

WORLD HISTORY



© McGraw Hill 2023 all rights reserved. This material is provided for individual evaluation purposes only and may not be downloaded, reproduced or distributed.

**Mc
Graw
Hill**



WORLD HISTORY

Jackson J. Spielvogel, Ph.D.



About the Cover



This image shows a dhow sailing ship off the western coast of India. In use since at least 600 C.E., dhows continue to carry trade goods across the Red Sea, Arabian Sea, and Indian Ocean.



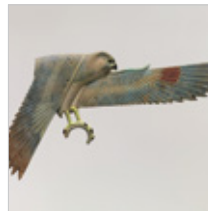
This black and white photo captures workers in a British textile mill in the late nineteenth century. The dangerous work performed in these mills was frequently done by women and girls as young as eight.



Mansa Mūsā (1280–1337) is featured on the 1375 Catalan Atlas. Ruler of the gold-producing medieval African nation of Mali, Mansa Mūsā is believed to have been one of the wealthiest people in history.



A small selection of the Terracotta Army, warrior sculptures left in the tomb of Qin Shihuangdi, the first emperor of China. Thousands of these sculptures were rediscovered when the tomb located by a group of Chinese farmers in 1974 C.E.



This is an ancient Egyptian artifact, designed as a hawk. Ancient Egyptians believed the hawk provided protection.

Cover Credits: Cover: (t to b, l to r) Purchase, Edward S. Harkness Gift, 1926/The Metropolitan Museum of Art; Pierre-Yves Babelon/Moment/Getty Images; gradyreese/E+/Getty Images; Alexander Yates/Moment/Getty Images; incamerastock/Alamy Stock Photo; JT Vintage/Glasshouse Images/Alamy Stock Photo; Scherl/Sueddeutsche Zeitung Photo / Alamy Stock Photo; Ming WU / Alamy Stock Photo; The Art Institute of Chicago, Gift of Martin A. Ryerson



The photo shows ruins of the Incan fortress of Machu Picchu. Built in the Andes Mountains in the fifteenth century, stone blocks were fused together without the use of mortar.

mheducation.com/prek-12



Copyright © 2023 McGraw Hill

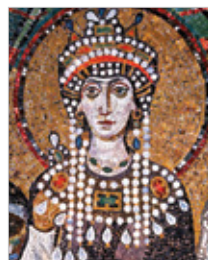
All rights reserved. No part of this publication may be reproduced or distributed in any form or by any means, or stored in a database or retrieval system, without the prior written consent of McGraw Hill, including, but not limited to, network storage or transmission, or broadcast for distance learning.

Send all inquiries to:
McGraw Hill
8787 Orion Place
Columbus, OH 43240

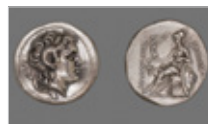
ISBN: 978-0-07-902302-5
MHID: 0-07-902302-9

Printed in the United States of America.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 LWI 25 24 23 22 21



The Byzantine empress Theodora (500–548 C.E.) is shown here in a mosaic of carefully placed colored tiles. Theodora was the wife of Emperor Justinian I and participated in councils for the Holy Roman Empire alongside the emperor.



This photo is of coins from ancient Rome featuring the profile of an emperor and the goddess Minerva. Some Roman emperors acted as if they had god-like authority over their empire.

Author

Jackson Spielvogel, Ph.D., is an associate professor emeritus of history at the Pennsylvania State University. He received his Ph.D. from the Ohio State University, where he specialized in Reformation history under Harold J. Grimm. His articles and reviews have been published in several scholarly publications. He is coauthor (with William Duiker) of *World History*, published in 1994 (8th edition, 2016). Professor Spielvogel has won five major university-wide awards, and in 2000, he became the first winner of the Schreyer Institute's Student Choice Award for innovative and inspired teaching.

Academic Consultants

Ali Akhtar, Ph.D.

Associate Professor
Department of Religious Studies
Bates College
Lewiston, Maine

Clifford Ando, Ph.D.

Department Chair & Professor
Department of Classics
University of Chicago
Chicago, Illinois

David Berger, Ph.D.

Ruth and I. Lewis Gordon Professor of
Jewish History
Dean, Bernard Revel Graduate School
Yeshiva University
New York, New York

Aaron A. Burke, Ph.D.

Professor
Department of
Near Eastern Languages & Cultures
University of California at Los Angeles
Los Angeles, California

Katherine Burke, Ph.D.

Lecturer
Department of Near Eastern Languages & Cultures
University of California at Los Angeles
Los Angeles, California

Tarunjit Butalia, Ph.D.

Assistant Professor
Department of Religious Studies
The Ohio State University
Columbus, Ohio

Shuang Chen, Ph.D.

Associate Professor
Department of History
University of Iowa
Iowa City, Iowa

Robert Greene, Ph.D.

Associate Professor
Department of History
University of Montana
Missoula, Montana

Amy Harris, Ph.D.

Associate Professor
Department of History
Brigham Young University
Provo, Utah

Toby Jones, Ph.D.

Associate Professor
Department of History
Director, Global and Comparative History Master's
Degree Program
Rutgers University
New Brunswick, New Jersey

Purvi Mehta, Ph.D.

Assistant Professor
Department of History
Colorado College
Colorado Springs, Colorado

Rady Roldan-Figueroa, Ph.D.

Associate Professor
Department of Theology
Boston University
Boston, Massachusetts

Academic Consultants

Priya Satia, Ph.D.

Professor
Department of History
Stanford University
Stanford, California

Deepa Sundaram, Ph.D.

Assistant Professor
Department of Religious Studies
University of Denver
Denver, Colorado

Fiona Vernal, Ph.D.

Associate Professor
Department of History
University of Connecticut
Mansfield, Connecticut

Heather Vrana, Ph.D.

Assistant Professor
Department of History
University of Florida
Gainesville, Florida

Dov Waxman, Ph.D.

Professor
Department of Israel Studies
Director of the UCLA Younes and Soraya Nazarian
Center for Israel Studies
University of California at Los Angeles
Los Angeles, California

Program Consultants

Timothy M. Dove, M.A.

Secondary Social Studies Educator
Founding staff member of Phoenix Middle School
Worthington, Ohio

Douglas Fisher, Ph.D.

Professor and Chair of Educational Leadership
San Diego State University
San Diego, California

Linda Keane, M.Ed.

Special Education Resource Teacher
Merrimack Middle School
Merrimack, New Hampshire

Nicole Law, Ph.D.

Professional Learning Author/Consultant
Culturally Responsive and Fortifying Practices
Corwin Professional Learning
Indianapolis, Indiana

Peter Levine, Ph.D.

Lincoln Filene Professor of Citizenship & Public Affairs
Tisch College of Civic Life
Tufts University
Medford, Massachusetts

Emily M. Schell, Ed.D.

Executive Director, California Global Education Project
University of San Diego
San Diego, California

Meena Srinivasan, MA, NBCT

Executive Director, Transformative Educational
Leadership (TEL)

Table of Contents



Historian's Toolkit

LESSONS

01	Introducing The Historian's Toolkit	HT2
02	What is History?	HT5
03	How Does a Historian Work?	HT9
04	How Does a Historian Interpret History?	HT13
05	History and Related Fields	HT17
06	Geographer's Handbook	HT21
07	Reviewing The Historian's Toolkit	HT33



TOPIC 1

Early Humans and Origin of Complex Societies

3000 B.C.E. TO 300 B.C.E.

INTRODUCTION LESSON

01	Introducing Early Humans and Origin of Complex Societies	2
----	--	---

LEARN THE EVENTS LESSON

02	Early Humans and the First Societies	7
----	--------------------------------------	---

INQUIRY ACTIVITY LESSON

03	Turning Point: The Neolithic Revolution	13
	TAKE INFORMED ACTION	16

LEARN THE EVENTS LESSONS

04	The Fertile Crescent	17
05	Ancient Egypt	23
06	Eastern Mediterranean Societies	27

INQUIRY ACTIVITY LESSON

07	Analyzing Sources: Technology in Ancient Daily Life	31
	TAKE INFORMED ACTION	36

REVIEW AND APPLY LESSON

08	Reviewing Early Humans and Origin of Complex Societies	37
----	--	----



TOPIC 2

Ancient South Asia and East Asia

3000 B.C.E. TO 450 C.E.

INTRODUCTION LESSON

- | | | |
|-----------|--|----|
| 01 | Introducing Ancient South Asia and East Asia | 42 |
|-----------|--|----|

LEARN THE EVENTS LESSONS

- | | | |
|-----------|---|----|
| 02 | The Indus, the Huang He, and the Chang Jian Valleys | 47 |
| 03 | The Origins and Traditions of Hinduism | 53 |
| 04 | The Origins and Traditions of Buddhism | 57 |
| 05 | Classical South Asia | 61 |

INQUIRY ACTIVITY LESSON

- | | | |
|-----------|---|----|
| 06 | Understanding Multiple Perspectives: Indian Ocean Trade Complex and the Silk Road | 67 |
| | TAKE INFORMED ACTION | 70 |

LEARN THE EVENTS LESSON

- | | | |
|-----------|-----------------|----|
| 07 | Classical China | 71 |
|-----------|-----------------|----|

INQUIRY ACTIVITY LESSON

- | | | |
|-----------|--|----|
| 08 | Analyzing Sources: Schools of Thought in Classical China | 77 |
| | TAKE INFORMED ACTION | 80 |

REVIEW AND APPLY LESSON

- | | | |
|-----------|--|----|
| 09 | Reviewing Ancient South Asia and East Asia | 81 |
|-----------|--|----|



TOPIC 3

Ancient Greece

1600 B.C.E. TO 130 B.C.E.

INTRODUCTION LESSON

- | | | |
|-----------|----------------------------|----|
| 01 | Introducing Ancient Greece | 86 |
|-----------|----------------------------|----|

LEARN THE EVENTS LESSONS

- | | | |
|-----------|--|-----|
| 02 | Early Greek Societies | 91 |
| 03 | The Greek City-States | 95 |
| 04 | Conflict and Society in Classical Greece | 101 |

INQUIRY ACTIVITY LESSON

- | | | |
|-----------|---|-----|
| 05 | Understanding Multiple Perspectives: Greek Legal Ideas and Philosophy | 107 |
| | TAKE INFORMED ACTION | 112 |

LEARN THE EVENTS LESSON

- | | | |
|-----------|---|-----|
| 06 | Alexander the Great and the Hellenistic Era | 113 |
|-----------|---|-----|

INQUIRY ACTIVITY LESSON

- | | | |
|-----------|--|-----|
| 07 | Analyzing Sources: Ancient Greek Culture | 119 |
| | TAKE INFORMED ACTION | 124 |

REVIEW AND APPLY LESSON

- | | | |
|-----------|--------------------------|-----|
| 08 | Reviewing Ancient Greece | 124 |
|-----------|--------------------------|-----|



TOPIC 4

Ancient Rome

600 B.C.E. TO 800 C.E.

INTRODUCTION LESSON

- | | | |
|-----------|--------------------------|-----|
| 01 | Introducing Ancient Rome | 130 |
|-----------|--------------------------|-----|

LEARN THE EVENTS LESSONS

- | | | |
|-----------|-------------------------|-----|
| 02 | The Roman Republic | 135 |
| 03 | From Republic to Empire | 141 |
| 04 | The Roman Empire | 147 |

INQUIRY ACTIVITY LESSON

- | | | |
|-----------|---|-----|
| 05 | Analyzing Sources: Roman Law and Western Heritage | 153 |
| | TAKE INFORMED ACTION | 158 |

LEARN THE EVENTS LESSONS

- | | | |
|-----------|--|-----|
| 06 | Early Christianity | 159 |
| 07 | From the Roman to the Byzantine Empire | 165 |

INQUIRY ACTIVITY LESSON

- | | | |
|-----------|--|-----|
| 08 | Understanding Multiple Perspectives: Th Legacy of the Byzantine Empire | 171 |
| | TAKE INFORMED ACTION | 174 |

REVIEW AND APPLY LESSON

- | | | |
|-----------|------------------------|-----|
| 09 | Reviewing Ancient Rome | 175 |
|-----------|------------------------|-----|



TOPIC 5

The Islamic World

600 C.E. TO 1400 C.E.

INTRODUCTION LESSON

- | | | |
|-----------|-------------------------------|-----|
| 01 | Introducing The Islamic World | 180 |
|-----------|-------------------------------|-----|

LEARN THE EVENTS LESSONS

- | | | |
|-----------|------------------------------------|-----|
| 02 | Islam and the First Muslims | 185 |
| 03 | The Arab Empire and Its Successors | 189 |
| 04 | Islamic Civilization | 195 |

INQUIRY ACTIVITY LESSON

- | | | |
|-----------|--|-----|
| 05 | Understanding Multiple Perspectives: Islam and Different Societies | 201 |
| | TAKE INFORMED ACTION | 206 |

REVIEW AND APPLY LESSON

- | | | |
|-----------|-----------------------------|-----|
| 06 | Reviewing The Islamic World | 207 |
|-----------|-----------------------------|-----|



TOPIC 6

Medieval Europe

800 TO 1300 C.E.

INTRODUCTION LESSON

- | | | |
|-----------|-----------------------------|-----|
| 01 | Introducing Medieval Europe | 212 |
|-----------|-----------------------------|-----|

LEARN THE EVENTS LESSONS

- | | | |
|-----------|--|-----|
| 02 | Charlemagne and Early Medieval Europe | 217 |
| 03 | Feudalism | 221 |
| 04 | Economy and Culture in Medieval Europe | 227 |
| 05 | Medieval Christianity | 233 |

INQUIRY ACTIVITY LESSON

- | | | |
|-----------|---|-----|
| 06 | Understanding Multiple Perspectives: The Crusades | 239 |
| | TAKE INFORMED ACTION | 242 |

LEARN THE EVENTS LESSON

- | | | |
|-----------|-----------------------------|-----|
| 07 | Medieval Kingdoms in Europe | 243 |
|-----------|-----------------------------|-----|

INQUIRY ACTIVITY LESSON

- | | | |
|-----------|------------------------------------|-----|
| 08 | Analyzing Sources: The Magna Carta | 249 |
| | TAKE INFORMED ACTION | 252 |

REVIEW AND APPLY LESSON

- | | | |
|-----------|---------------------------|-----|
| 09 | Reviewing Medieval Europe | 253 |
|-----------|---------------------------|-----|



TOPIC 7

Medieval South Asia and East Asia

200 TO 1400 C.E.

INTRODUCTION LESSON

- | | | |
|-----------|---|-----|
| 01 | Introducing Medieval South Asia and East Asia | 258 |
|-----------|---|-----|

LEARN THE EVENTS LESSON

- | | | |
|-----------|-------------------------------------|-----|
| 02 | Tang and Song China and the Mongols | 263 |
|-----------|-------------------------------------|-----|

INQUIRY ACTIVITY LESSON

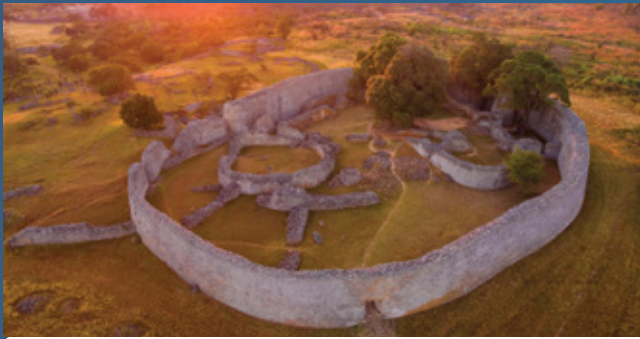
- | | | |
|-----------|--|-----|
| 03 | Understanding Multiple Perspectives: The Mongols | 271 |
| | TAKE INFORMED ACTION | 276 |

LEARN THE EVENTS LESSONS

- | | | |
|-----------|-----------------------|-----|
| 04 | Early Japan and Korea | 277 |
| 05 | Medieval South Asia | 283 |

REVIEW AND APPLY LESSON

- | | | |
|-----------|---|-----|
| 06 | Reviewing The Medieval South Asia and East Asia | 287 |
|-----------|---|-----|



TOPIC 8 Early Africa

500 TO 1500 C.E.

INTRODUCTION LESSON

- | | | |
|-----------|--------------------------|-----|
| 01 | Introducing Early Africa | 292 |
|-----------|--------------------------|-----|

LEARN THE EVENTS LESSONS

- | | | |
|-----------|--|-----|
| 02 | African Society and Culture | 297 |
| 03 | Kingdoms and States in East and West Africa | 303 |
| 04 | Kingdoms and States in Central and Southern Africa | 307 |

INQUIRY ACTIVITY LESSON

- | | | |
|-----------|------------------------------------|-----|
| 05 | Analyzing Sources: The Slave Trade | 311 |
| | TAKE INFORMED ACTION | 314 |

REVIEW AND APPLY LESSON

- | | | |
|-----------|------------------------|-----|
| 06 | Reviewing Early Africa | 315 |
|-----------|------------------------|-----|



TOPIC 9 The Early Americas

1200 B.C.E. TO 1500 C.E.

INTRODUCTION LESSON

- | | | |
|-----------|--------------------------------|-----|
| 01 | Introducing the Early Americas | 320 |
|-----------|--------------------------------|-----|

LEARN THE EVENTS LESSONS

- | | | |
|-----------|------------------------|-----|
| 02 | Mesoamerican Societies | 325 |
| 03 | Andean Societies | 331 |

INQUIRY ACTIVITY LESSON

- | | | |
|-----------|---|-----|
| 04 | Understanding Multiple Perspectives:
Daily Life in Mesoamerican and Andean Societies | 335 |
| | TAKE INFORMED ACTION | 338 |

REVIEW AND APPLY LESSON

- | | | |
|-----------|------------------------------|-----|
| 05 | Reviewing the Early Americas | 339 |
|-----------|------------------------------|-----|



TOPIC 10

The Renaissance and Reformation

1350 TO 1600 C.E.

INTRODUCTION LESSON

- | | | |
|-----------|---|-----|
| 01 | Introducing the Renaissance and Reformation | 344 |
|-----------|---|-----|

LEARN THE EVENTS LESSONS

- | | | |
|-----------|---|-----|
| 02 | Italy and the Foundation of the Renaissance | 349 |
| 03 | The Renaissance | 355 |

INQUIRY ACTIVITY LESSON

- | | | |
|-----------|---|-----|
| 04 | Analyzing Sources: Art of the Renaissance | 361 |
| | TAKE INFORMED ACTION | 366 |

LEARN THE EVENTS LESSON

- | | | |
|-----------|----------------------------|-----|
| 05 | The Protestant Reformation | 367 |
|-----------|----------------------------|-----|

REVIEW AND APPLY LESSON

- | | | |
|-----------|---|-----|
| 06 | Reviewing the Renaissance and Reformation | 373 |
|-----------|---|-----|



TOPIC 11

Asian Empires

1450 TO 1800 C.E.

INTRODUCTION LESSON

- | | | |
|-----------|---------------------------|-----|
| 01 | Introducing Asian Empires | 378 |
|-----------|---------------------------|-----|

LEARN THE EVENTS LESSON

- | | | |
|-----------|-------------------------------|-----|
| 02 | The Ottomans and the Safavids | 383 |
|-----------|-------------------------------|-----|

INQUIRY ACTIVITY LESSON

- | | | |
|-----------|---|-----|
| 03 | Turning Point: The Fall of Constantinople | 389 |
| | TAKE INFORMED ACTION | 392 |

LEARN THE EVENTS LESSON

- | | | |
|-----------|---------------------------------|-----|
| 04 | South Asia and the Mogul Empire | 393 |
| 05 | The Sikh Faith | 397 |

INQUIRY ACTIVITY LESSON

- | | | |
|-----------|--|-----|
| 06 | Analyzing Sources: Daily Life in the Asian Empires | 401 |
| | TAKE INFORMED ACTION | 404 |

LEARN THE EVENTS LESSONS

- | | | |
|-----------|--------------------------------------|-----|
| 07 | The Ming and Qing Dynasties of China | 405 |
| 08 | Japan Under the Shoguns | 411 |

REVIEW AND APPLY LESSON

- | | | |
|-----------|-------------------------|-----|
| 09 | Reviewing Asian Empires | 415 |
|-----------|-------------------------|-----|



TOPIC 12

Exploration and Colonization

1500 TO 1800 C.E.

INTRODUCTION LESSON

- | | | |
|-----------|--|-----|
| 01 | Introducing Exploration and Colonization | 420 |
|-----------|--|-----|

LEARN THE EVENTS LESSONS

- | | | |
|-----------|--|-----|
| 02 | Foundations of European Exploration and Colonization | 425 |
| 03 | Impact of European Colonization | 431 |
| 04 | The Commercial Revolution | 437 |

INQUIRY ACTIVITY LESSON

- | | | |
|-----------|---------------------------------------|-----|
| 05 | Turning Point: The Columbian Exchange | 441 |
| | TAKE INFORMED ACTION | 444 |

REVIEW AND APPLY LESSON

- | | | |
|-----------|--|-----|
| 06 | Reviewing Exploration and Colonization | 445 |
|-----------|--|-----|



