the Cold War, receiving support from Western countries like the United States as part of a broader strategy to counter Soviet influence in the region.

Nuclear Weapons: Nuclear weapons are explosive devices that derive their destructive power from nuclear reactions, either fission or fusion. These weapons have played a critical role in shaping international relations and military strategies, especially during significant global conflicts and the subsequent geopolitical landscape, profoundly influencing the tensions and resolutions seen at the close of major conflicts and in the establishment of newly independent nations.

Perestroika: Perestroika, meaning 'restructuring' in Russian, was a political movement initiated by Mikhail Gorbachev in the mid-1980s aimed at reforming the stagnant economy and political system of the Soviet Union. This policy sought to introduce elements of capitalism and decentralization within a socialist framework, ultimately leading to significant changes in governance and society, and played a crucial role in ending the Cold War.

Soviet Bloc: The Soviet Bloc refers to a group of socialist states in Central and Eastern Europe that were under the influence or direct control of the Soviet Union during the Cold War. These countries, including Poland, East Germany, Czechoslovakia, Hungary, Romania, and Bulgaria, were characterized by one-party rule and centralized economic planning. The Soviet Bloc played a crucial role in the geopolitical tensions of the Cold War and ultimately contributed to its end as these nations moved towards reform and democratization.

Strategic Arms Reduction Treaty (START): The Strategic Arms Reduction Treaty (START) was a bilateral agreement between the United States and the Soviet Union aimed at reducing and limiting the strategic nuclear weapons of both nations. This treaty represented a significant step towards de-escalating tensions during the later years of the Cold War, highlighting a mutual recognition of the dangers posed by nuclear proliferation. START played a crucial role in shaping arms control policies, fostering dialogue between the two superpowers, and ultimately contributing to the end of the Cold War.

U.S. Technological/Military Advances: U.S. Technological/Military Advances refer to the significant improvements and innovations in military technology and capabilities developed by the United States, particularly during the Cold War era and its conclusion. These advances played a crucial role in shaping military strategies, enhancing defense mechanisms, and influencing global power dynamics as the Cold War came to an end. Innovations such as stealth technology, precision-guided munitions, and advanced communications systems were pivotal in redefining warfare and asserting U.S. military dominance on the world stage.

8.9 Causation in the Age of the Cold War and Decolonization

The 20th century witnessed widespread challenges to political and social orders, including global decolonization movements and Cold War rivalries. As empires declined and new states formed, Cold War ideology shaped political structures, economic strategies, and international institutions. While some states embraced liberal democracies and market economies, others turned toward socialism, authoritarianism, or hybrid systems in response to colonial legacies and economic crises.

Challenges to Political and Social Orders

Across the world, people confronted established political systems, demanding greater freedoms and self-determination. These movements ranged from peaceful protests to revolutions and were often met with fierce resistance.

Eastern Europe: Rebellions Against Soviet Control

In the **Soviet bloc**, uprisings in Hungary (1956) and Czechoslovakia (1968) illustrated deep dissatisfaction with Soviet-style communism.

The **Hungarian Revolution** called for multi-party democracy and withdrawal from the Warsaw Pact. Soviet tanks crushed the rebellion.

The **Prague Spring**, led by Alexander Dubček, promoted “socialism with a human face” through reforms such as:

- Freedom of the press
 - Decentralized economic planning
 - Release of political prisoners
- The USSR invaded in August 1968 to reassert control.

These uprisings revealed that Soviet satellite states longed for autonomy and liberal reform but faced violent repression under Cold War constraints.

Latin America: Revolutionary Movements

In **Cuba**, Fidel Castro’s **26th of July Movement** overthrew the U.S.-backed Batista regime in 1959, leading to a socialist state aligned with the USSR.

In **Chile**, Salvador Allende’s **Popular Unity government** aimed to nationalize industries and redistribute wealth. A **U.S.-backed coup in 1973** replaced him with military dictator **Augusto Pinochet**.

Decolonization and Its Global Impact

Anti-imperial movements surged after World War II, leading to the **dissolution of European empires** and the formation of new states in Asia, Africa, and the Caribbean. The process was shaped by both peaceful negotiation and violent conflict.

Asia

India gained independence from Britain in 1947 through **nonviolent protest**, led by **Mahatma Gandhi** and **Jawaharlal Nehru**.

Other Asian nations like **Pakistan**, **Indonesia**, and the **Philippines** also achieved independence during this period.

Africa

The **Mau Mau Uprising** (Kenya, 1950s) challenged British rule and led to independence in 1963.

In **Algeria**, the **FLN** fought a brutal war against France (1954–1962), resulting in over a million deaths.

Peaceful movements in countries like **Ghana**, **Senegal**, and **Guinea** also led to negotiated independence.

Caribbean

Countries like **Jamaica** (1962), **Trinidad and Tobago** (1962), and **Guyana** (1966) gained independence through peaceful transitions and anti-colonial political activism.

Decolonization was not a single event—it reshaped political boundaries, economic systems, and national identities across the globe.

Effects of the Cold War: Political, Economic, Social, and Cultural

The Cold War was not just a geopolitical standoff—it deeply influenced domestic and international policies across continents. Its effects can be understood through several key lenses.

Economic Impact

The Cold War produced **rival economic systems** and alliances.

The U.S. promoted **capitalism and free-market economies**.

The USSR advocated **socialism and centralized planning**.

Both sides used **economic aid** to spread their influence:

Marshall Plan: U.S. aid to Western Europe to rebuild and prevent communism.

COMECON: Soviet bloc economic integration to counter Western models.

Bloc	System Promoted	Major Institutions
Western (U.S.-led)	Capitalism, free markets	Marshall Plan, IMF, World Bank
Eastern (Soviet)	Socialism, state control	COMECON

Political Impact

The Cold War led to the rise of **proxy wars** in Korea, Vietnam, and Afghanistan, where superpowers backed opposing regimes.

Countries aligned with either the **NATO** (Western bloc) or the **Warsaw Pact** (Eastern bloc).

Governments used **intelligence agencies**, **surveillance**, and **propaganda** to maintain ideological loyalty.

Social Impact

Cold War competition shaped societies:

In the West, a **consumerist society** emerged, showcasing capitalism's benefits.

In the East, **austerity and collectivism** were promoted as socialist virtues.

Cultural repression was widespread—citizens could be punished for owning Western items like jeans or rock music albums.

Cultural Impact

Each bloc promoted its values globally:

The U.S. emphasized **individualism**, **free expression**, and liberal arts.

The USSR promoted **collectivism**, **scientific atheism**, and the glorification of labor.

Cultural diplomacy included:

U.S.: **United States Information Agency (USIA)**

USSR: **Soviet Peace Committee**

Institutions of Global Association

The Cold War also contributed to the formation of **global political and military alliances** that reshaped diplomacy.

NATO (1949)

Formed by the U.S., Canada, and Western Europe.

Based on **collective defense**—an attack on one is an attack on all.

Still active today.

Warsaw Pact (1955–1991)

Created in response to NATO.

Included the USSR and its satellite states.

Dissolved after the fall of the Eastern Bloc.

Responses to Economic Challenges

Nations across the globe adopted different strategies to deal with economic instability and Cold War pressures.

Free-Market Reforms

Many countries turned to **neoliberalism**—favoring deregulation, privatization, and free trade.

Chile, Mexico, and other Latin American countries adopted these policies in the 1980s–90s.

After 1991, **post-Soviet states** transitioned toward market economies with mixed results.

Export-Oriented Growth

Nations like **Japan, South Korea**, and later **China** adopted **export-led industrialization**, focusing on manufacturing and global trade.

This model created rapid growth and turned these nations into global economic powers.

State-Led Development

Dirigisme, or state-guided economies, took root in places like **France** and **Italy**, emphasizing government coordination of major industries.

This approach created successes in sectors like automobiles and infrastructure but faced criticism for inefficiency.

International Institutions

Countries sought help from organizations like the **IMF** and **World Bank** for loans and restructuring plans.

These institutions promoted market reforms but faced backlash for imposing **austerity** and limiting national sovereignty.

Mixed Economies

Some nations, especially **China**, blended capitalism with state control, allowing economic growth while maintaining political control.

This hybrid approach helped reduce poverty but introduced new issues like **corruption** and **environmental degradation**.

Economic Strategy	Key Regions	Outcomes
Neoliberal Reforms	Latin America, Eastern Europe	Economic stabilization, but also inequality & unrest
Export-Oriented Industrialization	East Asia	Rapid industrial growth, global competitiveness
State-Led Development	Western Europe	Infrastructure success, sometimes sluggish growth

Economic Strategy	Key Regions	Outcomes
Mixed Economies	China, Vietnam	High growth with authoritarian governance
Command Economy	USSR, North Korea	Stagnation, shortages, and eventual collapse

Key Terms to Review

26th of July Movement: The 26th of July Movement was a revolutionary movement led by Fidel Castro in Cuba that aimed to overthrow the authoritarian regime of Fulgencio Batista, culminating in the successful revolution of 1959. This movement marked a significant turning point in Cuba's history and symbolized broader themes of decolonization and anti-imperialism during the Cold War era, as it sought to establish a socialist government free from foreign influence, particularly that of the United States.

Algerian War of Independence: The Algerian War of Independence (1954-1962) was a brutal conflict between France and Algerian nationalists seeking independence from colonial rule. This war exemplified the larger patterns of decolonization during the Cold War, highlighting how global superpowers influenced nationalist movements and the fight against imperialism. It showcased the lengths to which colonized people would go to achieve self-determination, while also revealing the complexities of international relations during this tumultuous period.

Challenging Political and Social Order: Challenging political and social order refers to movements, ideologies, or actions aimed at disrupting or altering established structures of governance and societal norms. This concept is central to understanding the dynamics of power during periods of significant change, such as the Cold War and decolonization, where various groups sought to dismantle colonial rule and authoritarian regimes, often leading to conflicts, revolutions, and new political ideologies.

Cold War and its effects: The Cold War was a prolonged period of geopolitical tension between the Soviet Union and the United States, alongside their respective allies, following World War II. This era was characterized by ideological conflict, military rivalry, and various forms of indirect confrontation such as proxy wars, espionage, and propaganda, ultimately influencing global political dynamics and leading to widespread decolonization efforts in various regions.

Command Economy System: A command economy system is an economic structure where the government centrally plans and controls the production, distribution, and pricing of goods and services. In this system, the government makes all significant decisions regarding economic activity, contrasting sharply with market economies where supply and demand dictate outcomes. This type of economy was particularly significant during the Cold War as nations sought to solidify ideological divides between capitalism and communism.

Council for Mutual Economic Assistance (COMECON): The Council for Mutual Economic Assistance (COMECON) was an economic organization established in 1949 to promote economic cooperation among socialist states, primarily in Eastern Europe and the Soviet Union. It aimed to facilitate economic integration and coordination among member countries, countering the influence of Western economic organizations like the Marshall Plan and fostering economic development in a way that aligned with socialist principles.

Decolonization: Decolonization is the process through which colonies gain independence from colonial powers, leading to the establishment of sovereign nations. This term is closely linked to the global shifts in political power after World War II, as many nations sought to assert their rights and identities outside of colonial rule.

Dirigisme: Dirigisme is an economic doctrine where the state plays a central role in controlling the economy, directing investment, and regulating key industries. This approach emerged prominently in France after World War II, as governments sought to rebuild and modernize their economies in the aftermath of the devastation caused by the war. By emphasizing state intervention, dirigisme aimed to balance economic growth with social welfare, reflecting broader shifts in governance during periods of decolonization and Cold War tensions.

Eastern Europe: Eastern Europe refers to a region that encompasses various countries situated to the east of Germany and Austria, characterized by a complex history of political, cultural, and social dynamics, particularly during the Cold War and its aftermath. This region has been significantly shaped by its experiences under communist rule, the impact of decolonization, and the shifting balance of power in the 20th century.