TOPIC 13

Absolutism, the Enlightenment, and Revolution

1500 TO 1800 C.E.

INTRODUCTION LESSON

- | | | |
|-----------|---|-----|
| 01 | Introducing Absolutism, the Enlightenment, and Revolution | 450 |
|-----------|---|-----|

LEARN THE EVENTS LESSON

- | | | |
|-----------|-------------------------------|-----|
| 02 | The Rise of Nation States | 455 |
| 03 | War and Revolution in England | 461 |
| 04 | Absolutism | 465 |

INQUIRY ACTIVITY LESSON

- | | | |
|-----------|---|-----|
| 05 | Understanding Multiple Perspectives: Thoughts on Government | 471 |
| | TAKE INFORMED ACTION | 474 |

LEARN THE EVENTS LESSON

- | | | |
|-----------|---------------------------|-----|
| 06 | The Scientific Revolution | 475 |
|-----------|---------------------------|-----|

INQUIRY ACTIVITY LESSON

- | | | |
|-----------|--|-----|
| 07 | Analyzing Sources: European Art and Literature | 481 |
| | TAKE INFORMED ACTION | 486 |

LEARN THE EVENTS LESSON

- | | | |
|-----------|-------------------|-----|
| 08 | The Enlightenment | 487 |
|-----------|-------------------|-----|

INQUIRY ACTIVITY LESSON

- | | | |
|-----------|---|-----|
| 09 | Analyzing Sources: Ideas of the Enlightenment | 493 |
| | TAKE INFORMED ACTION | 498 |

TOPIC 13

Absolutism, the Enlightenment, and Revolution, *continued*

LEARN THE EVENTS LESSON

- | | | |
|----|-------------------------|-----|
| 10 | The American Revolution | 499 |
| 11 | The French Revolution | 503 |

INQUIRY ACTIVITY LESSON

- | | | |
|----|--|-----|
| 12 | Turning Point: Comparing the Revolutions | 509 |
| | TAKE INFORMED ACTION | 514 |

LEARN THE EVENTS LESSON

- | | | |
|----|-------------------------------|-----|
| 13 | The Rise and Fall of Napoleon | 515 |
|----|-------------------------------|-----|

REVIEW AND APPLY LESSON

- | | | |
|----|---|-----|
| 14 | Reviewing Absolutism, the Enlightenment, and Revolution | 521 |
|----|---|-----|



TOPIC 14

Nationalism

1815 TO 1900 C.E.

INTRODUCTION LESSON

- | | | |
|----|-------------------------|-----|
| 01 | Introducing Nationalism | 526 |
|----|-------------------------|-----|

LEARN THE EVENTS LESSONS

- | | | |
|----|---------------------------------------|-----|
| 02 | Nationalism and Political Revolutions | 531 |
| 03 | Unification and Reform Movements | 537 |

INQUIRY ACTIVITY LESSON

- | | | |
|----|--------------------------------|-----|
| 04 | Analyzing Sources: Romanticism | 543 |
| | TAKE INFORMED ACTION | 546 |

LEARN THE EVENTS LESSON

- | | | |
|----|----------------------------------|-----|
| 05 | Nation Building in Latin America | 547 |
|----|----------------------------------|-----|

REVIEW AND APPLY LESSON

- | | | |
|----|-----------------------|-----|
| 06 | Reviewing Nationalism | 551 |
|----|-----------------------|-----|



TOPIC 15

The Industrial Revolution and Mass Society

1800 TO 1914 C.E.

INTRODUCTION LESSON

- 01 Introducing The Industrial Revolution and Mass Society 556

LEARN THE EVENTS LESSONS

- 02 The Industrial Revolution 561
- 03 The Impact of Industrialization 565
- 04 The Emergence of Mass Society 571

INQUIRY ACTIVITY LESSON

- 05 Understanding Multiple Perspectives: Reform Movements 577
- TAKE INFORMED ACTION 580

LEARN THE EVENTS LESSONS

- 06 The Nation State and Democracy 581
- 07 The Rise of Modern Japan 585

INQUIRY ACTIVITY LESSON

- 08 Turning Point: The Impact of Industrialization 589
- TAKE INFORMED ACTION 594

REVIEW AND APPLY LESSON

- 09 Reviewing The Industrial Revolution and Mass Society 595



TOPIC 16

Imperialism

1800 TO 1914 C.E.

INTRODUCTION LESSON

- 01 Introducing Imperialism 600

LEARN THE EVENTS LESSONS

- 02 Imperialism and Colonial Rule in Southeast Asia 605
- 03 Empire Building in Africa 611
- 04 British Rule in India 617

INQUIRY ACTIVITY LESSON

- 05 Analyzing Sources: European Perspectives on Imperialism 621
- TAKE INFORMED ACTION 624

LEARN THE EVENTS LESSONS

- 06 Imperialism in Latin America 625
- 07 Imperialism and Revolution in China 631

INQUIRY ACTIVITY LESSON

- 08 Understanding Multiple Perspectives: Resistance Movements 637
- TAKE INFORMED ACTION 640

REVIEW AND APPLY LESSON

- 09 Reviewing Imperialism 641



TOPIC 17

World War I and its Aftermath

1914 TO 1939 C.E.

INTRODUCTION LESSON

- | | | |
|-----------|---|-----|
| 01 | Introducing World War I and its Aftermath | 646 |
|-----------|---|-----|

LEARN THE EVENTS LESSON

- | | | |
|-----------|-----------------------|-----|
| 02 | Causes of World War I | 651 |
| 03 | World War I | 655 |

INQUIRY ACTIVITY LESSON

- | | | |
|-----------|--|-----|
| 04 | Analyzing Sources: The Armenian Genocide | 661 |
| | TAKE INFORMED ACTION | 666 |

LEARN THE EVENTS LESSONS

- | | | |
|-----------|-----------------------------|-----|
| 05 | The Russian Revolution | 667 |
| 06 | Consequences of World War I | 671 |

INQUIRY ACTIVITY LESSON

- | | | |
|-----------|--|-----|
| 07 | Understanding Multiple Perspectives: Impact of World War I | 677 |
| | TAKE INFORMED ACTION | 682 |

LEARN THE EVENTS LESSON

- | | | |
|-----------|-----------------------------|-----|
| 08 | The Great Depression | 683 |
| 09 | The Rise of Totalitarianism | 689 |

INQUIRY ACTIVITY LESSON

- | | | |
|-----------|--|-----|
| 10 | Understanding Multiple Perspectives: Reactions to the Great Depression | 695 |
| | TAKE INFORMED ACTION | 698 |

REVIEW AND APPLY LESSON

- | | | |
|-----------|---|-----|
| 11 | Reviewing World War I and its Aftermath | 699 |
|-----------|---|-----|



TOPIC 18

World War II

1939 TO 1945 C.E.

INTRODUCTION LESSON

- | | | |
|-----------|--------------------------|-----|
| 01 | Introducing World War II | 704 |
|-----------|--------------------------|-----|

LEARN THE EVENTS LESSON

- | | | |
|-----------|--------------|-----|
| 02 | World War II | 709 |
|-----------|--------------|-----|

INQUIRY ACTIVITY LESSON

- | | | |
|-----------|--|-----|
| 03 | Understanding Multiple Perspectives: Motivations of the Great Powers | 717 |
| | TAKE INFORMED ACTION | 720 |

LEARN THE EVENTS LESSONS

- | | | |
|-----------|----------------|-----|
| 04 | The Home Front | 721 |
| 05 | The Holocaust | 727 |

INQUIRY ACTIVITY LESSON

- | | | |
|-----------|--|-----|
| 06 | Turning Point: The End of World War II | 731 |
| | TAKE INFORMED ACTION | 736 |

LEARN THE EVENTS LESSON

- | | | |
|-----------|--------------------------------------|-----|
| 07 | The End and Outcomes of World War II | 737 |
|-----------|--------------------------------------|-----|

REVIEW AND APPLY LESSON

- | | | |
|-----------|------------------------|-----|
| 08 | Reviewing World War II | 743 |
|-----------|------------------------|-----|



TOPIC 19

Independence and New Challenges

1919 TO 1993

INTRODUCTION LESSON

- | | | |
|-----------|---|-----|
| 01 | Introducing Independence and New Challenges | 748 |
|-----------|---|-----|

LEARN THE EVENTS LESSONS

- | | | |
|-----------|--|-----|
| 02 | South Asian and Southeast Asian Independence | 753 |
| 03 | The Middle East | 754 |

INQUIRY ACTIVITY LESSON

- | | | |
|-----------|-------------------------------|-----|
| 04 | Turning Point: Decolonization | 767 |
| | TAKE INFORMED ACTION | 770 |

LEARN THE EVENTS LESSON

- | | | |
|-----------|----------------------|-----|
| 05 | African Independence | 771 |
|-----------|----------------------|-----|

INQUIRY ACTIVITY LESSON

- | | | |
|-----------|---|-----|
| 06 | Understanding Multiple Perspectives: Voices of the Independence Movements | 777 |
| | TAKE INFORMED ACTION | 780 |

LEARN THE EVENTS LESSON

- | | | |
|-----------|---------------|-----|
| 07 | Latin America | 781 |
|-----------|---------------|-----|

REVIEW AND APPLY LESSON

- | | | |
|-----------|---|-----|
| 08 | Reviewing Independence and New Challenges | 789 |
|-----------|---|-----|



TOPIC 20

The Cold War

1945 TO 1991

INTRODUCTION LESSON

- | | | |
|-----------|--------------------------|-----|
| 01 | Introducing The Cold War | 794 |
|-----------|--------------------------|-----|

LEARN THE EVENTS LESSONS

- | | | |
|-----------|----------------------------|-----|
| 02 | The Origin of the Cold War | 799 |
| 03 | Civil War in China | 805 |
| 04 | Life During the Cold War | 811 |
| 05 | Cold War Conflicts | 817 |

INQUIRY ACTIVITY LESSON

- | | | |
|-----------|---|-----|
| 06 | Understanding Multiple Perspectives: Proxy Wars | 823 |
| | TAKE INFORMED ACTION | 826 |

LEARN THE EVENTS LESSONS

- | | | |
|-----------|-------------------------|-----|
| 07 | The End of the Cold War | 827 |
|-----------|-------------------------|-----|

INQUIRY ACTIVITY LESSON

- | | | |
|-----------|--|-----|
| 08 | Turning Point: The Fall of the Berlin Wall | 831 |
| | TAKE INFORMED ACTION | 834 |

REVIEW AND APPLY LESSON

- | | | |
|-----------|------------------------|-----|
| 09 | Reviewing The Cold War | 835 |
|-----------|------------------------|-----|



TOPIC 21 The Post Cold War World

1989 TO PRESENT

INTRODUCTION LESSON

- | | | |
|-----------|-------------------------------------|-----|
| 01 | Introducing the Post Cold War World | 840 |
|-----------|-------------------------------------|-----|

LEARN THE EVENTS LESSONS

- | | | |
|-----------|----------------------------|-----|
| 02 | Europe and North America | 845 |
| 03 | Asia and the Pacific | 853 |
| 04 | Latin America | 859 |
| 05 | The Middle East and Africa | 865 |

INQUIRY ACTIVITY LESSON

- | | | |
|-----------|--|-----|
| 06 | Understanding Multiple Perspectives:
Human Rights in the Modern World | 871 |
| | TAKE INFORMED ACTION | 874 |

INQUIRY ACTIVITY LESSON

- | | | |
|-----------|---|-----|
| 07 | Analyzing Sources: Contemporary
Activism | 875 |
| | TAKE INFORMED ACTION | 878 |

REVIEW AND APPLY LESSON

- | | | |
|-----------|-----------------------------------|-----|
| 08 | Reviewing the Post Cold War World | 879 |
|-----------|-----------------------------------|-----|



TOPIC 22 Contemporary Issues

1991 TO PRESENT

INTRODUCTION LESSON

- | | | |
|-----------|---------------------------------|-----|
| 01 | Introducing Contemporary Issues | 884 |
|-----------|---------------------------------|-----|

LEARN THE EVENTS LESSON

- | | | |
|-----------|----------------------|-----|
| 02 | Political Challenges | 889 |
|-----------|----------------------|-----|

INQUIRY ACTIVITY LESSON

- | | | |
|-----------|------------------------------|-----|
| 03 | Analyzing Sources: Terrorism | 895 |
| | TAKE INFORMED ACTION | 898 |

LEARN THE EVENTS LESSONS

- | | | |
|-----------|---------------------|-----|
| 04 | Social Challenges | 899 |
| 05 | Economic Challenges | 905 |

INQUIRY ACTIVITY LESSON

- | | | |
|-----------|---|-----|
| 06 | Understanding Multiple Perspectives:
Globalization | 911 |
| | TAKE INFORMED ACTION | 914 |

LEARN THE EVENTS LESSON

- | | | |
|-----------|---|-----|
| 07 | Science, Technology, and
the Environment | 915 |
|-----------|---|-----|

REVIEW AND APPLY LESSON

- | | | |
|-----------|-------------------------------|-----|
| 08 | Reviewing Contemporary Issues | 921 |
|-----------|-------------------------------|-----|



Reference

Reference Atlas	925
World Religions Handbook	940
Glossary/Glosario	962
Index	992

Primary and Secondary Sources

TOPIC 1

Christopher Woods, <i>Visible Language</i> , 201	32
André Parrot and Stuart Gilbert, <i>The Arts of Assyria</i> , 1961	33
John Derbyshire, <i>Unknown Quantity: A Real and Imaginary History of Algebra</i> , 2006	34
Maitland A. Edey, <i>The Sea Traders, Time-Life Books</i> , 1974	35
Bruce G. Trigger, <i>Early Civilizations: Ancient Egypt in Context</i> , 1993	36
“Great Hymn to Aten”	40
The Code of Hammurabi	40

TOPIC 2

Chandogya Upanishad, part of the <i>Sama Veda Brahmana</i>	53
<i>Bhagavad Gita</i>	55
Dhammapada 1.5	60
<i>Inscriptions of Asoka</i> , 1925	62
<i>The Imperial Guptas</i>	63
<i>Buddhist Records of the Western World</i>	64
<i>Mahabharata</i>	65
Frances Wood, <i>The Silk Road: Two Thousand Years in the Heart of Asia</i> , 2002	69
Richard Bulliet et al., <i>The Earth and Its Peoples: A Global History</i> , 1997	69
<i>The Periplus of the Erythraean Sea: Travel and Trade in the Indian Ocean by a Merchant of the First Century</i> , translated by Wilfred H. Schoff, 1912	70
Laozi, <i>Tao Te Ching</i>	73
John W. Head, <i>China's Legal Soul</i> , 2009	78
Confucius, <i>The Analects of Confucius</i> , edited by William Soothill, 1910	78
Bruce R. Linnell, <i>Dao De Jing by Lao Zi: A Minimalist Translation</i>	79
C. Scott Littleton, <i>Eastern Wisdom: An Illustrated Guide to the Religions and Philosophies of the East</i> , 1996	80

TOPIC 3

Achilles in the <i>Iliad</i>	94
Herodotus, <i>The History of Herodotus</i> , Trans. by George Rawlinson, 1910	108
Plato, <i>The Dialogues of Plato</i> , translated by Benjamin Jowett, 1875	109

Charles Waldstein, <i>Funeral Orations in Stone and Word</i> , 1892	110
Plato, <i>The Republic of Plato</i> , translated by Benjamin Jowett, 1888	111
Aristotle, <i>The Politics of Aristotle</i> , translated by Benjamin Jowett, 1885	112
Vitruvius, <i>De architectura</i> , Book IX	118
Sophocles, <i>The Antigone of Sophocles</i> , edited by Sir Richard Jebb, 1891	122
Thucydides, <i>The Peloponnesian War</i> , trans. Richard Crawley, 1874	123
Gilbert Murray, <i>The Agamemnon of Aeschylus</i> , 1920	124

TOPIC 4

Livy, <i>The Early History of Rome</i> , translated Aubrey De Selincourt	138
Sallust, J. C. Rolfe, trans., 1921	143
Florus, <i>Epitome of Roman History</i>	144
Juvenal, <i>The Sixteen Satires</i>	152
<i>Fragment of the Laws of the Twelve Tables, in The Library of Original Sources</i> , translated by Nina E. Weston, Eds. Oliver Thatcher, 1907	154
Susan Ford Wiltshire, <i>Greece, Rome, and the Bill of Rights</i> , 1992	154
Marcus Tullius Cicero, <i>The Political Works of Marcus Tullius Cicero: Comprising his Treatise on the Commonwealth; and his Treatise on the Laws</i> , translated by Francis Barham, 1842	155
Gaius, <i>The Four Commentaries of Gaius on the Institutes of the Civil Law</i> , translated by S.P. Scott, 1932	156
Titus Livius (Livy), <i>The History of Rome</i> , translated by George Baker, 1852	156
Russ VerSteeg, <i>The Essentials of Greek and Roman Law</i> , 2010	157
Max Radin, “Roman Concepts of Equality,” <i>Political Science Quarterly</i> , 1923	158
Frances Dvornik, “The Significance of the Missions of Cyril and Methodius,” <i>Slavic Review</i> , 1964	172
Beate Dignas and Engelbert Winter, <i>Rome and Persia in Late Antiquity: Neighbours and Rivals</i> , 2007	172
Thomas M. Jones, “East African Influences Upon the Early Byzantine Empire,” <i>The Journal of Negro History</i> , 1958	173

- Liutprand of Cremona**, *Report of his Mission to Constantinople, Select Historical Documents of the Middle Ages*, Trans. by Ernest F. Henderson, 1903. 174
- Diodorus of Sicily**, *Slaves and Slavery in Ancient Rome*, translated by Zvi Yavetz, 1988. 178

TOPIC 5

- Hossein Esmaeili**, Irmgard Marboe and Javaid Rehman, *The Rule of Law, Freedom of Expression and Islamic Law*, 2007 202
- Tim Mackintosh-Smith**, *Arabs: A 3,000-Year History of Peoples, Tribes and Empires*, 2019 . . . 202
- Johan Elverskog**, *Buddhism and Islam on the Silk Road*, 2010. 203
- Ali Ameer**, *History of the Saracens, in Readings in Ancient History: Illustrative Extracts from the Sources*, Vol. I, Eds. William Stearns Davis, 1912–1913. 203
- Ibn Battuta**, *Travels in Asia and Africa 1325–1354*, translated by H. A. R. Gibb, 1929 204
- Ibn Fadlan**, *Ibn Fadlan and the Land of Darkness: Arab Travellers in the Far North*, translated by Paul Lunde and Caroline E.M. Stone, 2011 . . . 205
- R.A. Fletcher**, *Moorish Spain*, 1993 205
- Rafael Altamira**, *A History of Spanish Civilization*, 1930 206

TOPIC 6

- A Source Book for Mediaeval History*. 223
- Bernard of Clairvaux** 237
- Helen J. Nicholson**, *The Crusades*, 2004. 240
- Anonymous**, *Gesta francorum et aliorum Hierosolymitanorum (The Deeds of the Franks)*, in *The First Crusade: The Accounts of Eye-witnesses and Participants*, 1921 240
- Fulk (or Fulcher) of Chartres**, *Gesta Francorum Jerusalem Expugnantium (The Deeds of the Franks Who Attacked Jerusalem)*, in *Parallel Source Problems in Medieval History*, Frederick Duncalf and August C. Krey, eds., 1912. 241
- Christopher Tyerman**, *Fighting for Christendom: Holy War and the Crusades*, 2004. 242
- Magna Carta**, ed. by David Carpenter, 2015 250
- Danny Danziger and John Gillingham**, *1215: The Year of Magna Carta*, 2003. 250
- Charles Henry Browning**, *The Magna Charta Barons and Their American Descendants with the Pedigrees of the Founders of the Orders of Runnymede Deduced from the Sureties for the Enforcement of the Statutes of the Magna Charta of King John*, 1898 251

- Susan Ford Wiltshire**, *Greece, Rome, and the Bill of Rights*, 1992 251
- A.E. Dick Howard**, *The Road from Runnymede: Magna Carta and Constitutionalism in America*, 1968 252
- Ibn Abd-el-Hakem**, *History of the Conquest of Spain*, trans. by John Harris Jones, 1858 . . . 256

TOPIC 7

- Robert Marshall**, *Storm from the East*, 1993. 272
- David Morgan**, *The Mongols*, 1986 272
- Dana J. H. Pittard**, *Thirteenth Century Mongol Warfare: Classical Military Strategy or Operational Art?*, 1994 273
- Translated from Marco Polo by Colonel Henry Yule**, *The Book of Ser Marco Polo, the Venetian, Concerning the Kingdoms and Marvels of the East*, 1871. 273
- Francis Balducci Pegolotti**, *Pratica della Mercatura* [Merchant's Handbook], excerpted from *Cathay and the Way Thither; Being a Collection of Medieval Notices of China*, translated by Henry Yule, 1866 275
- Rashīd al-Dīn**, *The Successors of Genghis Khan*, translated by John Andrew Boyle, 1971. 275
- Kublai Khan**, excerpted from *Khubilai Khan's Lost Fleet: In Search of a Legendary Armada*, by James P. Delgado, 2008. 276
- The Book of Duarte Barbosa*. 285

TOPIC 8

- William Gervase Clarence-Smith**, *Islam and the Abolition of Slavery*, 2006 312
- Paul E. Lovejoy**, *Transformations in Slavery: A History of Slavery in Africa*, 2000. 312
- Olaudah Equiano**, *The Interesting Narrative of the Life of Olaudah Equiano*, 1794. 313
- John Newton**, *Thoughts Upon the African Slave Trade*, 1788 313
- Herbert S. Klein and Francisco Vidal Luna**, *Slavery in Brazil*, 2010. 314

TOPIC 9

- Lynn V. Foster**, *Handbook to Life in the Ancient Maya World*, 2005 336
- Jeremy A. Sabloff**, *The Cities of Ancient Mexico: Reconstructing a Lost World*, 1989. 336
- Hernán Cortés**, letter to Emperor Charles V, from *The Library of Original Sources*, Vol. V, Oliver J. Thatcher, ed., 1907. 337
- Barbara A. Somervill**, *Empire of the Incas*, 2009 . . 338

TOPIC 10

Niccolò Machiavelli, <i>The Prince</i>	354
Giorgio Vasari, <i>Lives of the Most Eminent Painters Sculptors & Architects</i> , Vol. 2, 1912.	362
Christy Anderson, <i>Renaissance Architecture</i> , 2013	362
Martin Luther, 1529, composite translation from the Pennsylvania Lutheran Church Book, 1868.	366
Desiderius Erasmus, <i>In Praise of Folly</i>	368
Petrarch, <i>the First Modern Scholar and Man of Letters</i> , Francesco Petrarca, Ed. James Harvey Robinson	376

TOPIC 11

Roger Crowley, <i>1453: The Holy War for Constantinople and the Clash of Islam and the West</i> , 2005	390
Michael Angold, <i>The Fall of Constantinople to the Ottomans: Context and Consequences</i> , 2014	391
Steven Runciman, <i>The Fall of Constantinople 1453, 1965</i>	392
Guru Granth Sahib	398
Stephen F. Dale, <i>The Muslim Empires of the Ottomans, Safavids, and Mughals</i> , 2010.	402
Zachary Karabell, <i>Peace Be Upon You: The Story of Muslim, Christian, and Jewish Coexistence</i> , 2007.	402
Virginia H. Aksan, <i>Ottoman Political Writing, 1768–1808</i> , 1993.	403
Abraham Eraly, <i>The Mughal World: Life in India's Last Golden Age</i> , 2007	403
Alexander Knysh, <i>Islam in Historical Perspective</i> , 2017	404

TOPIC 12

Bartolomé de las Casas, from <i>The Devastation of the Indies: a Brief Account</i>	432
Afonso of Congo, from a letter to the king of Portugal, 1526	435
Bartolomé de las Casas, <i>An Account, Much Abbreviated, of the Destruction of the Indies, with Related Texts</i> , trans. Andrew Hurley, 2003	442
Alfred W. Crosby, <i>The Columbian Exchange: Biological and Cultural Consequences of 1492</i> , 1972	444

TOPIC 13

Edict of Nantes, 1598	458
Treaty of Westphalia, section CXVII	460
The English Bill of Rights	463

Cardinal Richelieu	465
Louis XIV, quoted in <i>Princes and Peoples: France and the British Isles, 1620–1714</i>	466
Thomas Hobbes, <i>Leviathan</i> , 1651.	472
John Locke, <i>Two Treatises of Government</i> , 1690	472
William Beik, <i>Louis XIV and Absolutism: A Brief Study with Documents</i> , 2000	473
English Bill of Rights, 1689	473
Catherine II, <i>The Grand Instructions to the Commissioners Appointed to Frame a New Code of Laws for the Russian Empire</i> , translated by Michael Tatischeff, 1768	474
Isaac Newton, <i>Principia</i> , 1687	477
<i>Observations Upon Experimental Philosophy</i>	478
Wylie Sypher, <i>Four Stages of Renaissance Style: Transformations in Art and Literature 1400–1700</i> , 1955	482
William Shakespeare, 1603, in <i>The Plays of William, Shakespeare, Accurately Printed From the Text of the Corrected Copy Left by the Late George Steevens, Esq.</i> , 1805	485
Frank Kermode, <i>The Age of Shakespeare</i> , 2004	485
Miguel de Cervantes, <i>Don Quixote</i> , trans. John Ormsby, ed. Mabel Wheaton, 1893.	486
Baron de Montesquieu, <i>The Spirit of the Laws</i> , 1748, translated by Thomas Nugent.	494
Jean-Jacques Rousseau, <i>The Social Contract & Discourses</i> , 1762, translated by G.D.H Cole	494
John Locke, <i>Two Treatises of Government</i> , 1689	495
Mary Wollstonecraft, <i>A Vindication of the Rights of Woman with Strictures on Political and Moral Subjects</i> , 1792	495
Adam Smith, <i>An Inquiry into the Nature and Causes of the Wealth of Nations</i> , 1776	496
Voltaire, <i>Candide</i> , 1759.	496
Isaac Newton, <i>Letter to the Royal Society</i> , 1671.	497
René Descartes, <i>Discourse on the Method of Rightly Conducting the Reason and Seeking for Truth in the Sciences</i> , 1637, translated by Elizabeth S. Haldane and G. R. T. Ross	497
John M. Dunn, <i>The Enlightenment</i> , 1999	498
Thomas Paine, <i>The Political and Miscellaneous Works of Thomas Paine</i>	500
Charles Talbot, Earl of Shrewsbury, et. al., <i>Invitation to Prince of Orange</i> , 1688.	510
<i>English Bill of Rights in History of the English Parliament: Together with an Account of the Parliaments of Scotland and Ireland</i> , Volume II, 1892.	510
Thomas Jefferson, <i>Declaration of Independence</i> , 1776.	512

The Constitution of 1791 in <i>The Constitutions and Other Select Documents Illustrative of the History of France</i> , Translated by Frank Maloy Anderson, 1904	513
The Second Treaty of Paris , 1815	519

TOPIC 14

William Wordsworth , from <i>The Tables Turned</i>	533
William Wordsworth , <i>The Tables Turned</i>	544
Robert Burns , <i>Auld Lang Syne</i>	544
Victor Hugo , <i>Les Misérables</i> , translated by Isabel F. Hapgood, 1887	546
John R. Beard , <i>Toussaint L'Ouverture: A Biography and Autobiography</i> , 1863	548

TOPIC 15

Samuel Smiles , <i>Self Help</i> , 1897.....	572
Upton Sinclair , <i>The Jungle</i> , 1906	574
Theodore Dreiser , <i>Sister Carrie</i> , 1900	574
Karl Marx and Friedrich Engels , <i>Manifesto of the Communist Party</i> , 1848	578
Emmeline Pankhurst , “Freedom or Death,” 1913 ..	578
Bryn Nelson , <i>The Lingerin Heat Over Pasteurized Milk</i> , Science History Institute, 2009	579
Frances E. Willard , “Formal Opening of the Council” in <i>Transactions of the National Council of Women of the United States</i> , 1891	579
Edward Hylton in <i>Death Struggles of Slavery</i> , Henry Bleby, 1853	580
Peter N. Stearns , <i>The Industrial Revolution in World History</i> , 1998	593
Friedrich Engels , <i>The Condition of the Working-Class in England in 1844</i> , 1845	593
Tom Kemp , <i>Historical Patterns of Industrialization</i> , 1993	594
Fukuzawa Yukichi in <i>Sources of Japanese Tradition; Autobiography</i>	597

TOPIC 16

Senator Albert Beveridge , from a speech before the U.S. Senate, January 9, 1900	608
Emilio Aguinaldo , <i>True Version of the Philippine Revolution</i> , 1899.....	610
Rabindranath Tagore , from <i>Nationalism</i>	620
Mohandas Gandhi , <i>Freedom’s Battle</i> , 1922	620
Joseph Conrad , <i>Heart of Darkness</i> , 1899.....	622
Frederick D. Lugard , <i>The Rise of Our East African Empire</i> , 1893.....	622

Rudyard Kipling , “The White Man’s Burden,” 1899	623
E. D. Morel , <i>The Black Man’s Burden</i> , 1920	623
Robert Louis Stevenson and Lloyd Osbourne , <i>The Ebb-Tide: A Trio and Quartette</i> , 1893.....	624
Pancho Villa , from <i>Insurgent Mexico</i> , 1914	629
<i>The British Imperial Century</i> , 1815–1914.....	631
Secretary of State John Hay , “First Open Door Note,” 1899	634
telegram from Sun Yat-sen to Yuan Shikai , January 1, 1911, quoted in <i>The Political History of China</i> , 1840–1928.....	636
telegram from Yuan Shikai to Sun Yat-sen , January 2, 1911, quoted in <i>The Political History of China</i> , 1840–1928	636
Mahatma Gandhi , <i>Freedom’s Battle</i> , 1922	638
High Imperial Commissioner Lin and his colleagues , letter to the queen of England, 1839	638
Ian Knight , <i>The Anatomy of the Zulu Army: From Shaka to Cetshwayo</i> , 1818–1879, 1995	639
A. Adu Boahen , <i>African Perspectives on Colonialism</i> , 1987.....	639
Peter H. Smith , <i>Talons of the Eagle: Dynamics of U.S.–Latin American Relations</i> , 2000	640
Letter to Queen Victoria in <i>The Chinese Repository</i> , Volume VIII, N. 10	644

TOPIC 17

Anita Engle , from <i>The Nili Spies</i>	658
Wilfred Owen , “Dulce et Decorum Est,” 1920 ...	658
Taner Akçam , <i>A Shameful Act: The Armenian Genocide and the Question of Turkish Responsibility</i> , 2006	662
Richard G. Hovannisian , “The Historical Dimensions of the Armenian Question, 1878–1923,” in <i>The Armenian Genocide in Perspective</i> , 1986.....	662
Raymond Kévorkian , <i>The Armenian Genocide: A Complete History</i> , 2011	663
Donald E. Miller and Lorna Touryan Miller , <i>Survivors: An Oral History of the Armenian Genocide</i> , 1993.....	663
Henry Morgenthau , <i>Ambassador Morgenthau’s Story</i> , 1919	664
“Turks Depopulate Towns of Armenia,” New York Times, August 27, 1915	664
Peter Balakian , <i>The Burning Tigris: The Armenian Genocide and America’s Response</i> , 2003	666
Wilfred Owen , <i>Poems</i> , 1920	676
Erich Maria Remarque , <i>All Quiet on the Western Front</i> , 1929.....	677

Ben Shephard, <i>A War of Nerves: Soldiers and Psychiatrists in the Twentieth Century</i> , 2001 . . .	677
Arthur Guy Empey, <i>Over the Top</i> , 1917	678
James J. Sheehan, <i>Where Have All the Soldiers Gone?: The Transformation of Modern Europe</i> , 2008	678
Treaty of Versailles, 1919	679
John F. Carter, “‘These Wild Young People,’ by One of Them” <i>Atlantic Monthly</i> , September 1920 . .	679
Eric D. Weitz, <i>Weimar Germany</i> , 2007.	680
The Fourteen Points, Woodrow Wilson, January 8, 1918.	681
President Roosevelt, statement on signing the Social Security Act, 1935	685
Ernest Hemingway, excerpt from <i>The Sun Also Rises</i>	686
A.O. Avdienko, “Hymn to Stalin”	690
“INS Records for 1930s Mexican Repatriations,” U.S. Citizenship and Immigration Services website, 2020	695
Gilbert Ziebura, <i>World Economy and World Politics, 1924–1931: From Reconstruction to Collapse</i> , 1990	695
Ludwig von Mises, “The Causes of the Economic Crisis: An Address,” 1931, in <i>The Causes of the Economic Crisis: And Other Essays Before and After the Great Depression</i> , 1978	696
Walter S. Salant, “The Spread of Keynesian Doctrines and Practices in the United States,” in <i>The Political Power of Economic Ideas: Keynesianism Across Nations</i> , 1989.	696
Milton Friedman and Anna Jacobson Schwartz, <i>The Great Contraction: 1929–1933</i> , 1963. . . .	697
Gottfried Haberler, “Reflections on Hayek’s Business Cycle Theory,” <i>Cato Journal</i> , 1986 . .	697
Joseph W. Bendersky, <i>A Concise History of Nazi Germany</i> , 2007.	698

TOPIC 18

Robert J. O’Neill, <i>The German Army and the Nazi Party</i> , 1933–39, 1968.	718
Franklin D. Roosevelt, “Quarantine” speech, October 5, 1937	718
Gerhard L. Weinberg, <i>Visions of Victory: The Hopes of Eight World War II Leaders</i> , 2005	719
The Atlantic Charter, August 14, 1941	719
Secret Supplementary Protocols of the Molotov-Ribbentrop Non-Aggression Pact, 1939	720
Franklin D. Roosevelt, “Four Freedoms” speech, 1941	722
<i>Valley of Darkness: The Japanese People and World War Two</i> , 1978	724

German soldier’s letter, June 1944	726
Elie Wiesel, <i>Night</i> , 1972	729
Harry S. Truman, speech on August 6, 1945	732
Draft of the Declaration on Liberated Europe, Yalta Conference, February 1945	732
The North Atlantic Treaty, April 4, 1949	733
Ihor Gawdiak, <i>Czechoslovakia: A Country Study</i> , Appendix B, 1989-	733
Amikam Nachmani, “Civil War and Foreign Intervention in Greece: 1946–49,” <i>Journal of Contemporary History</i> , October 1990	736
Universal Declaration of Human Rights, 1948 . .	742
Telford Taylor, war crimes prosecutor, 1946	742
White House press release, August 6, 1945	746
J. Robert Oppenheimer, October 1945.	746

TOPIC 19

Declaration of Purna Swaraj, 1930.	754
Covenant of the League of Nations, Article 22, 1919.	760
the Balfour Declaration	761
Harold Macmillan, “Wind of Change,” 1960, in <i>I Dare Say: Inside Stories of the World’s Most Powerful Speeches</i> , ed. Ferdie Addis, 2012. . .	769
John Springhall, <i>Decolonization since 1945: The Collapse of European Overseas Empires</i> , 2001	769
Kwame Nkrumah, speech to the Organization of African Unity, May 24, 1963	773
Nelson Mandela, from <i>In His Own Words</i>	774
Paul E. Sigmund, <i>The Overthrow of Allende and the Politics of Chile, 1964–1976</i> , 1977	778
Jawaharlal Nehru, “The Noble Mansion of Free India,”	778
Patrice Lumumba, “My Government Serves the People,” 1960	779
Achmed Sukarno, as told to Cindy Adams, <i>Sukarno: An Autobiography</i> , 1965	779
Gamal Abdel Nasser, “Speech by President Nasser Denouncing Proposal for a Canal Users Association,” in <i>The Suez Canal Problem: July 26–September 22</i> , U.S. Department of State Publication No. 6392, 1956	780
Nelson Mandela, statement at the Rivonia trial, April 20, 1964, from <i>In His Own Words</i>	792

TOPIC 20

Winston Churchill, “The Sinews of Peace,” March 5, 1946.	800
Joseph Stalin, interview with <i>Pravda</i> in <i>Eastern Europe: Opposing Viewpoints</i>	800

Dean Acheson , <i>Present at the Creation: My Years in the State Department</i>	800
Chao Hung Chin , quoted in <i>A Short History of China</i>	806
Richard Nixon , remarks at Andrews Air Force Base, February 28, 1972	810
Aleksandr Solzhenitsyn , <i>The Gulag Archipelago</i>	814
Harry S. Truman , Inaugural Address, January 20, 1949	818
Robert S. McNamara et al. , <i>Argument without End: In Search of Answers to the Vietnam Tragedy</i> , 1999	824
Scott A. Koch , “Zendebad, Shah!”: <i>The Central Intelligence Agency and the Fall of Iranian Prime Minister Mohammed Mossadeq</i> , August 1953, 1998	824
Howard Jones , <i>The Bay of Pigs</i> , 2008	825
Fernando Andresen Guimarães , <i>The Origins of the Angolan Civil War: Foreign Intervention and Domestic Political Conflict, 1961–76</i> , 2001	825
Mahmood Mamdani , <i>Good Muslim, Bad Muslim: America, the Cold War, and the Roots of Terror</i> , 2004	826
Treaty on the Final Settlement with Respect to Germany , September 12, 1990	832
Francis Fukuyama , “The End of History?” <i>The National Interest</i> , Summer 1989	833
George Kennan , in a telegram to the secretary of state, February 22, 1946	837

TOPIC 21

United Nations Declaration of Human Rights , 1948	872
Deborah Mayersen and Annie Pohlman , <i>Genocide and Mass Atrocities in Asia: Legacies and Prevention</i> , 2013	872
Linda Melvern , <i>Conspiracy to Murder: The Rwandan Genocide</i> , 2006	873
“Greater Serbia: A Balkan Troublemaker for the 1990s,” Directorate of Intelligence, 1993	873
Secretary of State Colin L. Powell , “Testimony Before the Senate Foreign Relations Committee,” 2004	874
Zainab Salbi and Laurie Becklund , <i>Between Two Worlds: Escape from Tyranny: Growing Up in the Shadow of Saddam</i> , 2005	876
Ivory Duncan , “Open the Doors to Education—and Employment,” in <i>The State of the World’s Children 2013: Children with Disabilities</i> , UNICEF	876
Sylvia Earle , <i>The World Is Blue: How Our Fate and the Ocean’s Are One</i> , 2010	877

Wangari Maathai , <i>The Green Belt Movement: Sharing the Approach and the Experience</i> , 2006	877
Andrew Reynolds , <i>The Children of Harvey Milk: How LGBTQ Politicians Changed the World</i> , 2019	878
Phillip N. Howard , <i>Democracy’s Fourth Wave? Digital Media and The Arab Spring</i> , 2013	881

TOPIC 22

Peter Marsden , <i>The Taliban: War and Religion in Afghanistan</i> , 2002	896
Peter Bergen , <i>Holy War, Inc.: Inside the Secret World of Osama bin Laden</i> , 2001	896
Fawaz A. Gerges , <i>ISIS: A History</i> , 2017	897
The White House , National Strategy for Counterterrorism, 2011	897
Dilip Das , <i>The Economic Dimensions of Globalization</i> , 2004	912
Barack Obama , at Stavros Niarchos Foundation Cultural Center in Athens, Greece, 2016	912
International Monetary Fund , <i>Globalization: A Brief Overview</i> , 2008	913
Joseph Stiglitz , <i>Globalization and Its Discontents</i> , 2002	913
Richard Lee , <i>Globalization, Language, and Culture</i> , 2006	914

Biographies

Draco (C. 7 th Century B.C.E.)	99	Zheng He (1371–1433)	406
Pythagoras (C. 570 B.C.E. – C. 490 B.C.E)	117	Napoleon Bonaparte (1769–1821)	516
Julius Caesar (C. 100 B.C.E. – 44 B.C.E.)	144	Queen Victoria (1819–1901)	538
Augustus (63 B.C.E. – 14 C.E.)	145	Otto von Bismarck	542
Theodora (C. 497–548)	167	Franklin D. Roosevelt (1882–1945)	684
Hārūn al-Rashīd (766–809)	193	Salvador Allende (1908–1973)	787
Chrétien de Troyes (C. 1135–1180)	222	Sun Yat–Sen (1866–1925)	809
Thomas Aquinas (1224/1125–1274)	230	Mao Zedong (1893–1976)	809

Maps

TOPIC 1

Early Complex Societies, 3000 B.C.E.–200 B.C.E.	5
Migration of Early Humans, 70,000 B.C.E.–12,000 B.C.E.	9
Fertile Crescent, 1500–700 B.C.E.	17
Geography of Ancient Egypt, c. 2700 B.C.E.	23
The Phoenicians and Their Colonies, 1000 B.C.E.–700 B.C.E.	28

TOPIC 2

Ancient South and East Asia	45
Indus Valley Civilization and Trade c. 3000 B.C.E. - 1500 B.C.E.	48
Early Chinese Societies	51
The Mauryan, Kushan, and Gupta Empires, c. 260 B.C.E.–c. 410 C.E.	61
Trade in the Gupta Empire, c. 320–540 C.E.	63
Building the Great Wall	74

TOPIC 3

Greek City-States	89
Mycenaean Civilization, c. 1300 B.C.E.	92
Greek Colonies and Trade	97
Persian Wars, 499 B.C.E.–479 B.C.E.	102
Peloponnesian War, 431 B.C.E.–404 B.C.E.	105
The Empire of Alexander the Great, 323 B.C.E.	114

TOPIC 4

The Roman Empire c. 200 C.E.	133
Mediterranean Sea Complex during the Roman Empire	148
The Spread of Christianity	162
The Changing Byzantine Empire, 527–1300s	168
An Eastern Empire	178