European Economic Community (EEC): The European Economic Community (EEC) was a regional organization established in 1957 to promote economic integration among its member states through a common market and customs union. The EEC aimed to create a unified economic area where goods, services, capital, and people could move freely, fostering cooperation and stability in post-World War II Europe. This integration played a crucial role in shaping political and economic dynamics during the Cold War and set the stage for further European integration.

Export-oriented industrialization: Export-oriented industrialization (EOI) is an economic development strategy that focuses on producing goods for export in order to stimulate economic growth. This approach emphasizes integrating into the global market and relies on external demand for domestic industries, often leading to increased foreign investment and technological transfer.

Fighting for Freedoms: Fighting for Freedoms refers to the various struggles and movements aimed at achieving civil rights, social justice, and independence from colonial rule during the 20th century. This concept is closely tied to the larger themes of decolonization and the Cold War, as oppressed groups sought liberation from imperial powers and demanded equal rights amidst a global ideological battle between capitalism and communism.

Fidel Castro: Fidel Castro was a Cuban revolutionary and politician who served as the Prime Minister of Cuba from 1959 to 1976 and then as President until 2008. His rise to power marked a significant shift in Cuba's political landscape, establishing a one-party socialist state that aligned closely with the Soviet Union during the Cold War, influencing decolonization movements in Latin America and beyond.

Fulgencio Batista: Fulgencio Batista was a Cuban military officer and politician who served as the President of Cuba from 1940 to 1944 and again after a coup in 1952 until he was overthrown in 1959. His regime was characterized by authoritarian rule, corruption, and close ties to the United States, which significantly impacted Cuba's political landscape during the Cold War and the wave of decolonization.

Hungarian Revolution: The Hungarian Revolution was a nationwide revolt against the Soviet-imposed policies of the People's Republic of Hungary that began on October 23, 1956, and lasted until November 10, 1956. This uprising was part of a larger wave of anti-Soviet movements during the Cold War, showcasing the desire for political reform and independence from Soviet influence in Eastern Europe.

India's struggle for independence: India's struggle for independence refers to the series of movements and efforts that aimed to end British colonial rule in India, culminating in the country's independence in 1947. This struggle was marked by various strategies, including non-violent resistance led by figures like Mahatma Gandhi and more radical approaches from groups seeking immediate action against colonial authorities. The fight for independence was influenced by global dynamics, particularly during the era of decolonization following World War II.

Institutions of Global Association: Institutions of Global Association refer to international organizations and frameworks that facilitate cooperation, diplomacy, and governance among countries to address global challenges. These institutions emerged particularly during the Cold War and the process of decolonization, as nations sought to create structures that could manage conflicts, promote development, and ensure peace across diverse political landscapes.

International Monetary Fund (IMF): The International Monetary Fund (IMF) is an international organization established in 1944 to promote global monetary cooperation, secure financial stability, facilitate international trade, and reduce poverty around the world. It plays a crucial role in providing financial assistance and economic advice to member countries facing balance of payments problems, especially during times of economic crisis or instability.

Jawaharlal Nehru: Jawaharlal Nehru was an influential Indian statesman and the first Prime Minister of independent India, serving from 1947 until his death in 1964. He was a key figure in the Indian independence movement and played a vital role in shaping modern India's policies, particularly in relation to its non-alignment during the Cold War and its pursuit of economic development.

Korean War, the Vietnam War, and the Soviet-Afghan War: The Korean War (1950-1953), Vietnam War (1955-1975), and Soviet-Afghan War (1979-1989) were significant military conflicts that emerged during the Cold War, deeply influenced by the ideological struggle between communism and capitalism. These wars showcased the geopolitical tensions of the time, with the Korean War representing a direct confrontation between North and South Korea backed by communist and capitalist powers, respectively. The Vietnam War highlighted the intense struggle against colonialism and communism in Southeast Asia, while the Soviet-Afghan War exemplified the repercussions of Soviet expansionism and the rise of guerilla warfare supported by international actors. Together, these conflicts illustrate the profound impact of decolonization and Cold War dynamics on global politics.

Latin America: Latin America refers to a region in the Americas where Romance languages, primarily Spanish and Portuguese, are spoken. This area includes countries in South America, Central America, Mexico, and parts of the Caribbean, and it has a rich history influenced by colonization, indigenous cultures, and later independence movements.

Mahatma Gandhi: Mahatma Gandhi was a prominent leader in the Indian independence movement against British colonial rule, known for his philosophy of nonviolent resistance, or 'satyagraha.' His efforts inspired global movements for civil rights and freedom, making him a pivotal figure in the context of decolonization and social reform.

Marshall Plan: The Marshall Plan was an American initiative enacted in 1948 to provide financial aid to Western European countries to help rebuild their economies after the devastation of World War II. It aimed to prevent the spread of communism by stabilizing these nations and promoting economic cooperation, thus setting the stage for long-term economic recovery and political stability in Europe.

Mau Mau Uprising: The Mau Mau Uprising was a rebellion against British colonial rule in Kenya that took place from 1952 to 1960, primarily involving the Kikuyu people who sought to reclaim their land and rights. This significant movement was a response to the social, economic, and political injustices faced by Kenyans under colonial rule, reflecting broader trends of resistance against imperialism during a time of decolonization and the Cold War.

National Liberation Front (FLN): The National Liberation Front (FLN) was a revolutionary political and military organization in Algeria that played a key role in the country's struggle for independence from French colonial rule beginning in 1954. The FLN united various nationalist groups, employing guerrilla warfare and political strategies to mobilize the Algerian population and gain international support, significantly influencing the broader process of decolonization during the mid-20th century.

Neoliberalism: Neoliberalism is an economic and political philosophy that emphasizes free-market capitalism, deregulation, and reduced government intervention in the economy. It promotes the idea that economic growth is best achieved through individual entrepreneurship and competition, which can lead to increased efficiency and innovation. This ideology gained prominence during the late 20th century, especially in the context of globalization and the decline of state-led economic models.

North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO): NATO is a military alliance formed in 1949 between North American and European countries aimed at mutual defense against aggression. Established primarily as a response to the threat posed by the Soviet Union during the Cold War, NATO solidified collective security as a cornerstone of international relations in the post-World War II era.

Popular Unity government: The Popular Unity government was a political coalition in Chile formed in 1970, primarily around the candidacy of Salvador Allende, who aimed to implement socialist reforms. This coalition represented various leftist parties and sought to address social inequalities and nationalize key industries, amidst the broader backdrop of Cold War tensions and decolonization movements across Latin America.

Prague Spring: The Prague Spring refers to a period of political liberalization and reform in Czechoslovakia during the spring of 1968, characterized by attempts to create 'socialism with a human face.' This movement was significant as it challenged the repressive nature of Soviet-style communism and sought greater freedoms, which ultimately led to a violent suppression by the Soviet Union and Warsaw Pact forces in August 1968.

Responding to Economic Struggles: Responding to Economic Struggles refers to the various measures taken by countries and governments during times of economic hardship, especially in the context of political ideologies and social movements. These responses often include economic reforms, shifts in policy, and social safety nets aimed at alleviating the impacts of recession, unemployment, and poverty. The dynamics of the Cold War and decolonization influenced how different nations approached these challenges, reflecting a broader struggle between capitalism and socialism as well as the quest for national self-determination.

Salvador Allende: Salvador Allende was the first Marxist to be elected president in a liberal democracy in Latin America, serving as the President of Chile from 1970 until his overthrow in 1973. His government aimed to implement socialist policies, nationalize key industries, and redistribute land, which placed him at the center of Cold War tensions and decolonization movements in Latin America.

Soviet Union: The Soviet Union, officially known as the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics (USSR), was a socialist state that existed from 1922 to 1991, encompassing a vast territory across Eastern Europe and Northern Asia. It played a central role in global politics, particularly during the 20th century, influencing ideological conflicts and shaping world events during and after the World Wars.

Warsaw Pact: The Warsaw Pact was a military alliance formed in 1955 among the Soviet Union and seven other Eastern European communist states as a response to the integration of West Germany into NATO. This pact solidified the division of Europe into two opposing blocs during the Cold War, promoting military cooperation and collective defense among its member states against perceived Western aggression.

World Bank: The World Bank is an international financial institution that provides loans and grants to the governments of low and middle-income countries for development projects aimed at reducing poverty and promoting sustainable economic growth. Established in 1944, it plays a crucial role in global economic governance, particularly in the context of post-World War II reconstruction and development efforts.

Notes and Observations:

	Civilization	Civilization	Civilization
SOCIAL Development & transformation of social structures			
POLITICAL Statebuilding			
INTERACTIONS Between humans & the environment			
CULTURAL Development & interaction of cultures			
ECONOMY Creation, expansion and interaction of economic systems			
TECHNOLOGY Adapting for efficiency, comfort, security, and technological advances			

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UNIT 9

Globalization 1900-Present



TECHNOLOGY

New technologies in communication and transportation allowed for a more connected world which has shaped culture globally. Other technologies transformed agriculture and medicine leading to rapid changes in the 20th century.

CONNECTED ECONOMIES

Free market economics created a highly connected global economy. This led to new trade agreements and institutions along with multinational corporations.



EQUALITY

Calls for reform continued as people fought for more equality for women, people of color, refugees, and children. Civil rights movements occurred in many countries as access to education, work, and participation in politics became more inclusive.

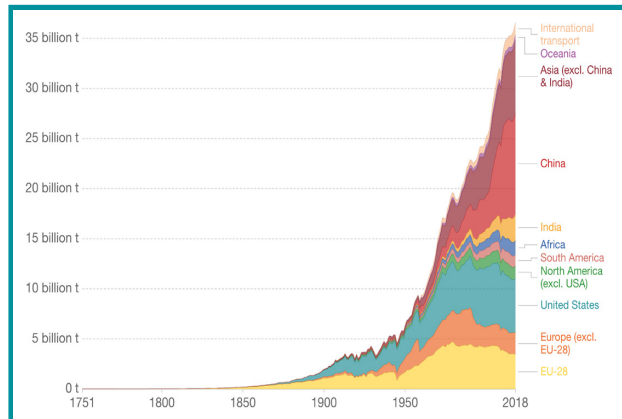


0 - Mexico 1- USA 2 - Great Britain 3 - Russia 3- Ghana 4- China 5- Vietnam
6- India 7 - South Africa 8- Kenya 9- Chile

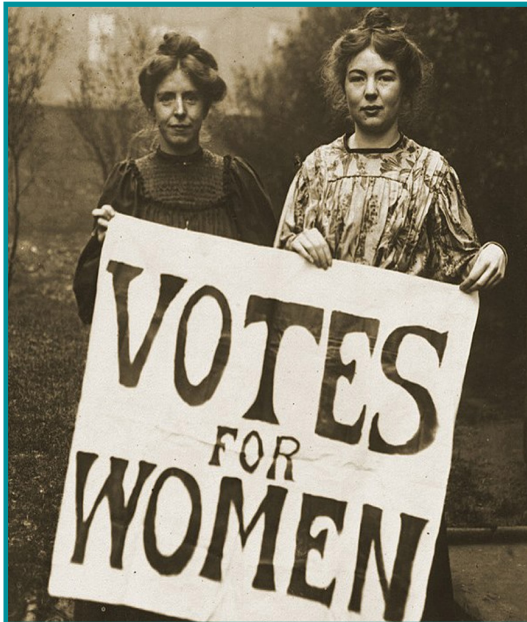
UNIT NINE: GLOBALIZATION, c. 1900 TO THE PRESENT**TECHNOLOGICAL ADVANCES**

During the 20th century, rapid developments in technology affected almost all aspects of human life by facilitating the speedy (and even instantaneous) exchange of information, energy, and goods. Many technological advances, especially medical innovations, had a clear benefit for mankind. For example, the development of safe and effective **vaccines** and **antibiotics** allowed humans to live longer, while the advent of advanced birth control gave women greater control over their lives and bodies. Similarly, new communication technologies benefited human populations by allowing them to form likeminded communities over the **Internet**.