TOPIC 5

The Islamic World	183
Spread of Islam	186
Trade in Southwest Asia, 737–1212	196

TOPIC 6

The Treaty of Verdun	215
Territory of the Germanic Peoples 500 C.E.	217
Medieval Centers of Trade after 1100	227
The Spread of the Black Death, 1347–1353	229
Europe 1160	245

TOPIC 7

Trade Routes	261
Three Dynasties in China, 581–1279	264
Trade Routes, 220–1300s	267
Geography of Japan	277
Medieval East Asia	282
Rise of Islam in India	284

TOPIC 8

Kingdoms and States of Medieval Africa	295
Climate Zones and Geography of Africa	298
Trade in West Africa	304
Bantu Migrations	307
East Africa Trade	308
African Climate Zones	316

TOPIC 9

Cultures of the Americas	323
Olmec and Zapotec Cultures 200 B.C.E.–900 C.E.	326
The Maya Region	328

TOPIC 10

Christian Europe, 1600	347
Italy, 1500 C.E.	350

TOPIC 11

East Asian and Middle Eastern Empires, 1368–1911	381
Şafavid Empire 1507–1722	387
China during the Ming and Qing Dynasties 1368–1911	408

TOPIC 12

European Voyages of Exploration 1500–1800	423
European Colonies in Northeastern North America, 1660	429
Colonial Latin America, 1750	433
Atlantic Slave Trade, 1500s and 1600s	435
The Columbian Exchange, 1500s	439

TOPIC 13

Europe in 1650	453
Height of Spanish Power Under Philip II, 1560	456
Expansion of Prussia and Austria to 1713	468
The Seven Years' War in North America	499
Napoleonic Europe 1799–1812	517
Europe After the Congress of Vienna 1815	520

TOPIC 14

Revolution and Unrest in Europe, 1830–1848	529
Unification Italy 1859–1870	540
Unification Germany 1866–1871	541
Latin America, 1800	549
Latin America, 1830	549

TOPIC 15

Great Britain During the Industrial Revolution	559
Industry in Great Britain 1850	562
Industrialization in Europe, 1914	566
Europe 1871	583
Japanese Expansion, 1870–1918	588

TOPIC 16

The Spread of European Colonialism by 1914	603
Imperialism in Southeast Asia, 1900	607
The Spread of European Colonialism by 1914	611
The British Raj	619
U.S. Imperialism in Latin America	626
Spheres of Influence in China 1900	633

TOPIC 17

European Alliances in 1914–1922	649
Alliances in Europe, 1914	652
The Schlieffen Plan	654
World War I in Europe 1914–1918	657
World War I: A Global War	659
Russian Revolution and Civil War 1917–1922	670
Europe and the Middle East after World War I, 1922	674
Politics in Europe in the 1930s	689

TOPIC 18

World War II: Alliances	707
German Expansion 1936–1939	710
World War II in Europe and North Africa 1939–1941	713
Major Nazi Camps	729

TOPIC 19

Nationalism in Africa and Asia 1919–1939	751
Partition of India, 1947	756
Southeast Asia	757
Division of the Ottoman Empire, 1935	760
Arab-Israeli Disputes 1947–1993	764
Independent Africa	772
Central America and the Caribbean	785
South America	788

TOPIC 20

The Division of Germany and Berlin	801
NATO and WARSAW Pact Members 1949–1955	802
China 1926–1937	806
The Fall of Communism	828

TOPIC 21

The World: Natural Resources	843
East Asia and South Asia: Politics and Economics	858
Gross Domestic Production Per Capita in South America	863
Oil and Natural Gas Fields in the Middle East	866

TOPIC 22

Megacities of the World: 2018	887
Percentage of Population Living on Less Than \$1.90 a Day by Country, 2017	900
The European Union 2020	908

Charts and Graphs

TOPIC 1

Advances of the Neolithic Revolution	37
Development of Ancient Complex Societies	38

TOPIC 2

Principles of Hinduism	81
Principles of Buddhism	81
Schools of Thought in Ancient China	82

TOPIC 5

Timeline of Conquest and Expansion of the Arab Empire	265
--	-----

TOPIC 6

Three-Field Crop Rotation	224
Feudal and Manorial Relationships	225
The Crusades	238
Feudalism	253

TOPIC 7

Comparing Japanese and European Feudalism	278
Three Chinese Dynasties	287
The Mongols	288

TOPIC 8

Medieval Africa	315
---------------------------	-----

TOPIC 9

Societies of the Andes	333
The Inca Empire	340

TOPIC 10

Effects of the Reformation	374
The Major Italian States	375

TOPIC 12

Some European Explorers of the 1400s and 1500s	427
Gold Imports to Spain, 1500s	438
European Exploration and Colonization	445
The First Global Economic Systems	446

TOPIC 13

The Scientific Method	480
Key Events of the American Revolution	501
Civil War Revolutions in England	521

TOPIC 14

Independence in Latin America	551
Liberalism and Nationalism Movements in 1800s Europe	552

TOPIC 15

Innovation in the Cotton Cloth Industry	564
Population Changes in 19th-Century Europe	564

TOPIC 16

Western Influence in China	642
--------------------------------------	-----

TOPIC 17

Estimated Army Size, 1914	652
Major Events on the Western Front	655
Major Events on the Eastern Front	656
Effects of the Overproduction of Wheat	683
Unemployment 1928–1938	683
Economic Effects of Great Depression	685
The Causes of World War I	699

TOPIC 18

World War II Deaths	739
Two Roads to War	743
Early Events of World War II	743

TOPIC 20

Nato – Warsaw Pact Force Comparison	803
The Cold War	835

TOPIC 21

Countries in the Middle East and Africa with the highest crude oil reserves	879
---	-----

TOPIC 22

Population Growth of Selected Nations 2000–2050	902
Mobile Phone Subscriptions Per 100 People	916
Constant 2018 US\$, Billions	921

Topic Activities

Making Connections to Today

Creating a Presentation	40
Creating a Presentation About Yoga	84
Creating a Podcast About Allusions to Greek Culture	128
Making a Chart	178
Creating a Presentation About Islamic Architecture	210
Filming a News Segment	256
Interpreting a Scene	290
Performing a Story or Song	318
Identifying Languages	342
Researching Modern Religious Schisms	375
Analyzing an Advertisement	418
Creating a Chart	448
Learning from an Interview	524
Designing a Mural	554
Analyzing a Podcast	598
Writing a Historical Summary of	643
Identifying Countries	702
Making an Informational Video	746
Creating a Visual Presentation	792
Explaining Evidence	838
Making an Environmental Map	882
Writing a Blog	924

Understanding Multiple Perspectives

Writing a Journal Entry	40
Holding a Debate about Leadership	83
Writing an Argumentative Essay About Greek Philosophy	127
Writing a Research Plan	178
Comparing and Contrasting World Religions	209
Informative Writing	256
Analyzing Similarities and Differences	289
Writing a Fictional Story About African Leaders	317
Analyzing Artifacts	341
Making Inferences	376
Drawing a Map	417

Analyzing a Movement for Change	447
Staging a Debate	524
Comparing Revolutions	553
Creating a Visual Presentation	597
Engaging in a Negotiation	644
Writing a Dialogue	701
Engaging in a Debate	746
Creating a Table	791
Comparing and Contrasting Ideas	837
Planning a Social Media Protest Campaign	881
Writing a Dialogue	923

Analyzing Information

Drawing Conclusions	791
-------------------------------	-----

Analyzing Political Cartoons

Writing an Interpretive Essay	644
Drawing Conclusions	837
Writing an Editorial	881

Analyzing Political Power and Government

Explaining Importance	290
---------------------------------	-----

Analyzing Perspectives

Writing a Diary Entry	255
---------------------------------	-----

Building Citizenship

Creating a Graphic Organizer	702
Building a Free Society	791

Comparing and Contrasting

Making a Venn Diagram	177
Creating an Infographic	318
Creating a Presentation	418

Connecting to Economics

Writing an Economic Summary	598
---------------------------------------	-----

Connecting to Science

Writing a Report702

Connecting to Sociology

Completing a Chart597

Developing Geographic Reasoning

Writing about the Positive and Negative Effects of
Flooding.....83

Evaluating Historical Events

Presenting Aspects of Life in Sparta and Athens. . 128

Geographic Reasoning

Analyzing Geographic Features39

Exploring Place342

Creating a Historical Map447

Identifying Place643

Analyzing Population Data746

Creating a Visual Display838

Making a Prediction923

Group Discussion and Writing

Writing a Strategy Analysis.....210

Identifying Significance

Write a Biographical Summary.....554

Making Connections

Comparing and Contrasting523

Making Connections to Architecture

Creating a Flip Book..... 177

Making Connections to Art

Creating a Virtual Museum Exhibit84

Researching Artwork Across Cultures 127

Designing a Museum Display..... 317

Creating a Portfolio of Renaissance Art376

Writing a Museum Caption 745

Making a Playlist..... 882

Creating a Film Pitch924

Making Connections to Literature

Comparing Ancient Indian Texts83

Making Connections to Primary Sources

Interpreting a Travel Account.....448

Narrative Writing

Writing a Short Story About Feudalism255

Writing a Story..... 417

Organizing Information

Comparing Outcomes523

Observing Religion in Art and Architecture

Presenting a Visual Display 290

Understanding Cause and Effect

Making a Compare and Contrast Chart745

Creating a Newscast 882

Understanding Chronology

Creating an Illustrated Flow Chart.....39

Creating a Time Line of the World's
Great Religions..... 209

Creating a Visual Time Line 289

Creating an Annotated Time Line643

Understanding Culture

Creating a Chart342

Understanding Economics

Writing an Economic Summary 791

Understanding Geography

Writing a Strategy Analysis..... 177

Understanding Global
Developments

Creating a Diagram553

Understanding Place

Explaining Significance375

Understanding Propaganda

Analyzing Propaganda Posters 701

Understanding Scale

Creating and Analyzing Maps524



TOPIC

19

Independence and New Challenges

1919 to 1993

Women celebrate Independence Day, a national holiday, in Somalia. Somalia gained independence in 1960. Many African nations rose up against colonialism and gained independence in the twentieth century.

INTRODUCTION LESSON

- 01 Introducing Independence and New Challenges 748

LEARN THE EVENTS LESSONS

- 02 South Asian and Southeast Asian Independence 753
- 03 The Middle East 759
- 05 African Independence 771
- 07 Latin America 781

INQUIRY ACTIVITY LESSONS

- 04 Turning Point: Decolonization 767
- 06 Understanding Multiple Perspectives: Voices of Independence 777

REVIEW AND APPLY LESSON

- 08 Reviewing Independence and New Challenges 789

A SECRET HIDEOUT

It was a hot summer day in July 1963, and life went on as usual in the quiet suburb of Rivonia, just outside Johannesburg, South Africa. No one paid much attention to the servants' quarters at Liliesleaf Farm in the suburb, even though the building seemed to be unusually crowded.

Johannesburg, like all of South Africa, obeyed the rules of **apartheid**, a system that rigidly separated white and black South Africans. In a place like Rivonia, there were no black residents, only black servants. However, as long as black servants had the correct government passes, they could live in the segregated quarters.

The wealthy white women who had gathered for a luncheon and a game of bridge intently watched as a van full of police officers barreled down the drive at Liliesleaf and surrounded the servants' quarters. Some people tried to escape out the back windows of the quarters while others stayed inside, working frantically to destroy documents. All were soon captured.

The next morning, newspapers around the nation broke the news: the armed segment of the banned African National Congress had been using Liliesleaf as a hideout for years. Even their leader, Nelson Mandela, who was in prison at the time, had hidden there in the past while pretending to be a domestic worker. Inside the servants' quarters, police found plans for acts of sabotage designed to bring down the government. The rebels' plans were designed to avoid civilian casualties as much as possible; however, those details were not released to the press. Ten people went on trial for conspiracy and sabotage. Prosecutors doggedly sought the death penalty as punishment.

Several months later, after the prosecution presented its case, the defense team had their opportunity—and a plan. They would use the trial to

present an argument to the entire world—not about the guilt or innocence of the accused, but about the inherently violent, corrupt system of apartheid. Mandela, who had been imprisoned before the Rivonia raids, spoke:

“I have cherished the ideal of a democratic and free society in which all persons live together in harmony and with equal opportunities. It is an ideal which I hope to live for and to achieve. But if needs be, it is an ideal for which I am prepared to die.”

Mandela was not condemned to death by the courts, but he and seven others received life sentences. His defense would be the last words he spoke publicly for the next 26 years. But Nelson Mandela did not disappear. The words he spoke at the trial inspired his supporters and oppressed peoples around the world.

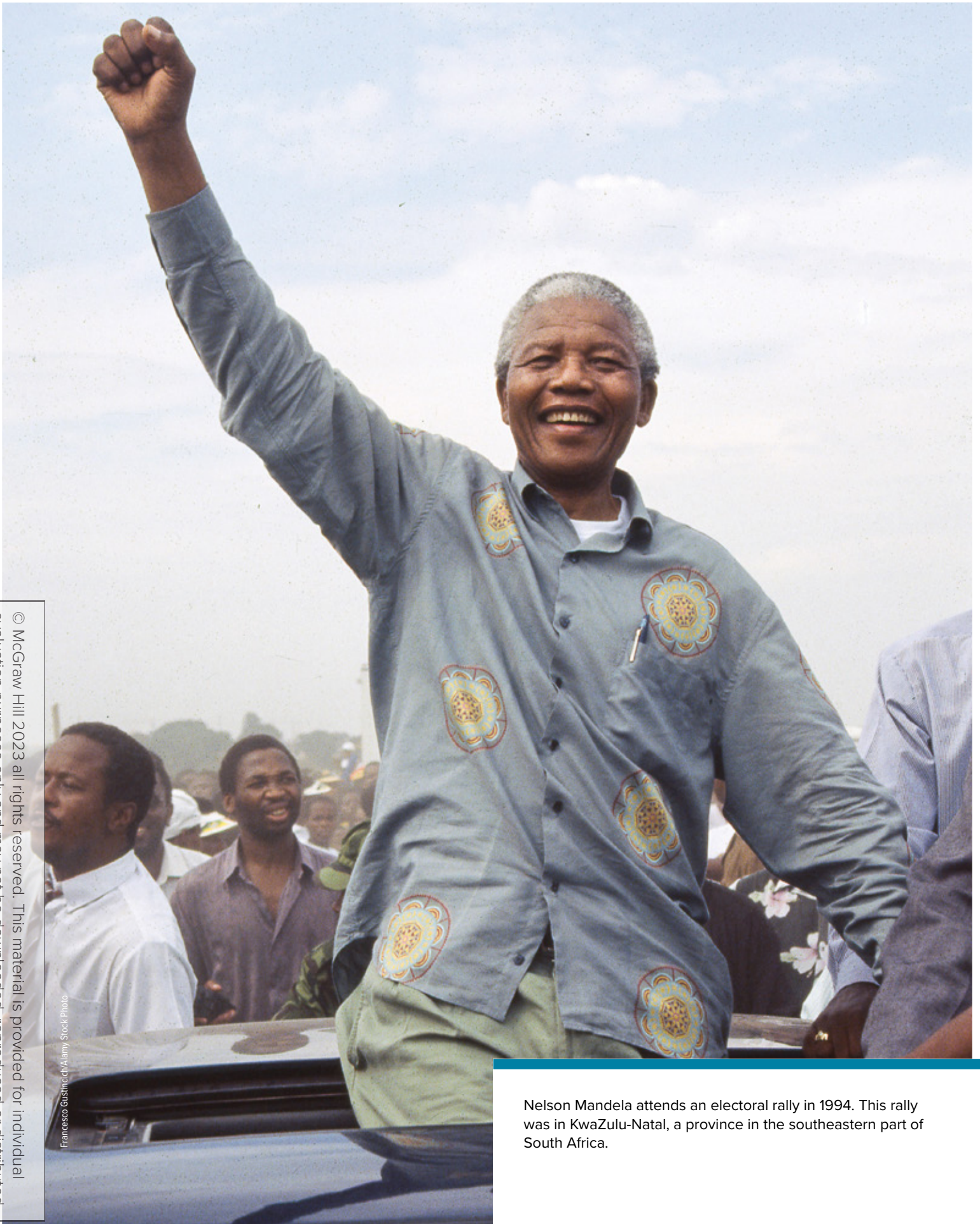
“I have cherished the ideal of a democratic and free society ... an ideal for which I am prepared to die.”

– Nelson Mandela, speech at the Rivonia trials

In the 1960s, revolution seemed to be everywhere. If World War I had shaken the accustomed world order, World War II brought it crashing to the ground. Anti-colonial movements and independence efforts grew. Individual territories wanted independence from their colonial oppressors, but anti-colonial leaders wanted to dismantle the entire colonial system around the world. South Africa had been an independent nation for many years, but its white minority still retained the power vested in them by a colonial heritage.

Mandela's profile grew during his time in prison, and with his release in 1990, he was able to bring worldwide attention to South Africa. The white South African president, F. W. de Klerk, worked with Mandela to dismantle the apartheid system. For their effort, the two were jointly awarded the Nobel Peace Prize. Mandela went on to become the first black president of South Africa and an important voice for freedom and equality around the world.

apartheid “apartness”; the system of racial segregation in South Africa from the 1950s until 1991



Nelson Mandela attends an electoral rally in 1994. This rally was in KwaZulu-Natal, a province in the southeastern part of South Africa.

Understanding the Time and Place: Independence around the World, 1945 to 1993

After World War II, the balance of power shifted as many European nations focused on rebuilding. As a result, many territories were able to break free from colonial control and become independent. The new nations that arose faced many challenges, including widespread poverty and civil unrest. They faced challenges in establishing economic and political relationships with much more powerful nations—often their former colonizers—and they needed to reconcile the foreign culture that had dominated them with their own indigenous traditions that had been suppressed. They were also often placed between the competing demands of the United States and the Soviet Union as those two nations fought for dominance during the Cold War. Many newly independent states were heavily influenced by one or the other of the two superpowers.

Anti-Colonialism

While independence movements rose and succeeded around the world, so did a major driver of independence: anti-colonialism. But anti-colonialism goes further than basic political independence. It encompasses economic and cultural relationships as well. Anti-colonialism focuses on unfair forms of influence and domination by other nations, and it persists today as less powerful nations seek to use their own resources, govern their own people, and conduct trade as they see fit.

Former colonies are often called “developing countries.” Developing countries are called this because compared to other places they have a small industrial base and have mostly agricultural economies. There are no clearly agreed-upon criteria for what makes a nation “developing,” however, and so some scholars have stopped using the term.

Tensions in the Middle East

In post–World War II Egypt, military officers led by Gamal Abdel Nasser seized power. Nasser dreamed of Pan-Arabism, uniting separate Arab countries under a single flag, but his United Arab Republic consisted solely of Egypt and Syria and lasted only a few years. One thing did unite many Arab countries: hostility toward Israel, which became an official nation in 1948. Over time, however, even that hostility ebbed and flowed as different leaders rose and world events influenced political alignments.

The Middle East was one of several regions where colonialism and superpower interference sparked lasting unrest. In the early 1950s, Iranian Mohammad Mossadegh was the beloved prime minister of his country, but Western governments despised him. They pressured the shah (king) of Iran to remove Mossadegh from power. Western—particularly U.S.—influence only increased as the years passed. By 1979, a group of hard-line religious leaders seized control of Iran, and the shah fled. These new leaders established strict laws based on their interpretation of Islam and fiercely opposed the United States at every turn. At

the same time, Iran’s neighbor Iraq, hoping to take advantage of Iran’s inner turmoil, launched its own attack. The Iran-Iraq War was a particularly violent aspect of life in this region for most of the 1980s.

While the United States influenced Iran, the Soviet Union attempted to manipulate Afghanistan. Afghanistan had won independence from the British decades earlier, but in the 1950s it turned to the Soviets for support. Afghanistan developed a close relationship with the Soviet Union for the next 20 years, but resentments developed among many Afghans—especially religious conservatives. In 1979, the Soviet Union invaded Afghanistan to support its existing government, while the United States supported the rebels. The rebels would eventually become known as the Taliban, which took control of the country. The Taliban has an extremist interpretation of Islam that includes intense repression of women.

Nationalist Movements and the End of Colonialism

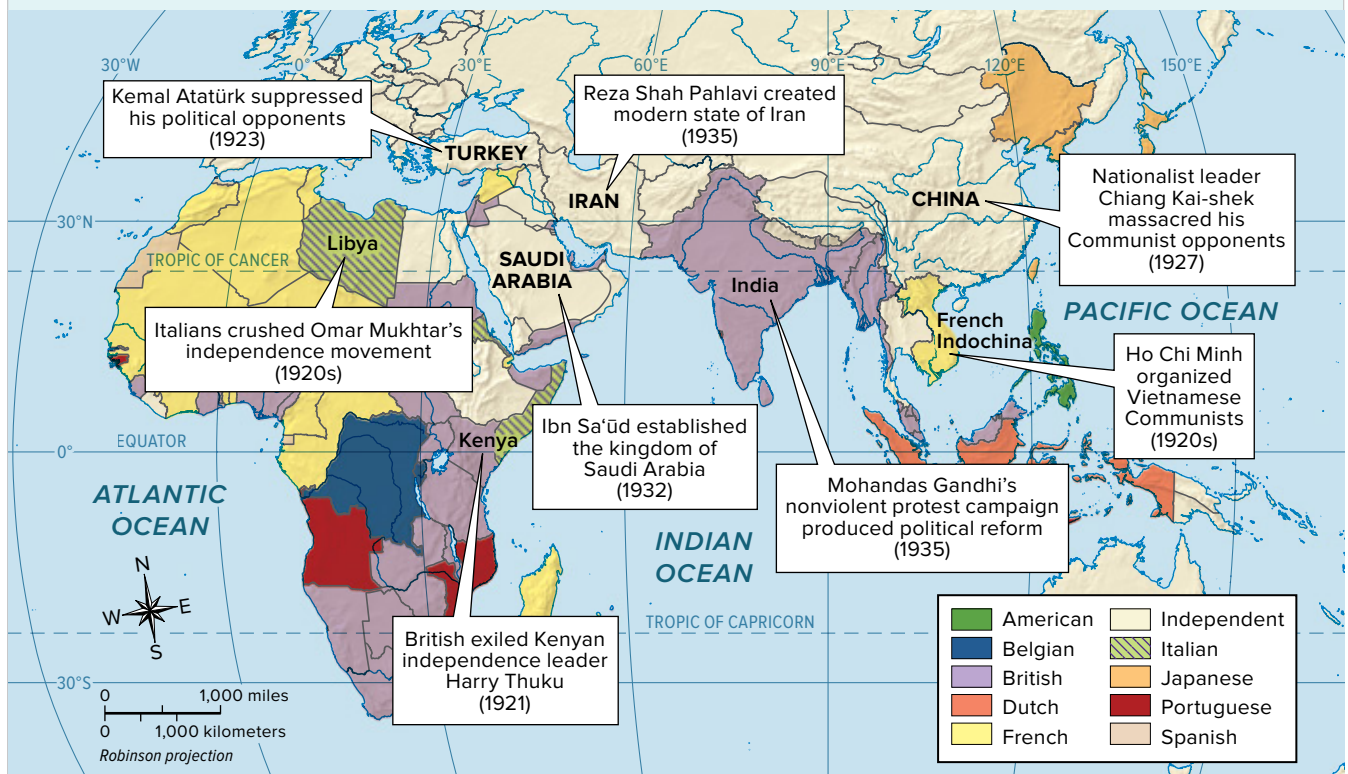
At the beginning of the twentieth century, European countries dominated the world through colonialism. But two world wars plus a worldwide depression left the nations of Europe financially and politically exhausted. At the end of World War I, many nationalist movements had already begun to form. Thirty years after the end of World War II, new nations had arisen all around the world.

Nationalist movements—led by Gandhi and Nehru in India, Ataturk in Turkey, and Kenyatta in Kenya—directly challenged colonial control, whether through nonviolent protest or aggressive action. Nationalists aimed to develop a new identity and a consciousness as a unique people, separate from the colonial identity. They argued that self-determination, no matter how challenging, was better than continued existence as a colonial territory.

The nationalists often succeeded: Turkey, India, Pakistan, and several new African nations formed from nationalist efforts. However, many of these countries faced internal unrest as disparate ethnic or religious

Nationalism in Africa and Asia 1919–1939

At the end of World War I, many regions of the world intensified their struggle against colonial control by European nations. After World War II, the independence movements in many nations were successful.



GEOGRAPHY CONNECTION

- Global Interconnection** What countries in the Middle East established independent states during this period?
- Human Population** Who led nonviolent protests that resulted in political reform in India?

groups struggled for control. For example, South Asia experienced violence as a result of the partition that created independent India and Pakistan.

Although many countries gained independence, they faced great challenges. Many countries were put in the middle of the Cold War animosities between the United States and the Soviet Union. In addition, they faced environmental challenges, extreme poverty, corrupt governance, and the destructive economic legacies of colonialism. South Africa was an unusual case as it faced an internal independence struggle, with the majority black South African citizens struggling against a brutal apartheid regime run by the minority white population.

In Latin America, most nations had achieved their independence in the 1800s, so the struggles for independence in the twentieth century were also internal, with the poor working classes fighting to gain representation and rights from the elites, made up of church officials, landowners, and military leaders who controlled their countries and kept the wealth. These

elites were often supported by an outside power stretching its own colonialist muscles: the United States.

The United States embraced its new identity as a superpower. In many nations, particularly in Latin America, U.S. leaders began to interfere more and more with internal politics to gain advantages economically and politically.

Conservative Reaction in Latin America

Latin and South American countries were particularly devastated by the ravages of the Great Depression. Extreme poverty and an increasingly desperate populace that challenged established elites encouraged the growth of conservative, even authoritarian, movements in multiple nations. In many countries, including Mexico, Brazil, and Argentina, the military began to play a role, deposing democratically elected leaders and placing military leaders or those supported by the military in control instead.

Looking Ahead

In these lessons, you will learn about the independence movements that grew in various colonized countries during the twentieth century. With European nations weakened by two world wars and a worldwide economic depression making life harder for everyone, independence began to feel both attainable and necessary for the survival of the people in many colonized regions. You will explore how new countries grew from these former colonial territories and the way their struggle for independence shaped their culture and history. You will consider the fall of the Ottoman Empire, as well as the ways in which the power struggle between the United States and the Soviet Union influenced these new nations.

You will examine Compelling Questions and develop your own questions about decolonization, independence movements, and how independence affected countries economically, socially, and politically. Begin by reviewing the time line to preview some of the key events and people you will learn about in this topic.

What Will You Learn?

In these lessons focused on independence and new challenges in the developing world, you will learn:

- the key events in the independence movements of various colonized countries.
- the effects of political, social, and economic challenges faced by newly independent countries.
- the impact of the competition between the United States and Soviet Union on other nations.
- the impact of the fall of the Ottoman Empire on the Middle East.
- the historical causes and effects of the rise of nationalism in Asia, Africa, and Latin America.

? COMPELLING QUESTIONS

- How was independence for former colonies a turning point politically, socially, and economically?
- How did independence movements affect life in colonized countries?

KEY EVENTS OF THE

MOVEMENT FOR INDEPENDENCE AND THE CHALLENGES OF NATION BUILDING

- 1946** Former military officer Juan Perón becomes president of Argentina
- 1947** India and Pakistan gain independence
- 1948** The State of Israel is established
- 1957** Ghana becomes the first sub-Saharan African country to gain independence
- 1963** Kenya becomes an independent country led by Jomo Kenyatta
- 1964** Nelson Mandela is sentenced to life imprisonment in South Africa
- 1973** The United States supports a military coup in Chile, which overthrows Salvador Allende
- 1979** **JANUARY 1979** The shah of Iran flees the country; the Iranian Revolution begins
- » Ayatollah Ruhollah Khomeini greets supporters in Tehran, Iran after returning from exile in February 1979.
- DECEMBER 1979** The Soviet Union invades Afghanistan
- 1990** Nelson Mandela is released from prison



Identifying Cause and Effect What events on the time line do you think were influenced by the Cold War? Why?

South Asian and Southeast Asian Independence

READING STRATEGY

Analyzing Key Ideas and Details

As you read the lesson, use a graphic organizer like this to record important events that affected nations in South and Southeast Asia.

Nation	Important Events

Spread of Communism in Asia

GUIDING QUESTION

How did communism spread throughout Asia after 1917?

Before World War I, the Marxist doctrine of social revolution had no appeal for Asian intellectuals. Most Asian societies were still agricultural during this time and not thinking of revolution. This changed after the events in Russia in 1917. Vladimir Lenin and the Bolsheviks showed that a revolutionary Marxist Party could rapidly turn an economy based on agriculture into an industrialized economy.

In 1920 Lenin adopted a new revolutionary strategy aimed at societies outside the Western world. He spread the word of Karl Marx through the Communist International, or Comintern, a worldwide organization of Communist parties formed in 1919. Agents were trained in Moscow and then returned to their homelands to form Marxist parties. Lenin believed that people living under colonial rule would be especially receptive to his ideas. His assertion that capitalism allowed the exploitation of resources and labor by imperialist nations resonated with some leaders in Asia. Lenin hoped these leaders would see communism as a way to gain control of their industries from Western nations.

By the end of the 1920s, almost every colonial society in Asia had a Communist Party. In some countries, local Communists established cooperative relationships with nationalist parties to struggle against Western imperialism. For example, in French Indochina, Moscow-trained Ho Chi Minh organized the Vietnamese Communists during the 1920s. The strongest Communist-nationalist alliance formed in China. However, in most colonial societies, Communist parties failed to gain much support.

✓ CHECK FOR UNDERSTANDING

Identifying Cause and Effect Why did communism spread to Asia after World War I?

Indian Independence

GUIDING QUESTION

What forces shaped the Indian independence movement?

Mohandas Gandhi was active in the Indian National Congress and the movement for Indian self-rule before World War I. Like many in India, Gandhi was disheartened that India was not granted self-rule after the war. The Indian people began to refer to him as India's "Great Soul," or Mahatma. Gandhi remained an important figure after the war, and new leaders also arose to respond to British colonialism.

Protests and Reforms

In 1893 Gandhi moved to South Africa for work. Upon his return to India in 1914, he organized mass protests against British laws. A believer in nonviolence, Gandhi used the methods of **civil disobedience** to push for Indian independence.

civil disobedience refusal to obey laws that are considered to be unjust



In 1919 British troops killed hundreds of unarmed protesters in Amritsar, in northwest India. The violence gave Gandhi pause, but he soon returned to politics, leading boycotts and demonstrations. In 1922 a protest in the village of Chauri Chaura turned violent, resulting in a fire that killed 22 Indian police officers. Horrified at the mob violence, Gandhi halted his campaign of civil disobedience but was later arrested and imprisoned for his role in the protests.

In 1935 Britain passed the Government of India Act, which expanded the role of Indians in governing. Before, the Legislative Council could give advice only to the British governor. Now, it became a two-house parliament, and two-thirds of its Indian members were to be elected. Five million Indians (still a small percentage of the total population) were given the right to vote. However, Gandhi and other Indian leaders denounced the act because it maintained British authority over India's military and the Indian economy.

A Push for Independence

Initially, the Indian National Congress (INC), founded in 1885, sought reforms in Britain's governing of India. Reforms, however, were no longer enough. Under its new leader, Motilal Nehru, the INC wanted to push for full independence from Britain.

Gandhi, now released from prison, returned to his earlier policy of civil disobedience. He worked hard to inform ordinary Indians of his beliefs and methods. It was wrong, he said, to harm any living being. He believed that hate could be overcome only by love, and love, rather than force, could win people over to one's position.

Nonviolence was central to Gandhi's campaign of noncooperation and civil disobedience. To protest unjust British laws, Gandhi advocated self-sufficiency.



The Salt March was just one of Gandhi's acts of *satyagraha*, or mass civil disobedience.

Speculating Why do you think the people participating in the Salt March are dressed in a similar manner?

He urged Indians to remove their children from English-supported schools, to refuse to pay taxes, and to provide their own cloth and salt.

Britain had increased the salt tax and prohibited Indians from manufacturing or harvesting their own salt. In 1930 Gandhi led a protest. He and his supporters walked to the sea in what was called the Salt March. On reaching the coast, Gandhi picked up a pinch of salt. Thousands of Indians followed his act of civil disobedience. Gandhi and many other members of the INC were arrested.

New Leaders and New Problems

In the 1930s, Jawaharlal Nehru entered the movement. The son of Motilal Nehru, Jawaharlal studied law in Great Britain. He, like many Indian politicians, was upper class and intellectual.

The INC drafted a resolution called Purna Swaraj to declare India's independence.

“ We believe that it is the incredible right of the Indian people, as of any other people, to have freedom to enjoy the fruits of their toil and have the necessities of life, so that they may have full opportunities of growth. We believe also that if any government deprives a people of these rights and oppresses them, the people have a further right to alter or to abolish it. The British Government in India has not only deprived the Indian people of their freedom but has based itself on the exploitation of the masses, and has ruined India. . . . ”

—Declaration of Purna Swaraj, 1930

However, participants in India's independence movement held divergent views about how to obtain freedom from Britain. Some identified with Gandhi's religious, anti-Western, and traditional ideas, but others favored Jawaharlal Nehru's secular, Western-friendly, and modern beliefs. The two approaches created uncertainty about India's future path.

In the meantime, another problem arose in the independence movement. Hostility between India's Hindus and Muslims had existed for centuries. Muslims were dissatisfied with the Hindu dominance of the INC, and they raised the cry “Islam is in danger.”

By the 1930s, the Muslim League was under the leadership of Mohammed Ali Jinnah. The league believed in the creation of a separate Muslim state of Pakistan (“the land of the pure”) in the northwest.

✓ CHECK FOR UNDERSTANDING

1. **Making Connections** Why was the Salt March considered an act of civil disobedience?
2. **Contrasting** How did Nehru differ from Gandhi? What was the result of having two prominent individuals working for independence from different perspectives?

India Divided

GUIDING QUESTION

How did India, Pakistan, and Bangladesh become independent countries?

At the end of World War II, British India's Muslims and Hindus were divided. The leaders in India decided that British India would have to be divided into two countries, one majority Hindu (India) and one majority Muslim (Pakistan). Pakistan consisted of two regions separated by India. One section, West Pakistan, was to the northwest of India. The other section, East Pakistan, was to the northeast of India.

On August 15, 1947, India and Pakistan became independent. Millions of Hindus and Muslims fled across the new borders, Hindus toward India and Muslims toward Pakistan. Violence resulted from these mass migrations, and more than a million people were killed. On January 30, 1948, a Hindu militant assassinated Mohandas Gandhi as he was going to morning prayer. India and Pakistan's new beginnings had not been easy.

An Independent India

Having worked closely with Mohandas Gandhi for Indian independence, Jawaharlal Nehru led the Congress Party, formerly known as the Indian National Congress. Nehru admired the socialist ideals of the British Labour Party. His political goal was a parliamentary government led by a prime minister and a written constitution, creating the world's largest democracy. His economic goals called for a moderate socialist economy. Under Nehru's leadership, the Indian state took ownership of major industries, utilities, and transportation. Private enterprise was allowed at the local level, and farmland was left in private hands. The Indian government also sought to

avoid dependence on foreign investment. India developed a large industrial sector, and industrial production almost tripled between 1950 and 1965.

New Challenges

Nehru guided India's foreign policy according to a **principle of nonalignment**. Concerned about military conflict between the United States and the Soviet Union and about the influence of former colonial powers, Nehru refused to align India with either bloc. Rather, he joined other developing countries in not taking sides in the growing Cold War.

After Nehru's death, the Congress Party selected his daughter, Indira Gandhi (not related to Mohandas Gandhi), as prime minister. She held office for most of the time between 1966 and 1984. India faced many problems during this period. In the 1950s and 1960s, a legacy of colonialism and its economic policies led to growing poverty. The population continued to grow quickly which stressed infrastructure. Millions lived in vast city slums. It was in the slums of Kolkata (formerly Calcutta) that Mother Teresa, a Catholic nun, helped poor, sick, and dying Indian people.

Growing ethnic and religious strife as well as regional demands for more self-government and control over resources caused conflicts to arise. One conflict involved the Sikhs. Sikhs are followers of a religion founded in the mid-fifteenth century in northern India. Many Sikhs lived in a region known as Punjab, a northwest Indian province. Militant Sikhs demanded that this province be given its independence. Gandhi refused and in 1984 used military force against Sikh rebels. Soldiers attacked the temple precinct in the province and stormed the Sikh Golden Temple, a historic and sacred place of worship for Sikhs. More than 450 Sikhs were killed. Seeking revenge, two Sikh members of Gandhi's personal bodyguard assassinated her later that year.



Train cars hold people inside and on top as millions migrate following India's partition.

Drawing Conclusions Why do you think so many people migrated by train?

principle of nonalignment Jawaharlal Nehru's refusal to associate India with any bloc or alliance



Partition of India, 1947

Millions of people migrated following the partition of India.



GEOGRAPHY CONNECTION

- Exploring Regions** Based on Kashmir's position on the map, what can you infer about why this region has experienced conflict continuing to the present day?
- Human-Environment Interaction** To what areas did India's Muslims flee? Why?

Conflict between Hindus and Muslims continued. Political tensions between India and Pakistan fueled a long-term dispute over the regions of Jammu and Kashmir. Jammu and Kashmir are territories that rest between the nations of India and Pakistan along their northern border. The dispute over these two regions persists into the present day.

Following the assassination of Indira Gandhi, her son Rajiv became prime minister and moved the government in new directions. He encouraged private enterprise as well as foreign investment. His successors continued to transfer state-run industries into private hands and to rely on the free market. This led to a noticeable growth in the middle class.

Rajiv Gandhi was prime minister from 1984 to 1989. During his 1991 reelection campaign, he was assassinated during a bomb attack by a member of a guerrilla group, the Tamil Tigers. In the following years, the Congress Party lost its leadership position and had to compete with new political parties. Rajiv Gandhi's widow, Sonia Gandhi, would become the next leader of the Congress Party in 1998.

Pakistan and Bangladesh

Pakistan lacked a political infrastructure like India's National Congress, and it received fewer assets after the partition. It also suffered from internal conflicts. East Pakistan and West Pakistan were separate regions with geographical, cultural, and linguistic differences. Many in East Pakistan believed that the government, based in West Pakistan, ignored their needs. East Pakistan declared independence from Pakistan in 1971. After a brief civil war that included acts of genocide, East Pakistan became the new nation of Bangladesh. Bangladesh and Pakistan have remained very poor and have experienced difficulty establishing stable governments. At times, military officials have seized control of their governments.

✓ CHECK FOR UNDERSTANDING

- Identifying Cause and Effect** What were the immediate effects of the partition of British India?
- Describing** How did India, Pakistan, and Bangladesh emerge as independent countries?

Southeast Asia

GUIDING QUESTION

What experiences did independence bring to new Southeast Asian countries?

After World War II, most states in Southeast Asia gained independence from their colonial rulers. The process varied across the region, however. In July 1946, the United States granted independence to the Philippines, and in 1948 Burma became independent from Great Britain.

Initially, many leaders of the newly independent states in Southeast Asia admired Western political and economic practices. They hoped to form democratic, capitalist states like those in the West. By the end of the 1950s, however, their plans for rapid economic growth had failed. Internal disputes weakened the new democratic governments, opening the door to both military and one-party autocratic regimes.

Indonesia and Myanmar

The Netherlands was less willing than Great Britain to abandon its colonial empire in Southeast Asia. When a new Indonesian republic was proclaimed by Achmed Sukarno, the Netherlands attempted to suppress it. When the Indonesian Communist Party attempted to seize power, however, the United States pressured the Netherlands to grant independence to Sukarno and

his non-Communist Nationalist Party. In 1949 the Netherlands finally recognized the new Republic of Indonesia and the new state's independence had been achieved beyond doubt.

In 1950 Indonesia's new leaders created a parliamentary system, and Sukarno was elected the first president. In the late 1950s, however, he dissolved the constitution and tried to rule on his own through what he called "guided democracy." Sukarno also nationalized foreign-owned enterprises and sought economic aid from China and the Soviet Union. This created diplomatic connections the United States wanted to avoid. Military officers overthrew Sukarno and established a military government under General Suharto, who was supported by the United States. It was clear that democracy had failed in Indonesia.

Burma, now Myanmar, came under military control in the early 1960s. The nation's people, however, continued to fight for democracy. Aung San Suu Kyi, the daughter of Aung San, who led the Burma Independence Army in 1947, returned to Myanmar in 1988 and became involved in the movement for democracy. For her actions, she was repeatedly placed under house arrest. Her party won a landslide victory in 1990, but the military rulers refused to hand over power. In 1991 Suu Kyi won the Nobel Peace Prize for her pro-democracy efforts and was made state counselor in 2016. She has recently been stripped of many of her human rights awards due to the treatment of the Rohingya people, a Muslim minority, within the country.

Southeast Asia

The independent nations of Southeast Asia today gained independence following World War II.



GEOGRAPHY CONNECTION

- 1. Global Interconnections** How do you think geography may have affected which Southeast Asian countries became Communist?
- 2. Exploring Regions** How is Laos geographically different from its southern neighbors?

Vietnam and Cambodia

The French did not want to give up their colonial possessions either. But their hold on the colony of Vietnam had been weakened by Japanese occupation during World War II. Communists, led by Ho Chi Minh, took control of part of the land, and a communist North Vietnam and a democratic South Vietnam came into being. Beginning in 1965, the United States sent troops to try to halt the spread of communism, but the efforts failed.

By 1975, North Vietnamese Communist armies had forcibly reunited Vietnam and begun the process of rebuilding the shattered land. The reunification of Vietnam under Communist rule had an immediate impact on the region. By the end of 1975, both Laos and Cambodia had Communist governments. In Cambodia, Pol Pot, leader of the Khmer Rouge, massacred more than 1 million Cambodians. Conflict continued in Cambodia throughout the 1980s. It was not until 1993 that Cambodians held free UN-sponsored elections. Meanwhile, the government in Vietnam remained suspicious of Western-style democracy and repressed any opposition to the Communist Party's guiding role over the state.