However, technological innovations came at a cost. Human activity directly damaged the environment and led to decreased air quality, deforestation, pollution of fresh water, and a sharp increase in **greenhouse gases**. The debate over how to best address the **climate change** caused by human action is ongoing.



Annual CO₂ emissions by regions from 1751 to 2018.

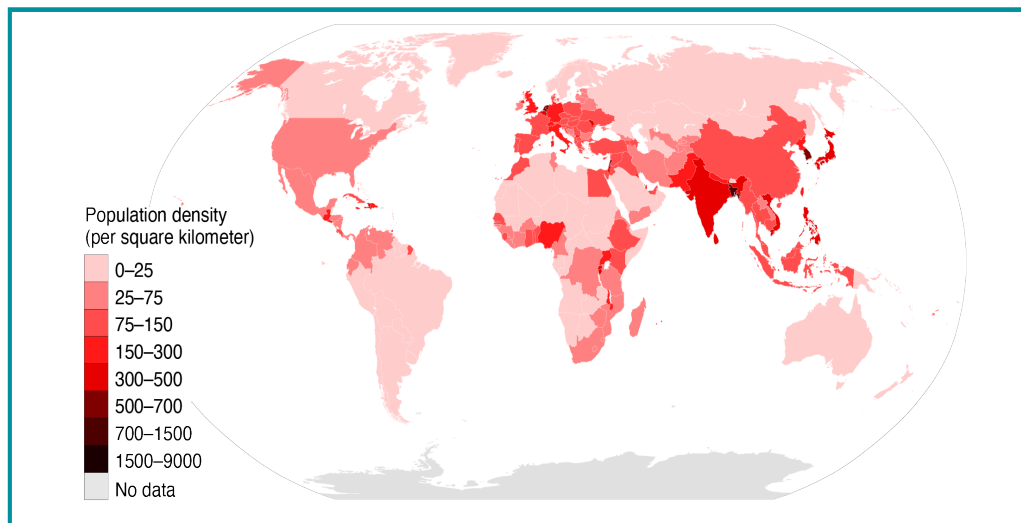
CALLS FOR REFORM AND RESPONSES AFTER 1900 ADMINISTRATION

Almost all nations recognized the right of women to participate in the political process in the 20th century.

In addition to innovation in technology, the 20th century saw innovation in social movements that challenged cultural norms and old assumptions about race, class, gender, and religion. Access to education was an important part of these social movements. For example, rising rates of female literacy in this period were coupled with increased female participation in politics and, subsequently, a global feminist movement that challenged long-standing gender norms to advocate for a less hierarchical understanding of gender. Education was also an important part of environmental movements, such as Greenpeace and Professor Wangari Maathai's **Green Belt Movement** in Kenya, that drew connections between environmental exploitation and inequality. With more access to education and political roles, environmental groups were better equipped to protest the environmental and economic consequences of **globalization**.

GLOBALIZED CULTURE AFTER 1900

The 20th century was also notable for how it fostered the development of a shared global culture, especially in the second half of the century. Aided in their search by new technological advances, people around the world clamored for examples of global arts, entertainment, and popular culture. Some aspects of the popular and **consumer culture** of the century represented cultural hybrids, such as the blending of American and Indian movie-making styles in Bollywood or the mix of African musical styles and indigenous Jamaican music in Reggae. Other components, such as global brands like Coca-Cola, were more clearly Western exports that became globally recognized symbols. Many aspects of U.S. culture became ubiquitous around the world in the second half of the 20th century because of globalization.



A map of global population density of countries in 2018.

INSTITUTIONS DEVELOPING IN THE GLOBALIZED WORLD

Globalization in the 20th century also affected international politics. The United Nations was formed in the 20th century as an attempt to try to ensure that increased interconnection was managed in such a way as to try to ensure world peace and international cooperation. The **United Nations** plays an important role in international politics by acting as a mediating authority and as a universally recognized place for formal debate.



Flags outside of the UN Headquarters in New York

Advances in Technology and Exchange After 1900 9.1

What is a globalization?

Directions: List the new technologies or advancements in technologies for each category on the left. Then, explain the effects these technologies had on globalization.

	Technology	Effects
Communication		
Energy		
Transportation		
Agriculture		
Medicine		

Name: _____

Date: _____

Technological Advances and Limitations After 1900: Disease 9.2

Directions: Explain what the advancements listed below were and how they affected disease after 1900.

Antiretroviral Drug	Vaccine Developed by Jonas Salk	Heart Transplants/ Artificial Hearts
----------------------------	--	---

Directions: Research one disease for each category listed below and fill in the relevant details.

	Disease Name	Time and Place of Emergence/Discovery	Response to/Treatment of the Disease
Emergent Epidemic Disease			
Disease Associated with Longevity			
Disease Associated with Poverty			

Name: _____

Date: _____

Technological Advances: Debates About the Environment After 1900 9.3

Directions: Describe the causes and effects of each environmental problem listed in the middle.

Cause	Environmental Problems	Response/Effect
	Deforestation	
	Desertification	
	Poor Air Quality	
	Strained Water Supply	
	Rising Global Temperatures	

Name: _____

Date: _____

Economics in the Global Age 9.4

Directions: Describe the economic reforms that took place under the leaders listed below.

	Country	Economic Reforms
Ronald Reagan		
Margaret Thatcher		
Augusto Pinochet		
Deng Xiaoping		

Directions: Give a description of each of the agreements or organizations below.

<p>World Trade Organization WTO</p>	<p>North American Free Trade Agreement NAFTA</p>	<p>Association of Southeast Asian Nations ASEAN</p>
---	--	---

Name: _____

Date: _____

Calls for Reform and Responses After 1900 9.5

Directions: Indicate which year women won the right to vote in each country listed below. For any country in which the right to vote was granted in parts, indicate the year all women won the right.

New Zealand		Japan		Morocco	
Britain		India		Switzerland	
United States		China		Namibia	
Brazil		Chile		South Africa	
Turkey		Mexico		Kuwait	
France		Australia		Saudi Arabia	

Directions: Give a summary of the major events below. Include important people, dates, causes, and effects of the event.

Establishment of the Caste Reservation System in India	Tiananmen Square Protest	Green Belt Movement

Election of Nelson Mandela in South Africa

Name: _____

Date: _____

Globalized Culture After 1900 9.6

Directions: List examples for each category below.

Examples	
Globalized Art	
Globalized Sport	
Globalized Communication	
Globalized Belief Systems	
Globalized Commerce	

Name: _____

Date: _____

Resistance to Globalization After 1900 9.7

Cause



Effect

Chocolate companies did not meet their deadlines in the 2000s.

Cause

The World Trade Organization (WTO) controls rules for 90% of world trade.



Effects

Cause

The Rana Plaza factory collapsed in 2013 in Bangladesh.



Effects

Cause



Effect

China introduces its own social media platform, Weibo.

Cause

British voters vote to leave the E.U. in a moved nicknamed Brexit in 2016.



Effects

Name: _____

Date: _____

Institutions Developing in a Globalized World 9.8

Directions: Name and explain the functions of the six assemblies of the U.N.

The United Nations



Explain how the International Monetary Fund (IMF) and World Bank are different, and how they work together.

Name: _____

Date: _____

Continuity and Change in a Globalized World 9.9

Directions: Answer the questions below with a paragraph each. Use relevant details from Unit 9 to support your answers.

Using specific examples, discuss the extent to which new technology affected globalization after 1900.

Choose two movements for rights and equality and discuss their effects in the 20th century.

Notes and Observations:

Unit 9: Globalization: 1900 to Today

Globalization has transformed the world since 1900, connecting economies, cultures, and societies. From early 20th century trade to post-WWII economic integration, the world has become increasingly interconnected through technology, trade agreements, and multinational corporations. This era has seen economic liberalization, cultural diffusion, and the rise of global institutions. It's brought prosperity to many but also criticism for exacerbating inequality and environmental issues. Understanding globalization is key to grasping modern international relations and economics.

Key Concepts and Definitions

Globalization: the process of increasing interconnectedness and interdependence among countries, economies, and cultures worldwide

Global trade: the exchange of goods and services across international borders, facilitated by trade agreements, transportation networks, and communication technologies

Multinational corporations (MNCs): companies that operate in multiple countries, often with headquarters in one country and subsidiaries or branches in others

Cultural diffusion: the spread of ideas, customs, and practices from one culture to another, often facilitated by globalization

Economic liberalization: the reduction of government restrictions on economic activities, such as trade, investment, and production

Global supply chains: the network of companies, suppliers, and distributors involved in the production and distribution of goods and services across multiple countries

Outsourcing: the practice of contracting out business functions or processes to external providers, often in other countries with lower labor costs

Global financial system: the interconnected network of financial institutions, markets, and instruments that facilitate the flow of capital across borders

Historical Context: 1900-1950

Early 20th century marked by increasing global trade and economic integration, driven by advances in transportation (steamships, railways) and communication (telegraph)

World War I (1914-1918) disrupted global trade and led to a period of economic nationalism and protectionism in the 1920s and 1930s

The Great Depression (1929-1939) further dampened international trade and led to the rise of autarkic policies and economic isolationism

World War II (1939-1945) devastated much of Europe and Asia, but also led to technological innovations (radar, computers) and the emergence of the United States as a global economic and military power

The post-war period saw the creation of international institutions (United Nations, World Bank, International Monetary Fund) to promote global cooperation and economic stability

The Bretton Woods system (1944) established a fixed exchange rate regime and the U.S. dollar as the world's reserve currency, laying the foundation for post-war economic globalization

The Marshall Plan (1948) provided U.S. economic aid to help rebuild Western Europe, promoting economic recovery and integration

The General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT) (1947) aimed to reduce trade barriers and promote international trade, setting the stage for later rounds of trade liberalization

Post-WWII Globalization

The post-war period saw a rapid expansion of global trade and economic integration, driven by technological advances, trade liberalization, and the rise of multinational corporations

The United States emerged as the dominant economic and military power, with the U.S. dollar serving as the world's reserve currency under the Bretton Woods system

The creation of the European Economic Community (EEC) in 1957 marked the beginning of European economic integration, which would later evolve into the European Union (EU)

The 1960s and 1970s saw the rise of newly independent countries in Africa and Asia, many of which pursued import-substitution industrialization (ISI) policies to promote economic development

The oil shocks of the 1970s (1973 and 1979) led to a period of economic stagflation and the collapse of the Bretton Woods system, ushering in an era of floating exchange rates

The 1980s and 1990s saw a wave of economic liberalization and market-oriented reforms, as many countries adopted neoliberal policies (Washington Consensus) to promote trade, investment, and growth

The end of the Cold War (1991) and the collapse of the Soviet Union accelerated the process of globalization, as former communist countries integrated into the global economy

The creation of the World Trade Organization (WTO) in 1995 further promoted trade liberalization and the expansion of global trade

Economic Aspects of Globalization

Trade liberalization: the reduction of trade barriers (tariffs, quotas) has led to a significant increase in global trade volumes and the integration of national economies

Foreign direct investment (FDI): the flow of capital across borders has increased, as companies seek to establish production facilities and access new markets in other countries

Global supply chains have become more complex and fragmented, with different stages of production located in multiple countries to take advantage of lower costs and specialized expertise

Outsourcing of manufacturing and services to countries with lower labor costs (China, India) has become a common practice for many multinational corporations

Financial globalization: the integration of financial markets and the increased flow of capital across borders has led to the emergence of a global financial system

This includes the growth of international banking, the rise of global stock markets, and the increased use of financial instruments (derivatives, hedge funds)

Economic interdependence: as countries become more integrated into the global economy, they become more vulnerable to economic shocks and crises originating in other parts of the world (2008 global financial crisis)

Income inequality: while globalization has contributed to economic growth and poverty reduction in some countries, it has also been associated with rising income inequality within and between countries

The rise of emerging economies (BRICS: Brazil, Russia, India, China, South Africa) has shifted the balance of economic power and led to increased competition for resources and markets

Cultural and Social Impacts

Cultural homogenization: the spread of Western culture (music, movies, fashion) and the rise of global brands (Coca-Cola, McDonald's) has led to concerns about the loss of cultural diversity

Cultural hybridization: the mixing of different cultural elements has also led to the emergence of new, hybrid forms of culture (fusion cuisine, world music)

Migration: globalization has facilitated the movement of people across borders, both for work (labor migration) and for personal reasons (tourism, education)

This has led to the emergence of multicultural societies and the challenges of integration and social cohesion

Social media and global communication networks have enabled the rapid spread of information and ideas across borders, connecting people and communities worldwide

The rise of global civil society: non-governmental organizations (NGOs) and social movements have become increasingly active in addressing global issues (human rights, environmental protection)

Globalization has also been associated with the spread of consumerism and materialism, as well as the erosion of traditional values and social structures

The COVID-19 pandemic has highlighted the interconnectedness of the world and the challenges of managing global health crises in an era of globalization

Technological Advancements

The development of containerization in the 1950s revolutionized global shipping and logistics, reducing transportation costs and enabling the growth of global trade

Advances in information and communication technologies (ICTs) have been a key driver of globalization, enabling the rapid exchange of information and ideas across borders

The internet and the World Wide Web have transformed communication, commerce, and culture, creating a global digital economy

Mobile phones and smartphones have become ubiquitous, connecting people and enabling access to information and services in even the most remote areas

Digitalization and the rise of e-commerce have transformed retail and consumer behavior, enabling the growth of global online marketplaces (Amazon, Alibaba)

Automation and robotics have transformed manufacturing and production processes, enabling the creation of global supply chains and the outsourcing of labor

Advances in transportation technologies (high-speed rail, fuel-efficient aircraft) have made global travel and trade more accessible and efficient

The development of global positioning systems (GPS) and geographic information systems (GIS) has enabled the tracking and optimization of global logistics and supply chains

Biotechnology and genetic engineering have transformed agriculture and medicine, enabling the development of new crops, drugs, and treatments with global implications

Political Dimensions

The rise of international organizations (United Nations, World Bank, International Monetary Fund) has created a framework for global governance and cooperation

Regional integration: the formation of regional trade blocs (European Union, NAFTA, ASEAN) has promoted economic integration and political cooperation among member states

The end of the Cold War and the spread of democracy in the 1990s led to a period of optimism about the potential for global cooperation and the spread of liberal values

However, the 9/11 terrorist attacks and the subsequent “War on Terror” led to increased tensions and conflicts, particularly between Western countries and the Islamic world

The rise of populist and nationalist movements in recent years (Brexit, Trump) has challenged the liberal international order and the institutions of global governance

Geopolitical tensions and great power rivalries (U.S.-China, U.S.-Russia) have intensified, leading to concerns about the stability of the global order

The COVID-19 pandemic has exposed the weaknesses of global governance and the challenges of coordinating responses to global crises

Climate change and environmental degradation have emerged as major global challenges, requiring international cooperation and collective action to address

Challenges and Criticisms

Economic inequality: critics argue that globalization has exacerbated income and wealth disparities, both within and between countries

Job losses and deindustrialization: the outsourcing of manufacturing and services to low-wage countries has led to job losses and economic dislocation in developed countries

Environmental degradation: the growth of global trade and production has contributed to environmental problems (deforestation, pollution, climate change)

Cultural homogenization: the spread of Western culture and values has led to concerns about the loss of cultural diversity and the erosion of traditional ways of life

Democratic deficit: critics argue that international organizations and trade agreements lack democratic accountability and prioritize the interests of corporations over citizens

Race to the bottom: countries may compete to attract foreign investment by lowering labor and environmental standards, leading to a “race to the bottom”

Global financial instability: the integration of financial markets has increased the risk of global financial crises and contagion (2008 global financial crisis)

Dependency and unequal power relations: some argue that globalization perpetuates unequal power relations between developed and developing countries, leading to dependency and exploitation

Case Studies and Examples

The rise of China as a global economic power: China's rapid economic growth and integration into the global economy has transformed global trade and geopolitics

The European Union (EU) as a model of regional integration: the EU has created a single market and a common currency (euro), promoting economic and political cooperation among its member states

The North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA): NAFTA created a free trade zone between the United States, Canada, and Mexico, promoting economic integration but also leading to job losses and economic dislocation

The 2008 global financial crisis: the crisis, which began in the U.S. housing market, quickly spread to the global financial system, highlighting the risks of financial globalization

The rise of global terrorism: the 9/11 attacks and subsequent terrorist incidents have highlighted the dark side of globalization and the challenges of managing global security threats

The COVID-19 pandemic: the rapid spread of the virus across borders has exposed the vulnerabilities of global supply chains and the challenges of coordinating responses to global health crises

Climate change and the Paris Agreement: the Paris Agreement (2015) represents a global effort to address the challenges of climate change, but has faced challenges in implementation and enforcement

The rise of global social movements: movements such as the Arab Spring, Occupy Wall Street, and Black Lives Matter have used social media and global communication networks to mobilize support and advocate for change

9.1 Advances in Technology and Exchange after 1900

The 20th and 21st centuries have seen dramatic technological changes that reshaped human life. From communication and transportation to agriculture and healthcare, innovation has transformed how people interact, produce, and survive. These advancements fueled **globalization**, improved **living standards**, and redefined relationships between humans and their environment—though they also introduced new inequalities and environmental concerns.

Communication Technology and the Acceleration of Globalization

New technologies drastically reduced the barrier of geographic distance, allowing people and ideas to move more freely than ever before.

Key Innovations in Communication:

Radio and television broadcasting allowed for real-time mass communication.

Telephones, later followed by **cell phones**, made voice communication global.

The Internet revolutionized information sharing and commerce.

Social media platforms like Twitter and Facebook facilitated grassroots activism and cultural exchange.

Technology	Impact
Radio	Connected people across vast regions; propaganda tool
Cell phones	Enabled instant communication across the globe
Internet	Facilitated digital globalization and e-commerce
Social media	Empowered political movements and cultural diffusion

Globalization became possible not just through technology but also through people's ability to share ideas, organize across borders, and maintain long-distance ties in real time.

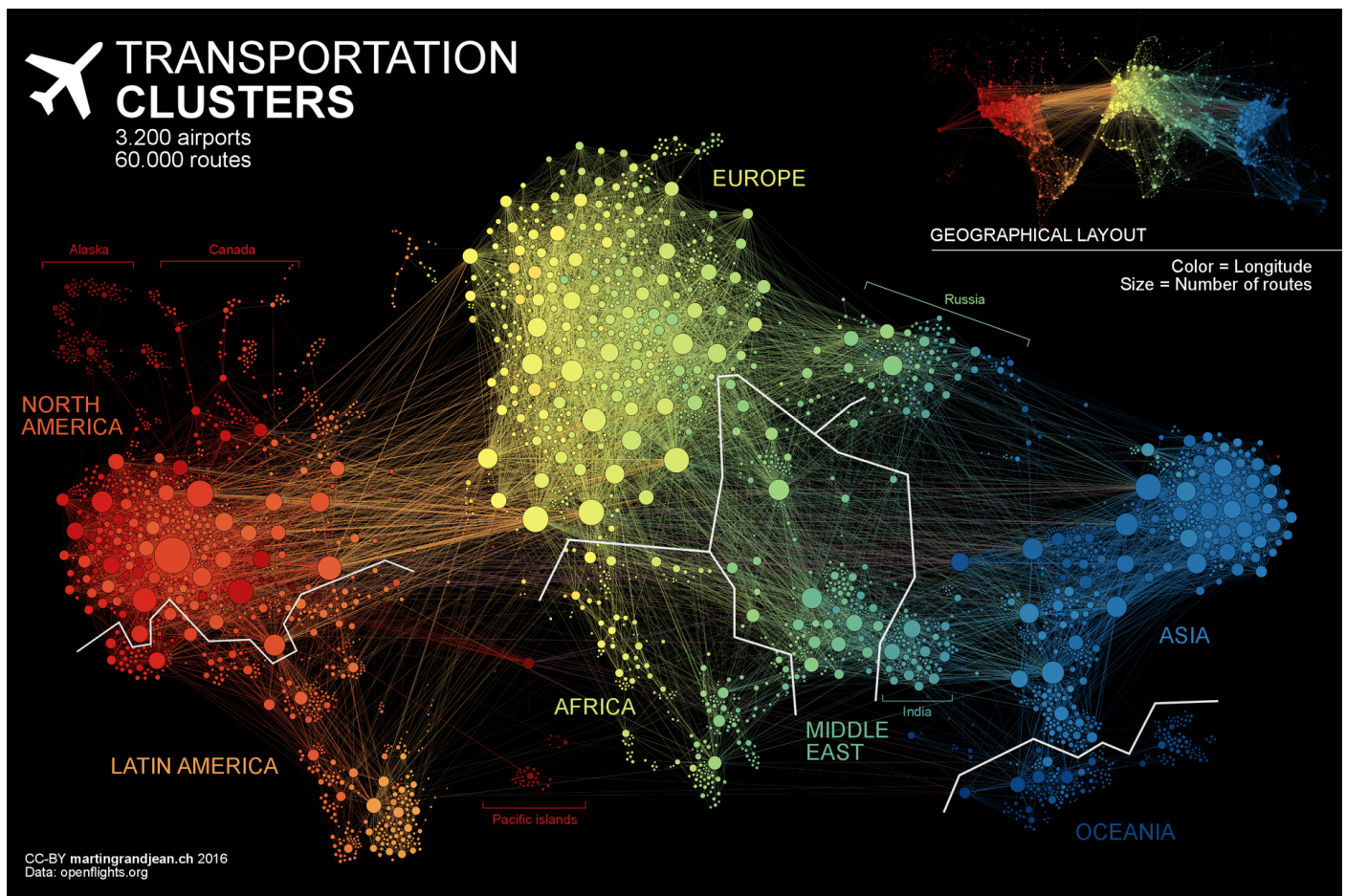
Transportation Technologies and Increased Mobility

Transportation advances allowed people and goods to move faster and farther than ever before.

The **airplane** drastically reduced travel time between continents.

The **container ship** revolutionized cargo transport, lowering costs and boosting global trade.

Automobiles, trains, and public transit systems reshaped urban life and economic networks.