In 1975, Cambodia's Khmer Rouge singled out the rich, the well educated, and members of ethnic or religious minorities as enemies of the Communist government. The genocide spread to virtually anyone who could not labor on Cambodia's collectivized farms—the elderly, disabled, ill, and even children and babies. By 2003, when the Cambodian government agreed to prosecute those responsible for the genocide, most of the guilty were dead or had disappeared—including Pol Pot, who died of natural causes in 1998 and was never prosecuted. Seeing little action from Cambodia, the United Nations helped establish the Extraordinary Chambers in the Courts of Cambodia, a UN-assisted national court in 2006 to prosecute the remaining leaders. The court achieved only three convictions, leaving many to fear that the Cambodian genocide will go largely unpunished.

The Philippines

Throughout the waning years of the Cold War, some Southeast Asian societies showed signs of moving again toward more democratic governments. One example is the Philippines. President Ferdinand Marcos came to power there in 1965. Fraud and corruption became widespread in the Marcos regime. In the early 1980s, Marcos was accused of involvement in the killing of a popular opposition leader, Benigno Aquino. Corazon Aquino, wife of the murdered leader, became president in 1986 and worked for democratic reforms. Nevertheless, she soon proved unable to resolve many of the country's chronic economic and social problems.



Corazon Aquino was sworn in as president of the Philippines in February 1986. She was the first female president of the country and served until 1992.

Women in South and Southeast Asia

Throughout South and Southeast Asia, the rights and roles of women have expanded. In India, women's rights expanded after independence. The Indian constitution of 1950 forbade **discrimination** based on gender and called for equal pay for equal work. Child marriage was also outlawed. Women were encouraged to attend school and to enter the labor market. Virtually all the newly independent states in Southeast Asia have granted women full legal and political rights. Women in both regions have become more active in politics and occasionally hold senior corporate and political positions. India had its first female head of state when Indira Gandhi took office. Other female heads of state in South and Southeast Asia have included Benazir Bhutto in Pakistan, Khaleda Zia in Bangladesh, and Sirimavo Bandaranaike in Sri Lanka.

✓ CHECK FOR UNDERSTANDING

1. **Explaining** What experiences did independence bring to new Southeast Asian countries?
2. **Analyzing** What challenges did Indonesia and Myanmar confront following independence?

LESSON ACTIVITIES

1. **Informative Writing** Compare and contrast how two countries mentioned in the lesson achieved independence. Discuss how they became independent and the challenges they faced after independence.
2. **Collaborating** With a partner, create a list of economic, social, and political issues that India faced after it gained independence.

discrimination prejudicial treatment usually based on race, religion, class, sex, or age

READING STRATEGY

Analyzing Key Ideas and

Details As you read the lesson, use a graphic organizer like this to record important events related to independence, conflict, and cooperation in the Middle East.

Year	Event

Decline and Fall of the Ottoman Empire

GUIDING QUESTION

What led to the fall of the Ottoman Empire?

Over the 19th century the Ottoman Empire lost much of its territory. Its government was also increasingly in debt as a result of its efforts to build modern institutions. In 1876 Ottoman reformers seized control of the empire's government and adopted a constitution that set up a **legislature**. However, the sultan they placed on the throne, Abdülhamîd II, suspended the new constitution. Abdülhamîd paid a high price for his authoritarian actions, living in constant fear of assassination. He kept 1,000 loaded revolvers hidden throughout his guarded estate.

The suspended constitution became a symbol of change to a group of reformers named the Young Turks. This group forced the restoration of the constitution in 1908 and deposed the sultan the following year. However, the Young Turks lacked strong support for their government.

Impact of World War I

After the Ottoman government allied with Germany, the British sought to undermine Ottoman rule in the Arabian Peninsula by supporting Arab nationalist activities there. The nationalists were led by Faisal, a member of a powerful Arab family from western Arabia who would go on to become the first king of Iraq. Faisal was aided by the dashing British adventurer T. E. Lawrence, popularly known as Lawrence of Arabia.

In 1916 Arabia declared its independence from Ottoman rule. British troops advanced from Egypt and seized the Ottoman territories on the eastern coast of the Mediterranean Sea. After suffering more than 300,000 deaths during the war, the Ottoman Empire made peace with the Allies in October 1918.

Fall and Division of the Ottoman Empire

At the end of World War I, the tottering Ottoman Empire collapsed. Great Britain, France, and Russia made plans to divide Ottoman territories in the Middle East. However, Russia did not ultimately receive the land that was originally allotted to it because of its withdrawal from World War I. As a result of the final peace treaty, only the area of what is present-day Turkey remained under the control of the Ottoman government. Then Greece invaded Turkey and seized the western parts of the Anatolian Peninsula.

The invasion alarmed influential groups in Turkey, who were organized under the leadership of the war hero Colonel Mustafa Kemal. Kemal summoned a national congress calling for the creation of an elected government and a new Republic of Turkey. His forces drove the Greeks from the Anatolian Peninsula. In 1923 the last of the Ottoman sultans fled the country, which was then declared to be the new Turkish Republic. The Ottoman Empire had finally come to an end.

✓ CHECK FOR UNDERSTANDING

Identifying Cause and Effect What led to the fall of the Ottoman Empire?

legislature an organized body that makes laws



Arab Nationalism and Zionism

GUIDING QUESTION

What led to the rise of Zionism and Arab nationalism?

World War I offered the Arabs an opportunity to escape from Ottoman rule. But what would replace that rule? Without a nation-state, the Arabs were mainly united by language, Islamic culture, and a shared religious heritage. Despite these unifying traits, however, generations of political leaders have been unable to create a united Arab nation.

The Mandate System

During World War I, Great Britain supported the 1916 efforts of Arab nationalists to break away from Ottoman rule. Arab nationalists hoped support would continue after the war. Instead, Britain and France created a mandate system. The League of Nations supervised the former Ottoman territories. The League assigned Britain the Iraq and Palestine Mandates (including Transjordan); France received the Syria and Lebanon Mandates.

“To those colonies and territories which as a consequence of the late war have ceased to be under the sovereignty of the States which formerly governed them and which are inhabited by peoples not yet able to stand by themselves

under the strenuous conditions of the modern world, there should be applied the principle that the well-being and development of such peoples form a sacred trust of civilisation...that this tutelage should be exercised by them as Mandatories on behalf of the League.”

—Covenant of the League of Nations,
Article 22, 1919

With this system, European nations created the modern map of the Middle East. European interests, rather than the aspirations of the local peoples, determined the borders of new states. There was little regard for the ethnic and religious makeup of the populations. This caused ethnic and religious tensions, political unrest, and border disputes.

The Palestine Mandate and the Balfour Declaration

The Palestine Mandate complicated matters. Britain won Palestine from the Ottomans in December 1917. A month earlier, Britain issued the Balfour Declaration, supporting the formation of a national home in Palestine for Jews while also respecting the rights of non-Jewish peoples in the region. The Balfour Declaration was an important victory for Jewish nationalists—or **Zionists**—who wanted to establish a

Division of the Ottoman Empire, 1935

By 1926, British control of Egypt had ended, but the Middle East mandates remained.



GEOGRAPHY CONNECTION

1. **Global Interconnections** Which European country had control of the most land in the Middle East?
2. **Exploring Regions** What geographic advantages of the Ottoman Empire were not available to the Turks?

Zionists supporters of creating an independent Jewish state in Palestine

Jewish state in Palestine. For Jews, Palestine was the land of Israel—the birthplace and ancient homeland of the Jewish people. Yet Muslim Arabs made up about 80 percent of Palestine’s population, and they wanted their own state or to become part of a larger Arab state.

By the end of World War I, the land contained a mix of people, cultures, and religions. Muslim Arabs were the majority, but Jews had been returning to what they considered their homeland in growing numbers since the 1880s. By 1917, about 60,000 Jews lived in Palestine. The region also included a Christian population that dated back to Roman times. By 1914, Christians made up about 11 percent of Palestine’s population. A small percent of the Arab population was Druze. The Druze religion began in Egypt and spread across the Middle East, including Palestine.

In the 21st century, the region still contains different religions and cultures. About 7 million Jews live in Israel. About 21 percent of Israel’s population are Arabs, most of them Muslim, with the vast majority living in the West Bank and Gaza. The Christian population has dropped to about 2 percent, similar to the size of current Arab Druze population. The Druze have maintained a strong loyalty to the State of Israel. However, recent Israeli policies have alienated many in the Druze community.

After World War I, all the people in the region wondered about their status. In 1922 the League of Nations agreed with Britain’s proposal to incorporate the Balfour Declaration into the Mandate.

“His Majesty’s Government view with favour the establishment in Palestine of a national home for the Jewish people, and will use their best endeavours to facilitate the achievement of this object, it being clearly understood that nothing shall be done which may prejudice the civil and religious rights of existing non-Jewish communities in Palestine, or the rights and political status enjoyed by Jews in any other country.”

—from the Balfour Declaration

This language complicated matters. Under the Mandate, the British were required to help build a Jewish national home in Palestine that would one day become an independent Jewish nation. However, most of the population was composed of Palestinian Arabs who vigorously opposed the creation of a Jewish homeland.

In the 1930s, existing anti-Semitism in Europe increased with the Nazi regime in Germany. As a result, more Jews fled to the Palestine Mandate, and violence flared between Arabs and Jews. In 1936 Arabs staged a mass uprising, demanding

independence and an end to Jewish immigration. To stop the revolt, the British declared that only 75,000 Jews would be allowed to immigrate over the next five years; after that, no more Jews could do so. This closed one of the only escape routes for Jews in Nazi-occupied Europe, intensifying tensions and increasing the tragedy of the Holocaust.

✓ CHECK FOR UNDERSTANDING

Identifying Cause and Effect How did the mandate system ignore the desires of local peoples?

Modernization in the Middle East

GUIDING QUESTION

How did different Middle Eastern countries modernize?

Middle Eastern leaders looked for ways for their newly independent countries to not only survive but also succeed. Some saw modernization, or the process of abandoning or adapting traditional systems to more modern ones, as key.

Turkey

In Turkey, President Kemal, who came to be known as “Father Turk,” or Atatürk (AT • uh • tuhrk), enacted numerous reforms to meet the goal of transforming Turkey into a modern state. A democratic system was implemented and elections were held. Atatürk, however, did not tolerate opposition. His government harshly suppressed critics of his reforms.

Atatürk sought to westernize the nation. Many Arabic elements were removed from the Turkish language, which now used the Roman alphabet. Popular education was introduced, and all citizens were forced to adopt European-style last names. Atatürk also modernized Turkey’s economy by building factories and establishing a five-year plan for state control of the economy. He also tried to reform agricultural production, but his actions had little effect.

Atatürk also tried to break the power Islam had on government and society. He wanted Turkey to be a secular state—one that rejects religious influence on its policies. Atatürk said, “Religion is like a heavy blanket that keeps the people of Turkey asleep.” The **caliphate** was abolished in 1924. Men were forbidden to wear the fez, the brimless cap worn by Turkish Muslim men. Women were discouraged from wearing veils, a traditional Islamic custom. New laws gave women marriage and inheritance rights, and in 1934 women gained the right to vote.

caliphate the office or dominion of a caliph



President Kemal encouraged acceptance of dogs as part of his modernization and Westernization of Turkey. Some Islamic legal traditions warn against contact with dogs.

Iran

A similar modernization process happened in Persia. The Qājār dynasty (1794–1925) relied on Russia and Great Britain to maintain order. The discovery of oil by the British in southern Persia in 1908 attracted foreign interest. Oil exports increased, but most profits went to British investors.

The foreign presence sparked a nationalist movement. In 1921 an army officer, Reza Khan, led a military mutiny. In 1925 he named himself shah, or king, and became known as Reza Shah Pahlavi. He increased Iran's independence from foreign powers. Like Atatürk, he introduced reforms to strengthen and modernize the education system, the government, the military, and the economic system. Persia became the modern state of Iran in 1935.

Unlike Atatürk, Reza Shah Pahlavi maintained Islam. However, he forbade women from wearing veils in public. To free himself from British and Soviet influence, Reza Shah Pahlavi grew closer to Nazi Germany. During World War II, he rejected Allied demands to expel Germans from Iran. He also did not allow troops and supplies to move across Iran. In response, Great Britain and the Soviet Union invaded. Reza Shah Pahlavi resigned, and his son Mohammad Reza Pahlavi came to power.

Saudi Arabia

In the early 1920s, Abdulaziz Ibn Sa'ūd, from a powerful family in central Arabia, conquered the Arabian Peninsula, establishing the kingdom of Saudi Arabia in 1932. At first, the new kingdom, consisting mostly of vast central desert, was poor. This changed when oil was found. The Standard Oil Company of California made a successful strike at Dhahran in 1938. Soon, the Arabian-American oil company Aramco was created. The oil fields of the Middle East grew crucial to global politics and economic development. Saudi Arabia was flooded with Western oil industries that brought wealth.

✓ CHECK FOR UNDERSTANDING

1. **Comparing and Contrasting** How were Atatürk's and Reza Shah Pahlavi's ideas for change alike and different?
2. **Explaining** How did oil transform Saudi Arabia?

The Arab-Israeli Conflict

GUIDING QUESTION

What key issues underlied the Arab-Israeli conflicts?

Self-government for the largely Muslim mandates came at varying times, some at much earlier times than for others. In 1922 Egypt gained its autonomy. Its new constitution outlined the sharing of power between a king and lawmakers. Iraq also gained autonomy in the years between the two world wars, achieving it in 1932. They were not fully independent, as the British maintained a military presence and kept both Egypt and Iraq economically dependent on them. Both Syria and Lebanon had been French mandates since the early 1920s. Only after World War II would they gain their independence, which they officially won in 1946.

The issue of Palestine, however, proved to be much more complicated. Not long after World War I had come to a close, Great Britain's Palestine Mandate was split to form the separate mandates of Palestine and Transjordan. Transjordan gained its independence in 1946 as the new nation of Jordan. Only one mandate remained in place—Palestine. The ultimate decision of who would control the land after its release from the mandate would cause much consternation for its inhabitants, Great Britain, and the rest of the world.

As industry grew around the globe, many nations began to rely on the Middle East for oil, making the region a center of both profit and conflict during the Cold War. Nations in the region used the Cold War rivalry of the United States and the Soviet Union to gain political, military, and economic benefits from the superpowers, playing one against the other.

Israeli Independence

In 1947 a United Nations (UN) General Assembly resolution called for the Palestine Mandate to be divided into two states, one Jewish and one Arab. The British proposed a similar idea in 1937 but it had not gained sufficient support. The Holocaust created sympathy for the Jewish cause. People were shocked by the deliberate killing of 6 million Jews, and support for the establishment of a Jewish state was now stronger.

Zionist leaders accepted the partition, but Arab leaders across the Middle East, including the newly created organization of Arab nations called the Arab League, rejected it. They called it illegitimate and a betrayal of the Palestinian Arabs and conflict between the two groups intensified. On May 14, 1948, one day before the British Palestine Mandate was to end, Zionist leader David Ben-Gurion announced the establishment of the State of Israel. In response, five Arab countries invaded Israel, starting the 1948 Arab-Israeli War. The invasion failed, but Jordan and Egypt gained territory, and the Arab states continued to refuse to recognize the legitimacy of Israel.

As a result of the war, about 700,000 Palestinians fled in fear to Arab states or were expelled by Israeli soldiers. They became refugees, creating a refugee problem that exists to this day. About 150,000 Arabs remained in Israel and became citizens, creating a Palestinian-Arab minority in the Jewish state. The Arab-Israeli War also led to a steady exodus of about 820,000 Jews from Arab nations between 1948 and 1972. Some migrated voluntarily. Others were expelled or forced to leave as persecution against them escalated. About three-fourths settled in Israel.

Nasser and the Suez Crisis

Colonel Gamal Abdel Nasser took control of Egypt in the early 1950s. He supported Arab nationalism and opposed the existence of the state of Israel. He ordered a blockade to stop ships heading to Israel's port of Eliat, and he supported attacks on Israel.

On July 26, 1956, to strengthen Egypt's independence and prestige, Nasser seized and nationalized the Suez Canal Company, which had been under British and French control since the 1800s. Angered, Great Britain and France decided to strike back and Israel quickly joined them. The three nations launched a joint attack on Egypt, starting the Suez War of 1956. The United States and the Soviet Union joined the war on Nasser's side. This forced Britain, France, and Israel to end the war and to leave Egypt.

The outcome of the Suez Crisis strengthened Nasser's rule. To further his goal of Arab nationalism, he began to promote **Pan-Arabism**, or the belief that all Arab states should unify. In February 1958, Egypt formally united with Syria in the United Arab Republic (UAR), with Nasser as its first president. Egypt and Syria hoped the union would one day include all Arab states, but many Arab leaders were suspicious of Pan-Arabism. Nasser believed that oil revenues should be shared with poorer states to allow a higher standard of living for all. But oil-rich states did not agree. In 1961 military leaders took over Syria and withdrew the country from the UAR.

✓ CHECK FOR UNDERSTANDING

Identifying What key issues caused the Arab-Israeli conflicts?



President Nasser during the 4th anniversary celebration of the 1956 war and nationalization of the Suez Canal Company

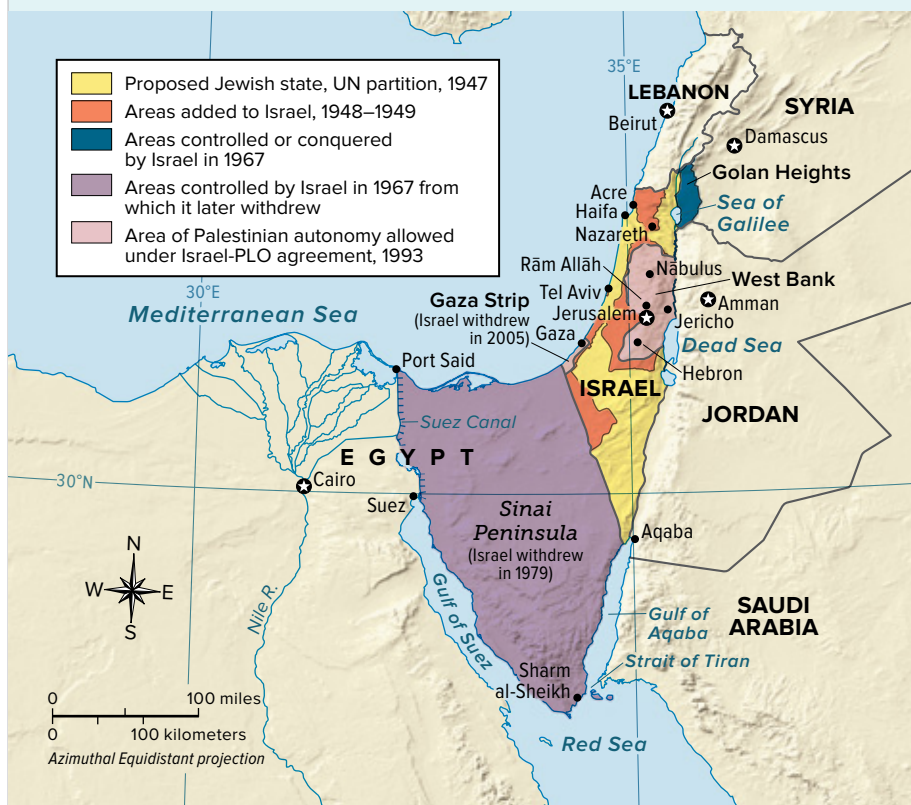
Drawing Conclusions Why do you think control of the Suez Canal Company would be important?

Pan-Arabism the belief that Arab states should unify



Arab-Israeli Disputes, 1947–1993

Conflicts and agreements have led to changes in control of disputed land.



GEOGRAPHY CONNECTION

- 1. Spatial Thinking** What makes the Sinai Peninsula strategically important in the Middle East?
- 2. Human Population** What was a result of the 1993 agreement between Israel and the PLO?

Wars in the Middle East

GUIDING QUESTION

What led to the outbreak of the Arab-Israeli wars of 1967 and 1973?

Tension in the Middle East led to the Arab-Israeli wars of 1967 and 1973. The 1967 conflict is known as the Six-Day War, and the 1973 war is known as the Yom Kippur War. These two conflicts resulted in several border changes within the region.

The 1967 Arab-Israeli War

After 1948, persistent tensions continued between Israel and its Arab neighbors. Tensions were marked by regular cross-border skirmishes between Palestinian and Israeli fighters. The Syrian-Israeli border was one site of conflict—disputes over water led to clashes. The region was also entangled in the Cold War. An Arab-Israeli arms race began as the United States supplied military equipment to the Israelis, and the Soviet Union armed the Arabs.

War loomed in May 1967 when Nasser sent Egyptian troops to the Sinai Peninsula, which bordered Israel. He convinced UN peacekeepers to withdraw from the Sinai and banned Israeli-bound ships from the Straits of Tiran. Feeling increasingly threatened and

fearing attack by Egypt and other Arab states, Israel launched air strikes on June 5, 1967, and destroyed most of Egypt's air force. In just six days, Israel defeated the Egyptian, Syrian, and Jordanian armies and took the Gaza Strip and the Sinai Peninsula from Egypt; the West Bank and East Jerusalem from Jordan; and the Golan Heights from Syria, tripling the size of its land. A million Palestinians now lived in areas under Israeli control. After the war, Israel proposed the return of the Sinai Peninsula and Golan Heights and began negotiations about Gaza and the West Bank. In exchange for these territories, Israel sought Arab recognition of its right to exist. The Arab states responded with the Khartoum Resolution: “no peace with Israel, no recognition of Israel, no negotiations with Israel.” Arab states continued to demand the return of the West Bank and Gaza.

The 1973 Arab-Israeli War

Nasser died in 1970, and Anwar el-Sadat replaced him. On October 6, 1973 (Yom Kippur, Judaism's holiest day of the year), Egypt and Syria coordinated a surprise attack against Israeli forces in the Sinai Peninsula. Israeli prime minister Golda Meir quickly mobilized troops, and Israeli forces pushed into Egypt. On October 22, there was a UN-negotiated cease-fire, and in 1974, an official disengagement agreement ended the conflict, but tensions remained.

The fighting in the Middle East had an impact on countries in the West, especially where the oil trade was concerned. In 1960, oil-producing states formed the **Organization of Petroleum Exporting Countries (OPEC)** to control the price of oil. Many OPEC members were Arab states opposed to Israel. The Arab members of OPEC responded to the 1973 war by reducing oil production and refusing to sell oil to countries that supported Israel, such as the United States. This was meant to put pressure on these countries and to reduce their support for Israel. This oil embargo led to a sharp spike in the cost of oil, causing economic problems in the West.

The Quest for Arab-Israeli Peace

In 1977 U.S. president Jimmy Carter pushed for peace between Arabs and Israelis. In 1978, he met with President Sadat of Egypt and Israeli prime minister Menachem Begin (BAY • gihn) at Camp David in the United States. The result was the Camp David Accords, an Israeli-Egyptian peace treaty. Signed in March 1979, the treaty led to Israel's withdrawal from the Sinai Peninsula and to decades of peace between Egypt and Israel.

In 1981 Sadat was assassinated by Muslim militants in Egypt who were frustrated by this peace deal. There was opposition to the Camp David Accords elsewhere. Other Arab states and the Palestine Liberation Organization (PLO), formed in 1964, opposed the Camp David Accords. The PLO, led by Yasir Arafat, initially wanted to establish a secular, democratic Palestinian state that included all of historic Palestine. The PLO hoped to 'liberate' Palestine by force. It established a guerrilla army that conducted attacks against Israel, including many terrorist attacks against civilians.

In 1987 Palestinians in the West Bank and Gaza began a mostly unarmed uprising against Israeli occupation, which became known as the **intifada**. This began a peace process between Israel and the PLO. In 1988 Arafat stated that the PLO recognized the existence of Israel and renounced terrorism. This was formalized in 1993 by the Oslo Accords, a series of agreements between Israel and the PLO. In return for recognition, Israel agreed to an autonomous Palestinian Authority in the West Bank and Gaza.

✓ CHECK FOR UNDERSTANDING

1. **Identifying Causes** What events caused the 1967 and 1973 Arab-Israeli wars?
2. **Describing** How did the PLO change over time?

Organization of Petroleum Exporting Countries (OPEC) a group formed by oil-producing states to control oil prices
intifada "shaking off"; a popular uprising against Israeli rule that broke out in the late 1980s among Palestinians in the West Bank and Gaza

Iran, Iraq, and Afghanistan

GUIDING QUESTION

What was the impact of the Iranian Revolution?

In addition to Arab-Israeli strife, Muslims in Southwest Asia and North Africa faced conflicts. The differing views of Sunnis and Shias remain a source of political and cultural tension. Many in the region wanted Muslims to return to pure Islamic culture and values to build prosperous societies. Some were willing to use violence to bring about an Islamic revolution. Such a revolution took place in Iran.

The Iranian Revolution

Under Mohammad Mossadegh, Iran nationalized its oil industry in 1951. Foreign companies lost control of Iran's oil industry. The international community was alarmed, and in 1953, Mossadegh was overthrown in a coup instigated by the U.S. Central Intelligence Agency. The rule of the shah, Mohammad Reza Pahlavi, was restored. Revenues from oil helped make Iran a rich country. However, many Iranians bristled at the cultural changes. They viewed aspects of Western culture, such as materialism, as decadent and corrupt. Western dress, particularly that of women, and social customs were called too immodest to match Islamic sensibilities. Critics also thought that secular law did not reflect their values.

Many Iranians had come to despise their government. The shah's rule was also oppressive and violent. Most Iranians had few opportunities to participate in the government, as protests were closely monitored. Also, many were out of work. Although the economy grew, it did not benefit everyone. Some questioned the shah's belief that Iran needed to Westernize to succeed. In addition, the shah's connections with the United States and with Israel alienated many Iranians. Over time, intellectuals and students withdrew support for the shah. Leading the opposition was the Ayatollah Ruhollah Khomeini (ko • MAY • nee), a member of the Muslim clergy. In 1979 the shah was overthrown and forced into exile. Iran became an Islamic republic. Although Iran had been a Shia-controlled nation for centuries, the emergence of a state led by Shia clergy increased regional tensions.

Ayatollah Khomeini's new government implemented Islamic law, establishing a **theocracy**. Supporters of the shah fled Iran or were executed. Anti-American feelings erupted when young militants seized 52 Americans in the U.S. embassy in Tehran, holding them hostage for 444 days.

theocracy a government established by divine authority and led by clerics



Protestors, objecting to the rule of Shah Mohammad Reza Pahlavi, carry images in support of Ayatollah Khomeini during the Iranian Revolution.

Speculating Why do you think there are no women in the photograph?

Since the revolution, Iran has been shunned by much of the international community and many of its neighbors within the Middle East. After Khomeini died in 1989, a more moderate government allowed some civil liberties to return to Iran. However, tensions between Iran, many of its neighbors, and the United States remained high.

The Iranian Revolution left its legacy in the Middle East, as anti-Western and pro-Islamic sentiment spread. Also, Turkey, partially in Europe, still struggles to balance Islamic and secular ideals.

Conflicts in Iran and Iraq

Iran also had conflict with Iraq, which was backed by oil rich Arab states and led by Saddam Hussein from 1979 to 2003. Tension arose from territorial disputes, including access to waterways, such as the Shatt al-Arab River, the Tigris and Euphrates Rivers, and the Strait of Hormuz, which connects the Persian Gulf and the Gulf of Oman—a vital route for petroleum exports.

In 1980 Hussein launched a war against Iran, beginning a conflict that would become known as the Iran-Iraq War. This war became known for the atrocities committed by both sides. During the Iran-Iraq War, Iran used children to clear dangerous minefields, and Iraq used poison gas against soldiers and civilians, carrying out a genocidal campaign against the Kurds, an ethnic minority in the north. In 1988 Iran and Iraq signed a cease-fire without resolving the war's basic issues.

In August 1990, Hussein sent troops to seize Kuwait, an oil-rich country on the Persian Gulf. This invasion ended rapidly, as Iraq defeated and took control of Kuwait. However, it began a wider conflict known as the Gulf War. The United States led an international force that removed the Iraqis from Kuwait. However, Hussein remained in power.

Afghanistan and the Taliban

After World War II, the king of Afghanistan built close ties to the USSR for economic assistance. In 1979 the Soviets invaded the country in response to internal insurgency. They occupied it for 10 years. Anti-Communist Islamic forces (the mujahideen), supported by the United States, Saudi Arabia, and Pakistan, eventually ousted them. When the Soviets left, Islamic groups fought for control. One of these groups, the Taliban, seized the capital city of Kabul in 1996. By autumn 1998, the Taliban controlled more than two-thirds of the country.

Backed by conservative religious forces in Pakistan, the Taliban provided a base of operations for Osama bin Laden. Bin Laden came from a wealthy family in Saudi Arabia and used his wealth to support the Afghan resistance. In 1988 bin Laden founded al-Qaeda, which called upon Muslims to fight a religious war against the West and against secular regimes in Muslim majority countries. After the Taliban seized control of much of Afghanistan, bin Laden used bases there to train al-Qaeda recruits.

✓ CHECK FOR UNDERSTANDING

1. **Identifying Cause and Effect** How did the Iranian Revolution affect Iran?
2. **Speculating** Why did the U.S. support the mujahideen?

LESSON ACTIVITIES

1. **Informative Writing** Research Golda Meir and find out how she became prime minister of Israel. What did a woman's rise to this position of power indicate about the state of Israel at the time?
2. **Presenting** With a partner, select one country in the Middle East. Together, create a presentation on this country from independence to the present. Be sure your presentation includes political, economic, and cultural changes this country has experienced.

Turning Point: Decolonization



COMPELLING QUESTION

How was independence for former colonies a turning point politically, socially, and economically?

Plan Your Inquiry

In this lesson, you will explore decolonization and its effects on people throughout the world.

DEVELOP QUESTIONS

Developing Questions about Decolonization Think about what you have read about nineteenth-century imperialism and colonialism. Then consider what you know about the independence movements that developed around the world to fight imperialism and what you know about how the world is politically organized today. Read the Compelling Question for this lesson. What questions can you ask to help you answer this Compelling Question? Write three Supporting Questions that would help you answer the Compelling Question for this lesson. Write these in a graphic organizer like the one below.

APPLY HISTORICAL TOOLS

Analyzing Primary and Secondary Sources You will work with both primary and secondary sources in this lesson. Examine the sources and analyze each source by answering the questions that follow it. How does each source help you answer your Supporting Questions? As you read the sources, take notes in your graphic organizer.

Supporting Questions	Primary Source	How this source helps me answer the Supporting Question
Question 1:		
Question 2:		
Question 3:		

After you analyze the sources, you will:

- use the evidence from the sources
- communicate your conclusions
- take informed action

Background Information

The people of Africa, Asia, the Middle East, and South America fought against the imperialism thrust upon them in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries. There are examples of rebellions large and small throughout the period and around the globe. However, in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries, organized national independence movements began to grow, and by the end of World War II, a weakened Europe had few resources to fight them. The independence movements reshaped the political face of the world. However, after achieving political independence, many states made agreements that maintained economic and military relationships with their onetime colonizers. Even today, many former colonies still face struggles and are dependent to some extent both economically and militarily on larger, more powerful nations.



Young women in Phnom Penh celebrate the second anniversary of the independence of Cambodia. Although initially a democracy, the country turned toward authoritarianism by the end of 1955.



Postwar Independence

After World War II, it became increasingly difficult for European nations to hold on to colonial and imperial possessions. As independence movements succeeded across the globe, European powers were forced to relinquish formal political control of their colonies.

SECONDARY SOURCE: MAP



EXAMINE THE SOURCE

- Identifying** Which countries shown on the map were the first to become independent, and in which year did they do so? Which countries shown on the map were the last to become independent, and in which year did they do so?
- Speculating** Why might many of the countries further away from Europe have gained their independence earlier than others?

B

Wind of Change

Unlike most African nations, South Africa had been independent for years—since 1931. The nation’s white minority controlled the government and had instituted a severe, brutal system of segregation known as apartheid, which means “apartness.” Many, if not most, white South Africans viewed African independence movements with fear. In this excerpt from a 1960 speech, British Prime Minister Harold Macmillan appeals to his audience’s sense of pride to prepare them for a future of more free African nations.

PRIMARY SOURCE : SPEECH

“ Ever since the break-up of the Roman Empire, one of the constant facts of political life in Europe has been the emergence of independent nations. They have come into existence over the centuries in different forms, different kinds of government, but all have been inspired by a deep, **keen** feeling of nationalism, which has grown as the nations have grown. . . .

Today the same thing is happening in Africa, and the most striking of all the impressions I have formed since I left London a month ago is of the strength of this African national consciousness. In different places it takes different forms, but it is happening everywhere.

The wind of change is blowing through this continent, and whether we like it or not, this growth of national consciousness is a political fact. We must all accept it as a fact, and our national policies must take account of it.”

—Harold Macmillan, “Wind of Change,” 1960, in *I Dare Say: Inside Stories of the World’s Most Powerful Speeches*, ed. Ferdie Addis, 2012

keen sharp, intense

EXAMINE THE SOURCE

1. **Analyzing** How does Macmillan describe the changes occurring in South Africa, and how is his perspective shaped by his role as prime minister?
2. **Evaluating** For Britain and other colonial powers, what were the implications of the growing national consciousness in Africa and around the world?

C

Decolonization

Decolonization was a historical process that worked to dismantle colonial systems. In many ways, it replaced the old colonial political relationships with economic dependency. This excerpt explores the process of decolonization.

SECONDARY SOURCE : ACADEMIC TEXT

“ [I]n 1939, roughly a third of the world’s entire population lived under imperial or colonial rule; today less than 0.1 per cent of the global population lives in dependent territories. . . .

On the other hand, the removal of colonial occupation did not **gather pace** until after 1945, representing a drawn-out historical process rather than a sudden event. . . .

‘Decolonization’ . . . [is] a historical movement which tended to encourage the removal of non-indigenous rule, and in relation to an ongoing historical process. . . . European powers after 1945 attempted to disengage from or were driven out of formal political occupation of their overseas possessions and . . . in some cases, they tried to reassert colonial supremacy. For those colonial rulers who lost or conceded sovereignty, decolonization invariably meant the attempt to replace imperialist control by some new kind of commercial or **strategic** relationship. On the surface, post-1945 decolonization effectively demolished the old international system—economic, geographic, and cultural—by which the developed or urban-industrial Western nations had once dominated the rest of the world.”

—John Springhall, *Decolonization since 1945: The Collapse of European Overseas Empires*, 2001

gather pace increase speed, get faster

strategic pertaining to plans and goals, usually military

EXAMINE THE SOURCE

1. **Explaining** How did global attitudes toward colonialism change after World War II?
2. **Analyzing** What type of relationship did European powers seek to replace their colonial control over other countries with during this time? Why?

Capital Flight

Capital flight, or the movement of money and investments from inside a country to outside a country, occurs when a business makes a profit by choosing to invest profits made inside a country with business and banks outside of that country. The profits from the business are thus unavailable to the home country where they were originally made. Some African countries have lost more than their entire gross domestic product (GDP) to capital flight, which limits their ability to become economically independent. This table shows the total capital flight out of Africa from 1970 to 2010.

SECONDARY SOURCE: TABLE

Capital Flight from Africa, 1970–2010		
Country	Total capital flight 2010 (billion \$)	Total capital flight/GDP 2010 (%)
Nigeria	311.4	158.2
Algeria	267.2	165.0
Morocco	87.7	96.6
Angola	77.5	93.9
Egypt	59.7	27.3
Côte d'Ivoire	56.0	244.4
South Africa	49.2	13.5
Tunisia	39.0	88.1
Sudan	38.4	57.3
Congo, Dem. Rep.	33.9	258.4
Gabon	25.5	192.9
Ethiopia	24.9	83.8
Cameroon	20.0	89.0
Congo, Rep.	19.9	165.5
Mozambique	19.8	214.7
Zimbabwe	18.3	244.2
Zambia	17.3	106.7
Tanzania	14.7	64.0
Ghana	12.4	38.4

—Léonce Ndikumana, et. al., “Capital Flight from Africa: Measurement and Drivers,” in *Capital Flight from Africa: Causes, Effects, and Policy Issues*, eds. S. Ibi Ajayi and Léonce Ndikumana, 2015

EXAMINE THE SOURCE

- Identifying** Which countries have experienced the most severe and least severe capital flight as a percentage of their GDP?
- Making Connections** Why would capital flight lead to increased dependence on foreign aid?

Your Inquiry Analysis

EVALUATE SOURCES AND USE EVIDENCE

Refer to the Compelling Question and the Supporting Questions you developed at the beginning of the lesson.

- Gathering Sources** Which sources helped you answer the Compelling Question and your Supporting Questions most directly? Which sources, if any, challenged the answers you thought you were going to arrive at when you first created your Supporting Questions? Are there any details you still need more information on? If so, where might you look to find that information?
- Evaluating Sources** Identify the sources that helped you answer your Supporting Questions. Were some more useful than others? Why or why not? How reliable is each source? How would you verify a source's reliability? Does each source provide complete, relevant, and useful information?
- Synthesizing** Look at all the sources in this lesson. How does each source contribute to your understanding of how decolonization and the success of independence movements after World War II proved to be turning points in world history? How do the sources work together to help you understand decolonization?

COMMUNICATE CONCLUSIONS

Analyzing Information Discuss with a partner what each source communicates about decolonization and its outcomes. Determine if some sources are more compelling than others and explain why. Work together to clarify any elements of the lesson that might be unclear. Then, on your own, write a short essay that answers the Compelling Question and your Supporting Questions. Use the sources provided as evidence in your essay.

TAKE INFORMED ACTION

Designing an Independence Poster In this lesson, you learned about independence and decolonization after World War II, but new independence movements are taking place today in different countries. Using library and Internet resources, research a current independence movement and create an eye-catching poster that outlines the major grievances and goals of that movement.

READING STRATEGY

Analyzing Key Ideas and

Details Read closely to identify different economic views held by African leaders after independence. Record their views in a graphic organizer like this one.

African Leader	Country	Economics Views

African Independence Movements

GUIDING QUESTION

What motivated African independence movements after World War I?

Africans fought in World War I in British and French armies. Many Africans hoped that independence after the war would be their reward. As one newspaper in the Gold Coast argued, if African volunteers who fought on European battlefields were “good enough to fight and die in the Empire’s cause, they were good enough to have a share in the government of their countries.” However, most European leaders were not ready to give up their colonies.

The peace settlement after World War I was a huge disappointment to Africans. Germany was stripped of its African colonies, but rather than gaining independence these colonies were awarded to Great Britain and France to be administered as mandates for the League of Nations. Britain and France now governed a vast portion of Africa.

African Protests

As more Africans became aware of the enormous gulf between Western ideals and practices, they decided to seek reform by becoming more politically active. Reform movements took different forms. In Kenya, for example, one of the most important issues concerned land redistribution. Large tracts of land were given to white settlers. Africans received little if any **compensation** for this land and had to become squatters if they wanted to farm.

During the 1920s, moderate reform organizations emerged in Kenya. They were mostly founded by the Kikuyu, Kenya’s largest ethnic group, which made up about 20 percent of the total population. The Kikuyu Central Association (KCA), started in 1920 by farmers and supported by most older community leaders, was intent on blocking further land confiscation. The association was willing to work for reform within the existing colonial structure.

Some of the Kenyan reformers were more radical, however. Harry Thuku, a Kenyan nationalist, was at the center of the first modern African political protest movement. In 1921, Thuku and other like-minded young Kenyans founded the Young Kikuyu Association to challenge European authority and demand representation in the legislature. Thuku also protested against the high taxes levied by the British and openly accused the colonial government of stealing African land.

During one protest, Thuku was arrested. When an angry crowd stormed the jail and demanded his release, government authorities fired into the crowd and killed at least 20 people. Thuku was sent into exile but remained a Kenyan national leader.

Libya also struggled against foreign rule in the 1920s. Forces led by Omar Mukhtar used unconventional warfare tactics against the Italians and defeated them a number of times. The Italians reacted ferociously. They established concentration camps and used all available modern weapons to crush the revolt. Mukhtar’s death ended the movement.

Although colonial powers typically responded to reform movements with force, they also began to make some changes in an effort to satisfy African

compensation payment



Independent Africa

During the mid-twentieth century, many African nations gained their independence from European colonial powers.



GEOGRAPHY CONNECTION

- Global Interconnections** Why do you think many of the African nations that had previously been colonized all gained their independence around the same time?
- Human Population** Which African nations were never European colonies?

peoples. Reforms, however, were too few and too late. By the 1930s, an increasing number of African leaders were calling for independence, not reform.

New Leaders

Calls for independence came from young African leaders who wanted to internationalize African politics by involving black intellectuals and leaders in other countries. For example, the young Africans reached out to W.E.B. Du Bois and Marcus Garvey in the United States for their support and ideas.

Du Bois, an African American who was educated at Harvard University, led a movement that tried to make all Africans aware of their own cultural heritage. Garvey, a Jamaican who lived in Harlem in New York City, stressed the need for the unity of all Africans, a movement known as **Pan-Africanism**. His *Declaration of the Rights of the Negro Peoples of the World*, issued in 1920, had a strong impact on later African leaders.

People within individual African nations also drove independence movements. Jomo Kenyatta of Kenya argued in his book *Facing Mount Kenya* that British

rule was destroying the traditional culture of the peoples of Africa. Léopold Senghor, who wrote poetry about African culture, organized an independence movement in Senegal. Nnamdi Azikiwe of Nigeria began a newspaper, *The West African Pilot*, in 1937 and urged nonviolence as a method of gaining independence.