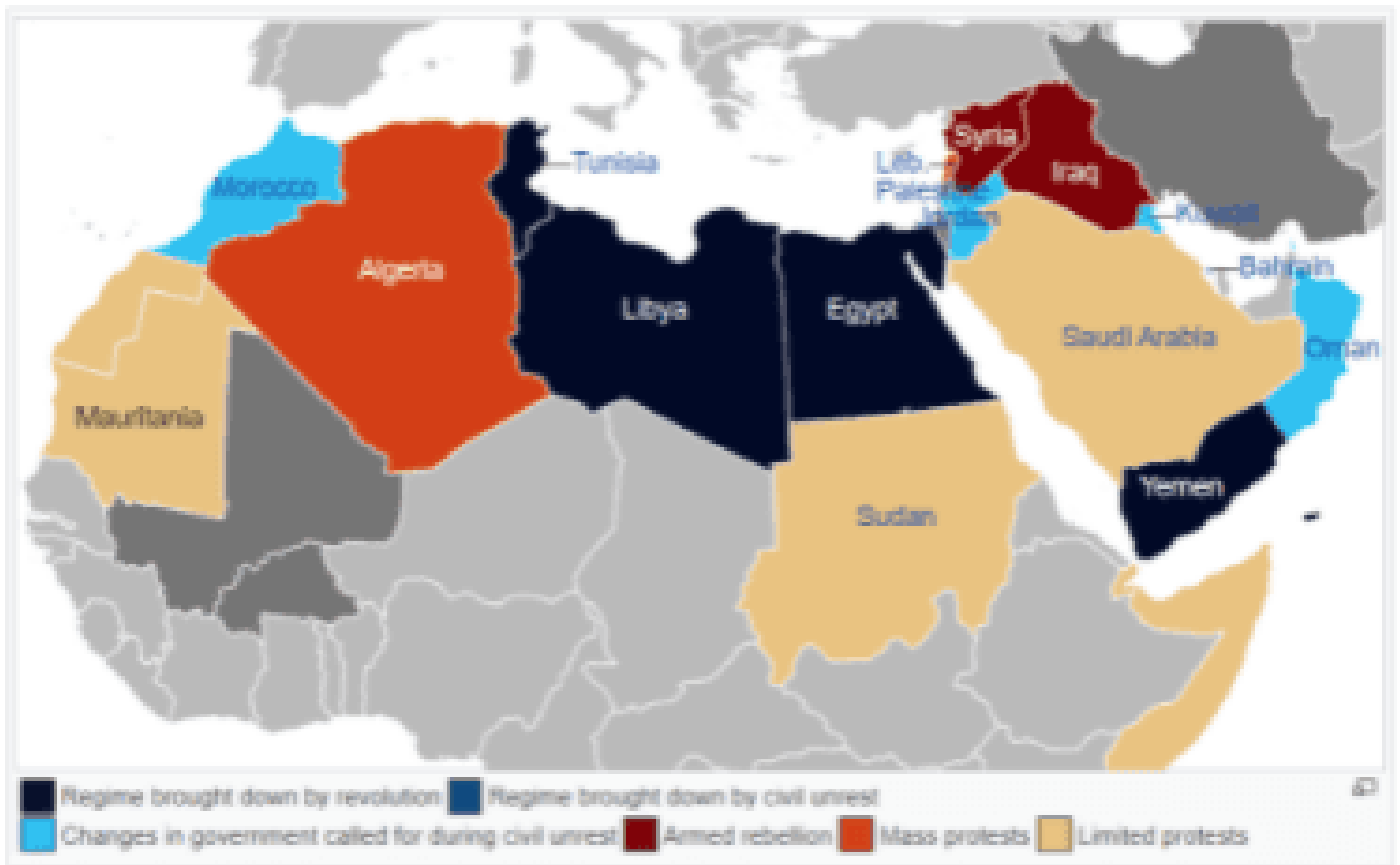


By mid-century, air travel replaced ocean liners as the primary mode of international travel, while containerization made it possible to trade goods across oceans efficiently and at scale.

Social Media and Grassroots Mobilization

The rise of social media transformed political activism and communication.

The Arab Spring (2010–2012) saw mass protests across the Middle East, many of which were **organized and broadcasted** via platforms like Facebook and Twitter.



This map from Wikipedia shows the changes brought by the Arab Spring.

Social media facilitated global solidarity movements, including **Black Lives Matter**, by amplifying local events to an international audience.

Platforms like Facebook and Twitter democratized media, enabling everyday citizens—not just governments or news agencies—to shape public narratives.

Agricultural Innovation: The Green Revolution

In the mid-20th century, the **Green Revolution** dramatically increased food production, especially in the developing world.

Key Features:

Introduction of **synthetic fertilizers** (especially nitrogen-based)

Irrigation technologies like drip and sprinkler systems

High-yield crop varieties (HYVs) for staples like wheat and rice

Widespread use of **chemical pesticides**

Innovation	Result
High-yield crops	Greater food output on less land
Synthetic fertilizers	Boosted soil productivity
Mechanized irrigation	Enabled farming in arid regions
GMO development	Increased disease and drought resistance

Although it helped alleviate famine in India, Mexico, and parts of Africa, the Green Revolution also raised concerns about environmental sustainability and dependency on multinational agribusinesses.

Norman Borlaug, known as the “Father of the Green Revolution,” was awarded the Nobel Peace Prize in 1970 for helping reduce world hunger.

Biotechnology and Medical Innovation

Scientific breakthroughs in medicine have extended human life, reduced infant mortality, and transformed healthcare globally.

Key Innovations:

Vaccines reduced the spread of deadly diseases (e.g., smallpox eradication).

Antibiotics, like penicillin, revolutionized the treatment of infections.

Organ transplants and **imaging technologies** (e.g., MRIs) improved survival rates.

Biotechnology, including gene therapy and diagnostics, continues to evolve.

Reproductive Health and Demographic Change

One of the most significant societal shifts since 1900 has been the transformation of women’s reproductive rights and health.

Birth control methods—such as oral contraceptives and intrauterine devices (IUDs)—gave women unprecedented control over their fertility.

NGOs and international agencies worked to expand access to **family planning**, especially in **Less Developed Countries (LDCs)**.

Demographic Effects:

Total Fertility Rates (TFR) declined, especially in **More Developed Countries (MDCs)**.

Some countries, like **Germany** and **Japan**, are now experiencing **population decline** and aging populations.

This demographic shift poses long-term economic and social challenges, including labor shortages and increased healthcare costs.

Region	TFR Trend	Major Cause
Western Europe	Sharp decline	Access to contraception, education
Sub-Saharan Africa	Slower decline	Limited healthcare access
East Asia	Decline, now aging	Government policy + cultural shifts

The demographic consequences of contraceptive access are still unfolding. Lower fertility has empowered women, but it also challenges economic systems reliant on population growth.

Key Terms to Review

Abortion: Abortion refers to the medical procedure that ends a pregnancy, resulting in the removal of an embryo or fetus before it can survive outside the uterus. This term has significant implications in discussions surrounding women's rights, healthcare access, and social and political debates, especially as advancements in medical technology have changed how abortions are performed and accessed over time.

Agricultural Technology: Agricultural technology encompasses the tools, techniques, and systems used to enhance agricultural production, improve efficiency, and increase crop yields. This includes advancements such as machinery, biotechnology, irrigation methods, and information technology that have transformed farming practices and contributed to food security and sustainability in the modern world.

Airplane: An airplane is a powered flying vehicle with fixed wings and a weight greater than that of the air it displaces. This innovation revolutionized transportation, enabling rapid movement of people and goods over long distances and significantly impacting global conflict by changing military strategies and warfare.

Arab Spring: The Arab Spring refers to a series of anti-government protests, uprisings, and armed rebellions that swept across much of the Arab world beginning in late 2010 and continuing into 2012. Sparked by widespread dissatisfaction with authoritarian regimes, corruption, and economic hardships, this movement highlighted the role of social media and technology in mobilizing and spreading revolutionary ideas.

Biotechnology: Biotechnology refers to the use of living organisms, cells, and biological systems to develop products and technologies that improve human life and the environment. This field has expanded significantly since the 20th century, contributing to advancements in medicine, agriculture, and industry through genetic engineering, molecular biology, and bioprocessing.

Black Lives Matter Organization: The Black Lives Matter Organization is a decentralized movement advocating for the rights and lives of Black individuals, emphasizing the need to address systemic racism, police violence, and social injustice. Founded in 2013 in response to the acquittal of George Zimmerman in the shooting death of Trayvon Martin, the organization utilizes social media and grassroots activism to mobilize support and raise awareness about racial inequality.

Cellular Phone: A cellular phone, often referred to as a mobile phone, is a portable electronic device that enables users to make and receive calls, send text messages, and access various applications through wireless communication networks. The development and widespread adoption of cellular phones represent a major advancement in technology and have transformed how people communicate and exchange information globally.

Communication Technology: Communication technology refers to the various tools, devices, and systems that facilitate the transmission and reception of information across distances. This includes advancements such as telegraphs, telephones, radio, television, and the internet, which have transformed how people connect and share information globally. As communication technology evolved, it played a crucial role in shaping economies, cultures, and societies throughout history.

Contraception: Contraception refers to methods or devices used to prevent pregnancy during or following sexual intercourse. The advancements in contraception after 1900 have significantly impacted societal norms, family planning, and public health by giving individuals more control over reproduction, leading to greater gender equality and changing family structures.

Evangelical Right: The Evangelical Right is a political and social movement in the United States that seeks to promote and uphold conservative Christian values, often aligning with right-wing politics. This movement has played a significant role in shaping political discourse, especially regarding issues like abortion, same-sex marriage, and religious freedom, particularly after 1900 as advances in technology and communication facilitated the spread of its influence.

Facebook: Facebook is a social networking service launched in 2004 that allows users to connect, share content, and communicate with one another through personal profiles, pages, and groups. It revolutionized how people interact online, significantly impacting social connections and information exchange in the modern world.

Globalization: Globalization is the process of increased interconnectedness and interdependence among countries, driven by advances in technology, trade, and cultural exchange. It has transformed economies, politics, and cultures around the world, creating both opportunities and challenges for societies as they adapt to a rapidly changing environment.

GMOs: GMOs, or genetically modified organisms, are living organisms whose genetic material has been altered through genetic engineering techniques to enhance desired traits such as resistance to pests, improved nutritional content, or faster growth rates. This manipulation of DNA connects with advances in technology and exchange after 1900 by revolutionizing agricultural practices, influencing global food systems, and raising discussions around food safety and environmental sustainability.

Green Revolution: The Green Revolution refers to a series of technological advancements in agriculture that occurred between the 1940s and the late 1960s, aimed at increasing food production worldwide, especially in developing countries. This movement introduced high-yielding varieties of crops, synthetic fertilizers, pesticides, and advanced irrigation techniques, significantly transforming agricultural practices and improving food security.

High-yield Crops: High-yield crops are specially bred or genetically modified plant varieties designed to produce significantly greater quantities of food per unit of land compared to traditional varieties. This innovation in agriculture emerged during the 20th century, aligning with advances in technology and agricultural practices, which aimed to meet the growing global demand for food due to population growth and urbanization.

Instagram: Instagram is a social media platform focused on sharing photos and videos, allowing users to interact through likes, comments, and direct messages. Launched in 2010, it became a significant player in the rise of visual culture and has transformed communication, marketing, and personal branding in the modern era.

Irrigation Methods: Irrigation methods are techniques used to supply water to crops and agricultural land to enhance productivity and ensure consistent yields. These methods have evolved over time, reflecting advancements in technology and the need for efficient water management in agriculture, particularly as populations grew and agricultural practices intensified in the modern era.

iPhone XR: The iPhone XR is a smartphone designed and marketed by Apple Inc., released in October 2018. It features advanced technology such as a Liquid Retina display, A12 Bionic chip, and a single-lens rear camera, making it a popular choice among consumers looking for a balance of performance and affordability. The iPhone XR represents a significant advancement in mobile technology, contributing to the rapid evolution of communication devices and the broader landscape of technology and exchange in the modern era.

Landline Phones: Landline phones are traditional telephone devices that connect to a public switched telephone network via a physical wire or fiber optic cable. They played a crucial role in communication, enabling voice transmission over long distances and serving as a fundamental means of connecting households and businesses before the widespread adoption of mobile technology.

Lesser Developed Countries (LDCs): Lesser Developed Countries (LDCs) are nations that exhibit lower levels of socio-economic development, characterized by limited industrialization, lower income levels, and often a reliance on agriculture. These countries frequently face challenges such as poverty, lack of access to education and healthcare, and political instability. The technological advances and global exchanges after 1900 have significantly impacted LDCs, as they have struggled to keep pace with more developed nations in harnessing these innovations for economic growth.

More Developed Countries (MDCs): More Developed Countries (MDCs) are nations that exhibit advanced levels of industrialization, high standards of living, and robust economic stability. These countries typically have well-established infrastructures, access to technology, and a high Human Development Index (HDI), which measures factors like education, health, and income. The characteristics of MDCs highlight significant advances in technology and exchange, particularly after 1900, as these nations often lead global innovation and trade.

Natural Increase Rate (NIR): Natural Increase Rate (NIR) is the difference between the number of live births and the number of deaths in a population over a specific period, typically expressed as a percentage of the total population. It serves as a key indicator of population growth, reflecting the balance between births and deaths while excluding migration factors. Advances in technology and improved healthcare after 1900 significantly influenced NIR by reducing mortality rates and increasing life expectancy, ultimately leading to rapid population growth in many regions.

Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs): Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs) are independent, non-profit organizations that operate separately from government control and often aim to address social, political, environmental, or humanitarian issues. They play a vital role in global development by providing services, advocating for change, and mobilizing resources, especially as advances in technology have facilitated their communication and coordination on a global scale.

Norman Bourlag: Norman Borlaug was an American agronomist and humanitarian, often referred to as the 'Father of the Green Revolution.' He played a pivotal role in developing high-yielding varieties of crops, particularly wheat, that significantly boosted agricultural production in the mid-20th century. His work is closely tied to advances in technology and exchange after 1900, as his innovations helped to address global food security and combat famine in developing countries.

Oral Contraception: Oral contraception refers to the use of hormonal pills taken by women to prevent pregnancy. This method of birth control became widely available in the 20th century, revolutionizing reproductive health and empowering women with greater control over their bodies and family planning.

Reproductive Health: Reproductive health refers to the complete well-being in all aspects of reproduction, encompassing physical, mental, and social factors. It involves access to safe and effective family planning methods, maternal healthcare, education about sexual health, and the prevention and treatment of reproductive health issues. Advances in technology after 1900 played a crucial role in improving reproductive health outcomes, allowing for better healthcare access and more effective medical interventions.

Social Media: Social media refers to digital platforms and tools that facilitate the creation, sharing, and exchange of content among users. It has transformed communication by enabling instantaneous connection across the globe, influencing both personal interactions and larger societal trends. As a result, social media plays a crucial role in shaping culture, politics, and economies in the modern world.

Synthetic Fertilizers: Synthetic fertilizers are chemically manufactured substances used to enhance plant growth by providing essential nutrients such as nitrogen, phosphorus, and potassium. Their development and widespread use have transformed agricultural practices since the early 20th century, contributing significantly to increases in crop yields and changes in global food production systems.

Telegraph: The telegraph was a revolutionary communication device that allowed messages to be transmitted over long distances using electrical signals. It transformed communication in the 19th century, greatly enhancing the speed and efficiency of information exchange, which in turn influenced various aspects of society, economy, and technology.

Total Fertility Rate (TFR): The Total Fertility Rate (TFR) is a demographic measure that estimates the average number of children a woman would have during her reproductive years, typically defined as ages 15 to 49, assuming she experiences the exact current age-specific fertility rates through her lifetime. This measure is crucial for understanding population growth, decline, and demographic changes, especially in relation to technological advancements and shifts in social norms that influence reproductive behavior.

Travel Technology: Travel technology refers to the innovations and tools that enhance the planning, booking, and experience of travel. This includes advancements like online booking platforms, mobile apps, GPS navigation, and various digital communication tools that facilitate seamless travel experiences. As the world became more interconnected after 1900, travel technology played a critical role in making travel more accessible and efficient, thus influencing global exchange and commerce.

Twitter: Twitter is a social media platform that allows users to post and interact with short messages called 'tweets', which can include text, images, videos, and links. Since its launch in 2006, Twitter has transformed communication and information sharing, significantly impacting how people engage in discussions, organize movements, and disseminate news.

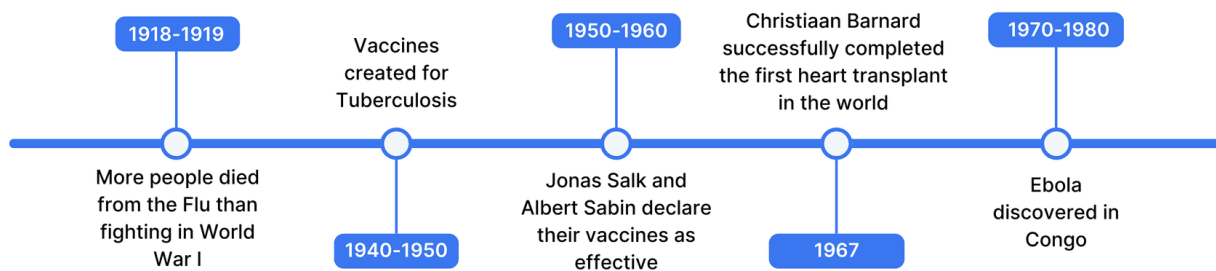
USAID: USAID, or the United States Agency for International Development, is a U.S. government agency responsible for administering civilian foreign aid and development assistance. Established in 1961, USAID aims to promote economic development, improve social conditions, and enhance governance in developing countries, thereby reflecting a commitment to global humanitarian efforts and fostering stability in regions of strategic interest.

Women's Health: Women's health refers to the branch of medicine that focuses on the diagnosis, treatment, and prevention of health issues specific to women. This includes reproductive health, maternal health, and gender-specific diseases, all of which have evolved significantly due to advances in technology and increased access to healthcare resources in the modern era.

9.2: Technological Advancements and Limitations- Disease

As science and medicine evolved, with the help of the government, diseases were starting to be contained. For example, smallpox has been removed since 1979 after the World Health Organization (WHO) gave out vaccines globally, which increased global immunity; however, some diseases were harder to remove. Some great examples are the flu, HIV/AIDS, and Ebola. These viruses were common in areas with high poverty rates. Keep in mind that as healthcare was increasing, so was the life expectancy. This means that other conditions arose such as Alzheimer's and heart conditions.

Key Timeline



Timeline of diseases as they appear throughout 1900-Present

Things to Know

Diseases related to Poverty

Living in poverty often meant unclean housing, working conditions (long hours, factory workers, and child labor were common), and water as well as limited access to healthcare. All of these factors contributed to the increased spread of disease.

Malaria

- Doctors Without Borders, a non-governmental organization (NGO), treated around 1.7 million cases of **malaria** every year, which usually affected young African children.
- In 2019, Algeria and Argentina were announced as malaria-free countries.

Tuberculosis (TB)

- After 1946, there were vaccines created in order to prevent **tuberculosis**. Treatment would mean getting the vaccine and have a long period of rest.
- In the early 2000s, there was a rise of tuberculosis cases due to a strain of tuberculosis being resistant to the antibiotics.
- The World Health Organization (WHO) started a campaign in order to advocate against tuberculosis shortly after.

Cholera

Polio

- **Jonas Salk**, who was an American researcher, was proud to announce that on April 12, 1995, an injectable vaccine was available and effective for polio.
- In 1961, **Albert Sabin** developed a new oral vaccine for polio that had also shown effectiveness against polio.
- In countries like Pakistan and Afghanistan, it was harder to administer vaccines because of the ongoing wars, and/or people resentful due to not trusting outside help.
- These two countries still have polio, however, 30 years after the vaccine came out, other countries were declared polio free.

Epidemics

After World War I ended in 1918, **epidemics** were on the rise.

The flu had gotten out of control and men were dying more from the flu than from being in battle. One fifth of the world's population at the time had died for the same reason, which can be compared to the Bubonic Plague (1347-1351).

HIV/AIDS

- First, people usually get Human immunodeficiency virus (HIV), which then transfers into a more serious matter, called Acquired immune deficiency syndrome (AIDS).
- Both of these slow down the immune system's response towards an outside threat.
- Killed 25 million people
- In the mid-1990s, **antiretroviral drugs** had been one of the developed ways by researchers to treat HIV/AIDS.
- These drugs are expensive, and are not accessible by many— except Brazil! Brazil gives out these antiretroviral drugs for free! 🇧🇷

Ebola

- Discovered at Congo in 1976
- West Africa had an Ebola outbreak in 2014, which caused panic throughout the world, however, the WHO took a huge role in responding, and contained the outbreaks.

Diseases related to Old Age

Heart Diseases

- **Christiaan Barnard** was the first person in 1967 to successfully carry out a **heart transplant**.
- **Robert Jarvik** led a team to create the first **Artificial Heart**, allowing one of his patients to wait until they got their real heart for a heart transplant.
- Other cool mentions would be valve replacements and artery stents that allowed the heart to flow blood throughout the body.

Alzheimer's Disease

Terms to Remember

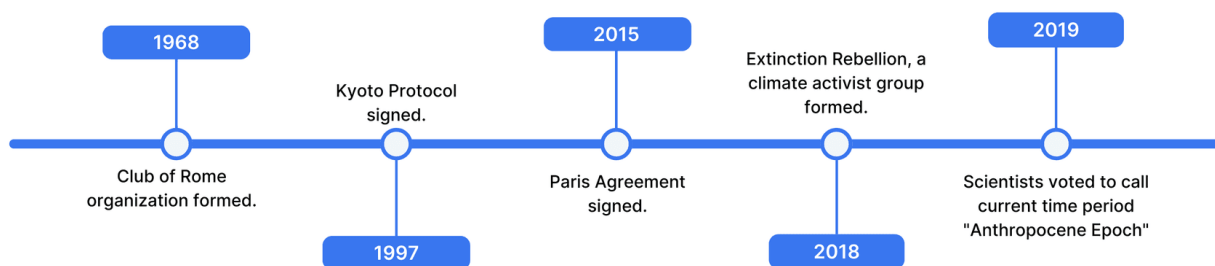
Term	Definition + Significance
Malaria	Disease spread by mosquitoes, usually in tropical areas. Malaria feels like having the flu, however, it is parasitic.
Tuberculosis (TB)	Spreads through coughs and sneezing and affects the lungs
Cholera	Cholera travels through infected waters, and it severely dehydrates its victims.
Polio	Transmitted to humans by water, however, the water is contaminated through fecal matter. This can result in paralysis or even death.
Jonas Salk	Created the injectable vaccine for Polio.
Albert Sabin	Created the oral vaccine for Polio.
Epidemics	A widespread disease that is in a limited area.
HIV/AIDS	Reduces function of immune system detrimentally.
Ebola	Ebola causes tremendous bleeding, which results in organ failure and then death.
Antiretroviral drug	Helps treat the immune problems that are caused by HIV/AIDS; they are also very expensive.
Heart Transplant	Transferring a human heart to another human with heart problems so they can live a better life.
Christiaan Barnard	Carried out the first successful heart transplant.
Robert Jarvik	Led a team to create an artificial heart.
Artificial Heart	A temporary place taker of the heart so that the body still circulates blood.
Alzheimer's Disease	A form of dementia; patients lose more memories as they progress with this disease.

Topic 9.3 Technology and the Environment

Main Idea

During the 20th and 21st centuries, human activity led to environmental changes, causing increased competition for scarce resources, with issues including deforestation, desertification, air pollution, and rising water consumption. World leaders recognized climate change as a global problem, with interconnected factors driving environmental changes: population growth, urbanization, and globalization. Resource depletion, water scarcity, and inequality emerged, leading to debates on global warming and the need for renewable energy. Accordingly, environmental awareness grew, prompting global initiatives like the Paris Agreement.

Key Timeline



Timeline of events following Technology and the Environment

Things to Know

Causes of Environmental Change

Population Growth:

- Population growth led to increased demand for croplands, causing deforestation, soil erosion, and species habitat reduction.
- The need to feed the growing population resulted in overfishing, leading to the near disappearance of cod.
- While fresh water is a renewable resource, growing populations escalate its consumption.

Urbanization:

- Urbanization pressures food growers to employ intensive farming methods, depleting soil and causing erosion, or clear more forests for agriculture.
- The increasing size and number of cities, with an estimated 5.1 billion people living in cities by 2025, contribute to environmental changes.

Industrialization:

- Industrialization in developing nations creates a new middle class, boosting the market for products like cars that require metals and contribute to pollution.

Effects of Environmental Changes

Resource Depletion:

- Since the mid-1800s, petroleum extraction has depleted about half of Earth's finite resources.
 - Rapid urban and industrial growth may lead to the depletion of the remaining half within 30 to 40 years.
- UN reports 31 countries facing water scarcity, with over 1 billion people lacking clean, accessible drinking water.
 - World Health Organization (WHO) predicts that by 2025, half of the world's population may lack clean and safe drinking water.
- Concerns about unsustainable fossil fuel demands lead to investments in renewable energy sources.
- Renewable energy currently provides about 7% of the world's energy needs.
 - A 2018 study predicts that by 2050, half of the world's electricity will come from wind and solar power.

Environmental Awareness:

- In 1968, the "Club of Rome" forms to address global challenges, highlighting concerns about resource depletion limiting economic growth.
- Green Parties and movements, like the Green Belt Movement, emerge to protect wilderness areas from urban growth.
 - By the 21st century, the Green Belt Movement plants over 51 million trees in Kenya, contributing to ecosystem preservation, reduced greenhouse gases, job creation, and improved soil quality.

Debates About Global Warming

Scientists, including the UN's Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC), attribute global warming to carbon dioxide and greenhouse gas emissions from fossil fuels.

Experts call for reducing countries' carbon footprints to address global warming.

Some in the energy industry resist government interference, relying on market forces for carbon footprint reduction, while other energy leaders plan a shift to renewable fuel sources.

Kyoto Protocol (1997):

- Major agreement to reduce carbon emissions and developed nations push for developing countries' cooperation.

Paris Agreement (2015):

- Signed by 195 countries, with support from US and China and aim for global progress against global warming.
- In 2017, President Trump announced the US withdrawal from the Paris Agreement.

Climate Activism:

- Greta Thunberg's Speech: Thunberg, a 15-year-old climate activist, calls for action at a UN climate conference in 2018.
- Extinction Rebellion: Formed in 2018, the group engages in civil disobedience, blocking bridges, and chaining to company headquarters.
 - Their actions led to the establishment of a citizens' assembly by Members of Parliament to address the climate emergency.

A New Age?

Holocene Epoch:

- Our current geological time period has been referenced as the Holocene epoch.
- The Holocene began approximately 11,700 years ago, marking the end of the last significant ice age.

Anthropocene Proposal:

- In 2019, a panel of scientists voted to approve the term "Anthropocene" to describe the present geological time period.
- "Anthropocene" signifies the era of "new man," emphasizing the profound impact of humans on the entire planet.

Terms to Remember

Term	Definition + Significance
Deforestation	Loss of Earth's trees as a result of cutting them down so the land could instead be used for agriculture.
Desertification	Removal of the natural vegetation cover through expansion and intensive use of agricultural lands in arid and semi-arid lands.
Carbon footprint	The amount of carbon dioxide that each person produces.
Climate Activism	Increasing global temperatures led to calls to action.
Renewable Energy	Energy derived from resources that are continuously replenished, such as wind, solar, tidal, and geothermal power.
Green Belt Movement	An environmental movement in Kenya where people plant trees to stop deforestation and soil erosion.
Green Party	A political party dedicated to protecting the environment.

9.4 Economics in the Global Age

The global economy has undergone significant changes since 1900, influenced by technological revolutions, the end of colonial empires, the Cold War, and the rise of globalization. These shifts transformed how goods are produced, how labor is distributed, and how states interact with markets. As some countries embraced **free-market capitalism**, others adapted **mixed economies** or **state-directed models**—all within a context of increasing international interdependence.

The Rise of Free Market Economics

In the second half of the 20th century, particularly after the Cold War, many governments embraced **free-market policies**. These policies aimed to reduce government control over the economy, privatize state-owned enterprises, and encourage private enterprise.

During the Cold War, the **United States** worked to contain the spread of communism by encouraging capitalist development through **economic aid**, particularly under the **Truman Doctrine**. This policy provided financial support to countries like Greece and Turkey to prevent them from adopting communist systems.



This image is courtesy of Apprend.io and demonstrates the purpose of the Truman Doctrine, which was to throw money at Europe to prevent the spread of communism.

Free-market reforms often led to economic growth but also brought inequality and debates over labor rights and public welfare.

Economic Liberalization and Neoliberalism

As globalization accelerated in the late 20th century, many countries adopted **economic liberalization** policies. These were often influenced by the global rise of **neoliberalism**, an economic philosophy that promoted **limited government intervention, free markets, privatization, and deregulation** as the path to economic growth and efficiency.

Neoliberalism emerged in the 1970s and 1980s as a reaction to the economic stagnation of the postwar era. Influenced by economists like **Milton Friedman** and **Friedrich Hayek**, neoliberal policies were embraced by powerful Western leaders and then exported around the globe, especially through the International Monetary Fund (IMF) and World Bank.

Neoliberalism is not just about economics—it became a global ideology that reshaped how countries approached governance, labor, welfare, and trade.

Core Tenets of Neoliberalism

- Privatization** of state-owned industries and services
- Deregulation** of business and financial markets
- Reduction of tariffs** and promotion of free trade
- Cuts to public spending** and social welfare programs
- Emphasis on competition** and individual entrepreneurship

Neoliberalism was often promoted through **Structural Adjustment Programs (SAPs)**, which were economic reforms required by the **IMF** or **World Bank** in exchange for loans. These programs were especially common in Latin America, Sub-Saharan Africa, and parts of Asia.

Examples of Economic Liberalization

Leader/Country	Policies and Effects
Margaret Thatcher (UK)	Cut back social programs, privatized industries (e.g., coal, railways), reduced union power
Ronald Reagan (US)	“Reaganomics”: Tax cuts for the wealthy, deregulated finance and energy sectors
Deng Xiaoping (China)	Introduced market reforms (e.g., Special Economic Zones), encouraged private enterprise
Augusto Pinochet (Chile)	Adopted “shock therapy” reforms advised by Chicago School economists, opened economy to foreign investment

Impact of Neoliberal Policies

Positive Effects:

- Boosted foreign investment and trade
- Stabilized inflation in some countries (e.g., Chile)
- Fostered rapid economic growth in places like China and India
- Expanded middle-class consumer markets in developing nations

Negative Effects:

- Increased income inequality
- Weakened labor protections and social safety nets
- Led to underfunding of public health, education, and infrastructure
- Left some economies vulnerable to global financial shocks

While neoliberalism led to growth in some sectors, it also triggered mass protests in Latin America, Sub-Saharan Africa, and Southeast Asia—often due to cuts in subsidies, rising unemployment, or foreign control over local resources.

Post-Industrial and Knowledge Economies

Decline of Heavy Industry

As economies developed, especially in the **United States**, the demand for factory labor declined. Automation and outsourcing led to the decline of industrial hubs in the Midwest, a region nicknamed the **Rust Belt**. Cities like Detroit and Cleveland suffered job losses, while service-sector and white-collar jobs grew.

This transition marked a shift to a **post-industrial economy**—an economy where services and information replace manufacturing as the primary source of growth.

The Knowledge Economy

Knowledge economies are based on innovation, technology, and the creation of intellectual capital. Countries with robust university systems and investment in digital infrastructure led the way in developing these economies.

Country	Features of Knowledge Economy
United States	Silicon Valley tech industry, university-based research hubs
Japan	Innovation in robotics, electronics, and automobile engineering
Finland	High-tech education systems and export of communication software

“Designed in California. Assembled in China.” This phrase on Apple products captures the dual nature of the modern economy—**knowledge production** in developed countries and **manufacturing** in developing regions.

Shifting Centers of Industrial Production

While developed countries moved toward services and technology, industrial production expanded in **Asia** and **Latin America**, where lower labor costs attracted manufacturers.

Industrial Hubs by Region

Region	Countries	Specialization
East Asia	China, Vietnam	Electronics, textiles, consumer goods
South Asia	India, Bangladesh	Garments, software services
Latin America	Mexico, Honduras	Automotive parts, textiles

Export-oriented industrialization, particularly in the **Asian Tigers** (South Korea, Taiwan, Singapore, Hong Kong), proved successful in lifting economies through a focus on manufacturing and trade.

Multinational and Transnational Corporations

Multinational corporations (MNCs) played a central role in global economic integration. These companies operate across national borders, with supply chains and markets in multiple countries.

Examples include:

Nestlé (Switzerland): Food and beverage industry

Nissan (Japan): Automotive manufacturing

ExxonMobil (United States): Oil and gas

McDonald's (United States): Fast food and cultural globalization

These firms capitalize on comparative advantages by locating production in countries with lower costs while keeping headquarters in developed economies.

McDonaldization describes how global business models—efficiency, predictability, and control—shape culture, from food to shopping malls.

Cultural Effects of Economic Globalization

As multinational corporations expanded, so did **Western consumer culture**, raising concerns about cultural homogenization. At the same time, globalization also increased awareness of cultural diversity through media, migration, and tourism. The spread of U.S.-based brands like Coca-Cola, Nike, and McDonald's became symbolic of the cultural dimensions of global capitalism—offering familiarity abroad while raising concerns over local traditions being overshadowed.

Continuities and Changes in the Global Economy Since 1900

Category	Continuities	Changes
Trade	Continued exchange of goods and services	Digital and service-based trade intensified
Labor	Use of cheap labor in poorer regions	Rise of automation and AI reshaped job markets
Institutions	Capitalist markets and global banking remained	Rise of institutions like the WTO and regional trade blocs
Production	Global division of labor persisted	Shift from Western industry to Asian manufacturing dominance
Consumption	Continued demand for consumer goods	Increased focus on sustainability and ethical sourcing

Key Terms to Review

Asia: Asia is the largest continent, both in area and population, encompassing diverse cultures, languages, and histories. It has played a central role in global economics, imperialism, and political shifts throughout modern history, serving as a site of colonial exploitation, a hub for newly independent states, and a stage for shifting global power dynamics.

Asian Tiger Countries: The Asian Tiger Countries refer to the high-growth economies of Hong Kong, Singapore, South Korea, and Taiwan, known for their rapid industrialization and economic development from the late 20th century. These countries experienced significant transformation due to export-oriented growth strategies, leading to increased foreign investment, technological advancement, and a highly skilled workforce.

Augusto Pinochet: Augusto Pinochet was a Chilean military dictator who ruled Chile from 1973 to 1990 following a coup that overthrew the democratically elected president Salvador Allende. His regime is known for its authoritarian governance, widespread human rights abuses, and efforts to implement neoliberal economic policies that transformed Chile's economy, making him a controversial figure in discussions about resistance movements and global economic shifts.

Cold War: The Cold War was a prolonged period of geopolitical tension between the Soviet Union and the United States, along with their respective allies, from the end of World War II until the early 1990s. It was characterized by ideological conflict, military rivalry, and indirect confrontations, influencing global politics and society in profound ways.

Deng Xiaoping: Deng Xiaoping was a Chinese politician and reformist leader who played a crucial role in China's economic transformation from a planned economy to a more market-oriented economy starting in the late 1970s. His policies, known as 'Socialism with Chinese characteristics,' significantly altered the country's economic landscape and positioned China as a key player in the global economy, while also eliciting resistance and debate over globalization.

Economic Globalization: Economic globalization refers to the increasing interdependence of national economies through the expansion of international trade, investment, and capital flows. This interconnectedness facilitates the exchange of goods, services, and ideas across borders, significantly impacting economic policies and practices worldwide.

Economic Liberalization: Economic liberalization refers to the process of reducing government restrictions and regulations in an economy, allowing for greater participation of private enterprise and free markets. This includes practices such as deregulation, lowering tariffs, and opening up markets to foreign investment. Economic liberalization is often associated with globalization, as countries seek to integrate into the global economy by adopting market-oriented reforms.

Export-Processing Economies: Export-processing economies are countries that focus on manufacturing goods primarily for export, often facilitated by special economic zones where regulations are relaxed to attract foreign investment. These economies often rely on low labor costs and favorable trade policies to boost their manufacturing sectors and integrate into the global market. They play a critical role in the global supply chain and are essential to understanding the dynamics of economic globalization.

Free Market Economics: Free Market Economics is an economic system where prices for goods and services are determined by the open market and consumers, rather than being regulated by the government. This system is characterized by voluntary exchanges and competition among businesses, which drive innovation and efficiency while allowing consumers to have choices based on their preferences. Free market economics plays a significant role in shaping global trade dynamics and influences how economies interact in the global age.

Knowledge Economy: A knowledge economy is an economic system where the creation, distribution, and use of knowledge plays a central role in driving growth, innovation, and competitiveness. This type of economy relies heavily on intellectual capabilities rather than natural resources or physical labor, emphasizing education, research and development, and advanced technologies. In a knowledge economy, businesses and governments invest in human

capital to enhance productivity and foster innovation.

Latin America: Latin America refers to a region in the Americas where Romance languages, primarily Spanish and Portuguese, are spoken. This area includes countries in South America, Central America, Mexico, and parts of the Caribbean, and it has a rich history influenced by colonization, indigenous cultures, and later independence movements.

Margaret Thatcher: Margaret Thatcher was the Prime Minister of the United Kingdom from 1979 to 1990, known for her strong conservative policies and leadership style that earned her the nickname 'The Iron Lady.' She played a pivotal role in promoting free-market policies, reducing government intervention in the economy, and supporting privatization of state-owned industries, which significantly impacted economic practices during the global age.

McDonaldization: McDonaldization refers to the process by which the principles of the fast-food industry, particularly those exemplified by McDonald's, come to dominate more sectors of society and the economy. This concept emphasizes efficiency, predictability, calculability, and control, leading to a standardization of products and services across various domains. As these principles take hold, they influence global consumer culture and economic practices.

Multinational Corporations (MNCs): Multinational Corporations (MNCs) are large companies that operate in multiple countries, managing production or delivering services in several nations while being headquartered in one. These corporations play a significant role in the global economy, influencing international trade patterns, investment flows, and economic policies. MNCs often leverage their global presence to optimize resources, access new markets, and take advantage of varying labor costs and regulations.

Post-Industrial Economies: Post-Industrial Economies refer to economic systems characterized by a shift from manufacturing-based industries to service-oriented sectors, emphasizing knowledge, technology, and information. This transition marks a significant change in employment patterns, where jobs in services, finance, healthcare, and technology dominate over traditional manufacturing roles. The rise of post-industrial economies is closely linked to globalization and advancements in technology, impacting how economies function and compete on a global scale.

Ronald Reagan: Ronald Reagan was the 40th President of the United States, serving from 1981 to 1989, known for his conservative policies and a strong stance against communism during the Cold War. His presidency marked a significant shift in U.S. economic policy towards neoliberalism, emphasizing tax cuts, deregulation, and a reduced role for government in the economy, which resonated with the global economic trends of the time.

Rust Belt: The Rust Belt refers to a region in the northeastern and midwestern United States that experienced significant industrial decline from the late 20th century onward, particularly in the manufacturing sector. This term highlights the economic shifts that occurred as factories closed, jobs were lost, and cities faced urban decay, reflecting broader changes in the global economy and labor market.

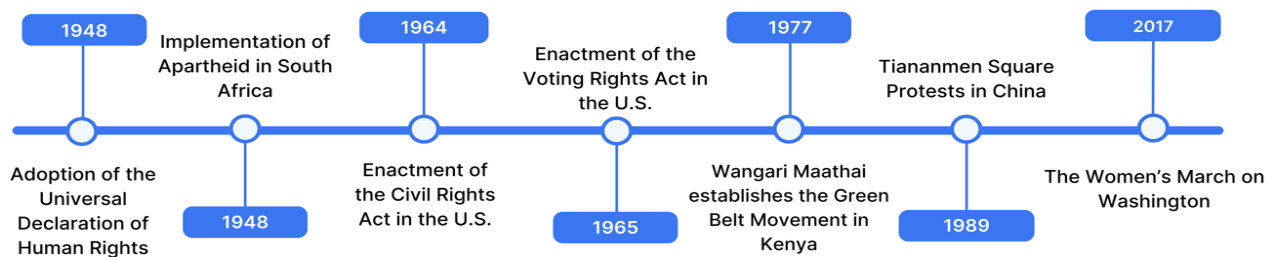
Silicon Valley: Silicon Valley is a region in Northern California known for being a global center for technology and innovation, housing many of the world's largest tech companies and startups. The area has played a crucial role in shaping the modern economy, with its influence on information technology, venture capital, and the digital revolution.

Truman Doctrine: The Truman Doctrine was a foreign policy initiative established in 1947 by President Harry S. Truman, aimed at containing the spread of communism during the early years of the Cold War. It committed the United States to providing political, military, and economic assistance to countries threatened by communist expansion, particularly Greece and Turkey. This doctrine not only defined U.S. foreign policy during the Cold War but also set the stage for American interventionism and alliances around the globe.

Topic 9.5: Calls for Reforms and Responses

The 20th and early 21st centuries marked a profound shift in social dynamics, underscored by a growing focus on human rights. This period saw the challenging of norms regarding race, gender, and religion, with key international agreements and widespread social movements playing pivotal roles in promoting equality and challenging discrimination. The global discourse on rights and justice led to increased political participation and access to opportunities for historically marginalized groups. Overall, this era represents a significant shift towards a more inclusive and equitable global society.

Key Timeline



Timeline of Key Events in Human Rights and Social Movements


Things to Know

Human Rights and Global Movements

The **United Nations** played a pivotal role in advancing human rights.

In 1948, the **Universal Declaration of Human Rights** was created, which outlined fundamental human rights and freedoms. These include the right to life, liberty, freedom of opinion, and equality before the law.

The **United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund (UNICEF)**, created in 1946, focuses on providing humanitarian aid to children in need worldwide.

The **International Court of Justice**, established as the main judicial body of the United Nations, resolves disputes between nations, and gives advisory opinions on issues of international law. 

Global Feminism witnessed significant milestones, such as the First International Women's Day in 1911. The movement expanded globally, influencing policies and societal norms towards gender equality.

The **Civil Rights Act of 1964** in the U.S. was a landmark piece of legislation that outlawed racial segregation in public places and employment discrimination.

The **Voting Rights Act of 1965** aimed to eliminate voting discrimination, especially in the southern United States. It prohibited literacy tests and other discriminatory practices that had been used to disenfranchise African American voters.

Challenges to Apartheid and Racial Inequality

In 1948, the system of **apartheid** was implemented in South Africa.

It legally enforced racial segregation and disenfranchisement of the majority black population, leading to widespread international criticism and internal resistance.

Nelson Mandela was a key figure in the African National Congress, a political organization dedicated to ending racial segregation and discrimination in South Africa.

- His arrest in 1962 and subsequent 27-year imprisonment drew international attention to the injustices of apartheid.
- His release in 1990 and election as President in 1994 marked the dismantling of apartheid.

The **Truth and Reconciliation Commission** was established in post-apartheid South Africa and was tasked with uncovering the truth about human rights violations during apartheid and promoting reconciliation.

Victims shared their experiences, and perpetrators could confess their actions in exchange for possible amnesty.

Cultural and Religious Movements for Rights

The **Negritude Movement**, primarily in French West Africa, emphasized pride in “blackness,” the rejection of colonial authority, and the right to self-determination. Key figures like Léopold Sédar Senghor of Senegal, also an accomplished poet and later president, were central to this movement.

Liberation Theology, a movement within the Catholic Church in Latin America, combined Christian theology with political activism, often focusing on social justice issues such as poverty and human rights.

It became influential in the 1950s and 1960s, interpreting the teachings of Jesus as a call to free people from oppressive social, political, and economic conditions.

Global Feminism and Women’s Rights

On January 21, 2017, one day after Donald Trump’s inauguration as president, the **Women’s March on Washington**, a global protest advocating for women’s rights and other social justice issues, was held in Washington, D.C.

In Kenya in 1977, **Wangari Maathai** started the **Green Belt Movement**, combining environmental conservation with women’s empowerment. It involved women in tree planting to combat deforestation, soil erosion, and water scarcity, while also addressing issues of poverty and women’s rights.

Human Rights Repression and Responses

The **Tiananmen Square Protests** in 1989 in China were sparked by the death of a pro-reform Communist leader. Students and workers gathered to demand political reform but were met with military force, resulting in significant injuries and loss of life.

Minority rights in China, particularly for Tibetans and Uighurs, have been a major point of international concern.

- Issues include religious freedom, cultural preservation, and political autonomy, with tensions often rising due to oppressive and discriminatory government policies.

Environmental Awareness and Action

Earth Day began as a national event in the U.S. to raise public awareness about environmental issues, such as pollution and deforestation.

It has since grown into an international day of action, observed by millions globally, focusing on ecological conservation and sustainable practices.

Greenpeace started as a small group protesting nuclear testing, evolving into a major global organization.

They campaign on issues such as climate change, deforestation, overfishing, and pollution, often employing direct action and bold public campaigns.

Striving for Economic Fairness

In 1989, the **World Fair Trade Organization (WFTO)**, was established.

- It promotes fair trade as a means to alleviate poverty and encourage sustainable development.
- As well as sets standards & supports businesses/organizations in implementing ethical production and trading practices.

Key principles of the WFTO include ensuring fair payment to producers, no child or forced labor, gender equity, good working conditions, and environmentally sustainable practices.

These principles aim to create more equitable global trade systems that benefit marginalized producers and workers. 🌱

Notes and Observations:

Terms to Remember

Term	Definition + Significance
Universal Declaration of Human Rights (1948)	Adopted by the UN, this document set global standards for human rights, affirming the right to life, liberty, and security of person.
Global Feminism	A movement advocating for women's rights and gender equality, highlighted by events like the First International Women's Day and UN conferences.
Civil Rights Act (1965)	U.S. legislation that ended segregation in public places and banned employment discrimination based on race, color, religion, sex, or national origin.
Voting Rights Act (1965)	Aimed at eliminating racial discrimination in voting in the U.S., especially in Southern states.
Apartheid	A system of institutionalized racial segregation and discrimination in South Africa, enforced from 1948 until the early 1990s.
Nelson Mandela	An anti-apartheid revolutionary and political leader in South Africa, whose leadership in the African National Congress and presidency in 1994 were pivotal in dismantling apartheid.
Truth and Reconciliation Commission	Established in post-apartheid South Africa to uncover human rights abuses during apartheid and to promote reconciliation and healing.
Negritude Movement	An Ideological movement developed by Francophone black intellectuals celebrating African culture and heritage.
Liberation Theology	A combination of Catholic and socialist ideology, emphasizing concern for the poor and political liberation for oppressed peoples.
Dalits	A group in India historically affected by caste-based discrimination, with post-independence reforms aimed at improving their status and opportunities.

	Civilization	Civilization	Civilization
SOCIAL Development & transformation of social structures			
POLITICAL Statebuilding			
INTERACTIONS Between humans & the environment			
CULTURAL Development & interaction of cultures			
ECONOMY Creation, expansion and interaction of economic systems			
TECHNOLOGY Adapting for efficiency, comfort, security, and technological advances			

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Notes and Observations:



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