France presented its territories with an opportunity in 1958. They could vote to either join a new French-governed federal community or become their own self-governed nations. A successful campaign in Côte d'Ivoire, led by Félix Houphouët-Boigny, secured self-governance and independence for the country and led to his election as president in 1960. Tanzania followed suit, and longtime activist Julius Nyerere was elected its president. These are just a few of the leaders who worked to end colonial rule in Africa. Success, however, would not come until after World War II.

✓ CHECK FOR UNDERSTANDING

Explaining What motivated African independence movements after World War I?

Pan-Africanism the unity of all Africans, regardless of national boundaries

Post-War Independence

GUIDING QUESTION

How did World War II assist the movement for political independence in Africa?

Many Africans fought with the Allies in World War II. This intensified their desire for independence. Nationalist movements across Africa were strengthened by this growing desire and pressured Europeans to end colonial rule. The Charter of the United Nations, which stated that all colonial peoples should have the right to self-determination, supported this desire. African nations were further emboldened by India's successful independence movement. In the late 1950s and 1960s, most African nations achieved independence. However, in many instances, colonial powers still heavily influenced the political and economic systems of newly independent states, and those powers often shaped the governments and economies of these new states.

Gaining Independence

The first French African territories to become independent were in North Africa. In 1956, France granted independence to Tunisia and Morocco. However, the French kept Algeria because it was home to at least a million French settlers. When Algerian nationalists began fighting for independence, many French people viewed this resistance as an act of treason. The resulting war lasted seven and a half years. France finally granted Algeria independence in 1962. Shortly after, most of the settlers of French descent in Algeria departed for France.

The first British colony to gain independence in Africa was the Gold Coast in 1957. It was renamed Ghana after the west African empire of the Middle Ages. Nationalist leader Kwame Nkrumah became its first president. Nigeria followed in 1960, Sierra Leone and Tanganyika (now Tanzania) in 1961, Uganda in 1962, Kenya in 1963, and Botswana in 1966.

In 1959, after calls for independence, the Belgian government announced a phased withdrawal from its colony, Congo, which gained independence in 1960. Mozambique and Angola gained independence from Portugal in 1975 after many years of conflict.

As African nations have gained independence, the rights of indigenous people have also expanded. One way this has been achieved is through the emergence of civil-society groups that lobby on behalf of historically marginalized groups. Such efforts, alongside African independence, have contributed to increased voting rights and representation, decreased discrimination, protections for cultural and traditional practices, and reclamation of ancestral lands. Some countries, like Burundi, have successfully guaranteed through constitutional amendments that indigenous people have representation in government.

Pan-Africanism

The African states that achieved independence in the 1950s, 1960s, and 1970s faced many problems. The leaders of these states and their citizens envisioned stable governments and economic prosperity. Some Africans believed in the ideas of Pan-Africanists such as W.E.B. Du Bois and Marcus Garvey. In the view of Pan-Africanists, all black African peoples share a common identity. Several of the new African leaders, including Léopold Senghor, Kwame Nkrumah, and Jomo Kenyatta, supported Pan-Africanism.

“ Our objective is African union now. There is no time to waste. We must unite now or perish. . . . On this continent, it has not taken us long to discover that the struggle against colonialism does not end with the attainment of national independence. Independence is only the prelude to a new and more involved struggle for the right to conduct our own economic and social affairs.”

—Kwame Nkrumah, speech to the Organization of African Unity, May 24, 1963



Jomo Kenyatta waving a fly whisk, a symbol of status and prestige that would become strongly associated with him, shortly after becoming prime minister.

Inferring What can you infer about the action in the photograph?

Nkrumah hoped that a Pan-African union would join all the new countries of the continent in a broader community. His dream never became reality. However, the Organization of African Unity (OAU), founded by the leaders of 32 African states in 1963, was a result of the belief in Pan-Africanism. Its purpose was to end all forms of colonialism, safeguard the interests and independence of all African nations, encourage the continent's economic development, and settle disputes among member nations. Today, the OAU is known as the African Union.

✓ CHECK FOR UNDERSTANDING

Explaining What is the core belief of Pan-Africanism?

South Africa

GUIDING QUESTION

How did Mandela contribute to the end of apartheid?

In South Africa, whites dominated the political system. Blacks began organizing against white rule and formed the African National Congress (ANC) in 1912. Its goal of economic and political reform was met with little initial success.

Apartheid

By the 1950s, South African whites (descendants of the Dutch, known as Afrikaners) had strengthened the laws separating whites and blacks. The result was a system of racial segregation and discrimination known as **apartheid** (“apartness”).

Blacks demonstrated against these laws, but were brutally repressed by the white government. In 1960 police opened fire on people who were leading a peaceful march in Sharpeville, killing 69 marchers, two-thirds of whom were shot in the back. After the arrest of ANC leader Nelson Mandela in 1962, members of the organization called for armed resistance to the white government. On June 12, 1964, the South African court sentenced Mandela to life in prison for sabotage and conspiracy against the government. He narrowly escaped the death penalty.

The End of Apartheid

Imprisoned for his activities with the African National Congress, Nelson Mandela spent more than 27 years in various prisons in South Africa, including the maximum-security Pollsmoor Prison. However, he never wavered in his resolve to secure the freedom of his country. While Mandela was offered freedom in 1985, with conditions. He refused to accept, saying: “Only free men can negotiate. Prisoners cannot enter into contracts. . . . Your freedom and mine cannot be separated.”

South African bishop Desmond Tutu and others worked to free Mandela. African resistance, global pressure, and economic sanctions forced South Africa to end apartheid. In 1993 South Africa held its first democratic elections. In 1990 Mandela was released from prison and became South Africa's first black president in 1994. His inaugural speech framed his hopes:

“ We shall build the society in which all South Africans, both black and white, will be able to walk tall, without any fear in their hearts, assured of their inalienable right to human dignity—a rainbow nation at peace with itself and the world.”

—Nelson Mandela, *from In His Own Words*

✓ CHECK FOR UNDERSTANDING

Analyzing What forces contributed to the end of apartheid?



South Africans wait in line to vote in the 1994 election, the first for the country with universal adult suffrage.

Speculating Why do you think the lines to cast a ballot were so long?

apartheid “apartness”; the system of racial segregation in South Africa from 1948 until 1991

PHOTO: Peter Turnley/Corbis Historical/Getty Images, TEXT: (b) Mandela, Nelson. Long Walk to Freedom. New York, NY: Little, Brown and Company, 2008., (tr) Mandela, Nelson, and Wilmut James. Nelson Mandela in His Own Words. Edited by Kader Asmal and David Chidester. New York, NY: Little, Brown and Company, 2003.

© McGraw Hill 2023 all rights reserved. This material is provided for individual evaluation purposes only and may not be downloaded, reproduced or distributed.

The Cold War in Africa

GUIDING QUESTION

How was Africa affected by the Cold War?

The Organization of African Unity, which included within its 32 member nations the North African countries of Egypt, Algeria, and Tunisia, presented a united front against the influence of the United States and the Soviet Union during the Cold War. While some African countries were part of the nonaligned movement and did not take sides in the Cold War, others looked to the United States and the Soviet Union as economic models.

Some leaders, such as Jomo Kenyatta of Kenya, believed in Western-style capitalism. Leaders in Angola and Mozambique followed Soviet-style communism. Other leaders, such as Julius Nyerere of Tanzania, Kwame Nkrumah of Ghana, Sékou Touré of Guinea, and Patrice Lumumba of the Republic of Congo, preferred an “African form of socialism.”

The African form of socialism was not like that practiced in the Soviet Union or Eastern Europe. Instead, it was based on African traditions of community in which ownership of the country’s wealth would be put into the hands of the people. As Nyerere declared in 1967, “The basis of socialism is a belief in the oneness of man and the common historical destiny of mankind. Its basis . . . is human equality.”

Regardless of political ideology, many people hoped that independence would lead to democratic government. They were soon disappointed. Between 1957 and 1982, more than 70 African leaders were violently overthrown. New governments often used force to attempt to integrate the multiple ethnic groups found within their borders into a cohesive group that was loyal to the regime. In the 1980s, either the military or a single party ruled many major African states. In the 1990s, multiparty elections increased, but single-party rule still predominated.

Despite the OAU’s push for nonalignment in the Cold War, some African nations were drawn into proxy wars as the United States and the Soviet Union took opposing sides in political struggles in the newly independent countries, notably in Angola, Somalia, and Congo. This caused prolonged conflict and corruption in some parts of Africa, and it undermined political development

For example, after the Republic of the Congo gained its independence from Belgium, the new state was unstable, and its early leaders struggled to keep the southern provinces from breaking away. By 1965, the chief of staff of Congo’s armed forces, Joseph Mobutu, gained control of the government in a nonviolent coup. A firm opponent of communism, Mobutu was supported financially by the United States. U.S. leaders believed that he would serve as a safeguard against the spread

of Soviet influence in central Africa. Mobutu made many authoritarian changes. He outlawed all political parties but his own, elections became rare, and corruption under Mobutu’s unchallenged rule became common. When the Soviet Union fell in the early 1990s, relations between Mobutu and the United States cooled.

✓ CHECK FOR UNDERSTANDING

Identifying What different kinds of economies did newly independent African countries form?

Economic, Environmental, and Political Challenges

GUIDING QUESTION

What challenges have African states faced in the years following their independence

By the late 1970s, 50 African nations had won their independence. By 1980, independent African nations made up more than one-quarter of the membership of the United Nations. For many of those nations, independence brought a series of new economic, social, and environmental challenges to tackle and overcome. Some also faced ethnic and nationalist challenges which were issues often created by the arbitrary nature of colonial boundaries.

Economic Challenges

Most African nations still relied on the export of a single crop or natural resource. Liberia, for example, depended on the export of rubber, while Nigeria depended on oil. The prices of these goods could vary greatly on the world market. When prices for nations’ resources dropped, their economies suffered. Most African states also imported technology and manufactured goods from the West and depended on foreign financial aid to develop their countries.

The new states also sometimes created their own problems. Scarce national resources were spent on military equipment or expensive consumer goods rather than on building the foundations for an industrial economy. Corruption was common.

Both external pressures and internal concerns contributed to numerous problems within the newly independent African countries. Poverty was widespread among both rural and urban dwellers. As cities grew, they became overpopulated with displaced rural residents. This overwhelmed sanitation and transportation systems, resulting in pollution and perpetual traffic jams. Millions lived without access to electricity or even clean water. Meanwhile, a fortunate few enjoyed lavish lifestyles. The rich in many East African countries became known as the *wabenzi*, or Mercedes-Benz people.

Social Challenges

As in the rest of the world, there are social divisions between Africa's urban and rural communities. Though often united by culture or religion, these areas often observe vastly different ways of life.

About 60 percent of the population of Africa lives outside the major cities, where modern influence has had less of an impact. Many Africans farm, hunt, or raise livestock by traditional methods, wear traditional clothing, and practice traditional beliefs. Conditions such as drought or flooding affect the ability of rural Africans to grow crops or to tend herds. Some migrate to the cities for work, but this can be very disruptive to families and villages. Many urban people view rural people as backward. Rural dwellers view the cities as corrupting and destructive to traditional African values.

After independence, women's roles in African society changed. Almost without exception, women were allowed to vote and run for political office. Some became leaders of their countries. Women still hold few political offices, however. Although they dominate some professions, such as teaching, childcare, and clerical work, they do not share in all career opportunities. Most African women are employed in low-paid positions, such as farm laborers, factory workers, and servants. Furthermore, in many rural areas, traditional attitudes toward women, including arranged marriages, prevail.

The tension between traditional and modern culture and between indigenous and foreign influences also affects African societies. A dilemma for many contemporary African artists is finding a balance between Western techniques and training and the rich heritage of traditional African art forms. In some countries, governments make the artists' decisions. Artists are told to depict scenes of traditional life, often to serve the tourist industry.

Environmental Challenges

Droughts and rapid population growth have also slowed economic growth and taxed resources. Since the 1980s, recurring droughts in many African countries, including Djibouti, Eritrea, Ethiopia, Kenya, Somalia, and Uganda, have caused starvation and migration. Diseases, such as **HIV/AIDS**, have also presented major challenges to African progress. AIDS is a worldwide epidemic, but Africa is hardest hit. HIV/AIDS has had a serious impact on children and families in Africa. Many children have lost one or both parents to AIDS. Often, relatives are too poor to care for these children. Many orphans thus become heads of households filled with younger siblings. Extended families have been a source of support in difficult times, especially in rural Africa. The HIV/AIDS epidemic, however, has overwhelmed this support system. While

HIV/AIDS human immunodeficiency virus/acquired immunodeficiency syndrome; any of the strains of HIV-1 and HIV-2 that infect and destroy the immune system's helper T cells, causing a large drop in their numbers

African nations have taken steps to fight the epidemic, it has proved a tremendous burden because many of these countries do not have the money or health facilities to educate their citizens about the disease and how to protect against it. Nor can they purchase the drugs that would extend the lives of those with HIV.

Ethnic and Nationalist Conflicts

Within many African nations, warring ethnic groups undermined the concept of nationhood. Colonial powers arbitrarily drew the boundaries of African nations. Virtually all these states had issues because their borders randomly divided or united the diverse ethnic, linguistic, and territorial groups in Africa, some of which had long standing rivalries.

Some African governments with a majority ethnic group in leadership have used loyalty to the state as a way of forcing minority ethnic groups to conform. This has also led to conflict in places such as Nigeria and Zimbabwe. In central Africa, fighting between the Hutu and Tutsi created unstable governments in Rwanda and Burundi. During the colonial period, Hutu and Tutsi peoples lived together under European control. After independence in 1962, two new countries were created: Rwanda and Burundi. The population in both countries was mixed, but in Rwanda, the Hutu majority ran the government. The Hutu resented the position of the Tutsi, who had gotten the best education and jobs when the Belgians had been in control. In 1994 a genocide by the Hutu left some 500,000 Tutsi dead in Rwanda.

Popular demonstrations led to the collapse of one-party regimes and the emergence of democracies in several countries. One case was that of Idi Amin of Uganda. After ruling by terror and brutal repression throughout the 1970s, Amin was deposed in 1979. Dictatorship also came to an end in Ethiopia, Liberia, and Somalia. In these cases, however, the fall of the regime was later followed by bloody civil war.

✓ CHECK FOR UNDERSTANDING

1. **Summarizing** What challenges did newly independent African countries face?
2. **Making Connections** How has the HIV/AIDS epidemic affected Africa?

LESSON ACTIVITIES

1. **Informative/Explanatory Writing** Research independence movements in two African nations. Compare how political ideology, ethnicity, and religion shaped their resulting governments.
2. **Collaborating** With a small group, select a specific country and research its demographics at the time of independence. Then, create a proposal for a new government and explain your decisions.

Understanding Multiple Perspectives: Voices of Independence



COMPELLING QUESTION

How did independence movements affect life in colonized countries?

Plan Your Inquiry

In this lesson, you will learn about independence movements around the world.

DEVELOP QUESTIONS

Developing Questions about Independence Movements

Think about what you have learned about the independence movements in South America, Asia, the Middle East, and Africa. Then read the Compelling Question for this lesson. What questions can you ask to help you answer this Compelling Question? Write three Supporting Questions that would help you answer the Compelling Question for this lesson. Write these in a graphic organizer like the one below.

APPLY HISTORICAL TOOLS

Analyzing Primary and Secondary Sources You will work mainly with primary sources in this lesson, reading the words of independence leaders. Examine the sources and analyze each one by answering the questions that follow it. How does each source help you answer the Supporting Questions you created? As you read the sources, take notes in your graphic organizer.

Source	Author/ Creator	Description/ Notes	Which Supporting Question does this source help me answer?
A			
B			
C			
D			
E			

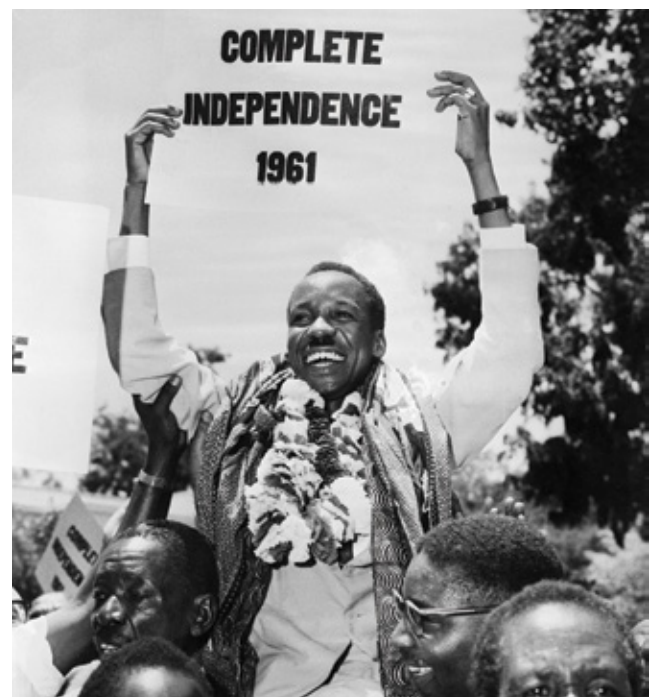
After you analyze the sources, you will:

- use the evidence from the sources
- communicate your conclusions
- take informed action

Background Information

In the early twentieth century and especially after World War II, independence movements arose around the world. These efforts to overthrow direct colonial rule succeeded, and dozens of newly independent nations were founded from the late 1940s through the 1960s. Many of the leaders of the independence movements were part of the educated elite in their countries and had studied European law and political science. Others were members of the military.

During the same period, some countries, such as Chile and Egypt, while politically independent, were still under a form of control by more powerful nations. These countries, too, faced struggles. Since they had already attained political independence, movements in these nations aimed to achieve economic independence and freedom from the influence of their former colonial rulers.



» Wearing a garland of flowers, Julius Nyerere, who became Tanganyika's first Prime Minister, is carried by supporters in the year of their independence, 1961.



A

Salvador Allende

In 1970 Salvador Allende was elected president of Chile in a close race. This excerpt addresses the election and ways Allende responded to concerns about his possible election.



SECONDARY SOURCE : ACADEMIC TEXT

“ [Allende] referred to plots to **subvert** the country by bribing members of the armed forces and creating economic chaos. If ‘the people’ were defrauded of their victory he said, the message would be spread through the trade unions, the **Unidad Popular** committees, and by radio. ‘Those who are insanely trying to provoke such a situation . . . should know that the whole country will stop, that there will not be a company, an industry, a workshop, a school, a hospital, or farm that functions—as a first demonstration of our strength. They should know that the workers will occupy the factories and the peasants the land, the white-collar workers [*empleados*] will be in the public offices awaiting the orders of Popular Unity. . . .’

[In an] interview by the *New York Times* . . . Allende rejected the accusation that his government would be totalitarian. Promising to form ‘a multi-party government, a nationalist, popular, democratic, and revolutionary government that will move towards socialism,’ he added, ‘For you to be a Communist or a Socialist is to be a totalitarian; for me, no. . . . I am a founder of the Socialist Party and I must tell you then that I am not a totalitarian. On the contrary, I think Socialism frees man.’ ”

—Paul E. Sigmund, *The Overthrow of Allende and the Politics of Chile, 1964–1976*, 1977

subvert undermine; corrupt
Unidad Popular in English, “Popular Unity,” a left-wing political alliance that supported Allende

EXAMINE THE SOURCE

1. **Explaining** What does Allende say will happen if there is an attempt to undermine the election?
2. **Analyzing** How does Allende address accusations his government will be totalitarian?

B

Jawaharlal Nehru

When India gained its independence, Jawaharlal Nehru became the nation’s first prime minister. This excerpt is from the speech he gave at midnight when India became independent.



PRIMARY SOURCE : SPEECH

“ Long years ago we made a **tryst** with destiny, and now the time comes when we shall **redeem** our pledge, not wholly or in full measure, but very substantially. At the stroke of the midnight hour, when the world sleeps, India will awake to life and freedom. A moment comes, which comes but rarely in history, when we step out from the old to the new, when an age ends, and when the soul of a nation, long suppressed, finds utterance. It is fitting that at this solemn moment we take the pledge of dedication to the service of India and her people and to the still larger cause of humanity. . . .

Freedom and power bring responsibility. The responsibility rests upon this Assembly, a sovereign body representing the sovereign people of India. Before the birth of freedom we have endured all the pains of labour and our hearts are heavy with the memory of this sorrow. . . .

The appointed day has come—the day appointed by destiny—and India stands forth again, after long slumber and struggle, awake, vital, free and independent. ”

—Jawaharlal Nehru, “The Noble Mansion of Free India,” 1947

tryst an appointed meeting

redeem fulfill

EXAMINE THE SOURCE

1. **Explaining** How does Nehru frame the birth of an independent India?
2. **Evaluating** Is Nehru’s speech effective? Does it match the majesty of the occasion? Explain.

C

Patrice Lumumba

In 1960 Patrice Lumumba was elected the first prime minister of the Democratic Republic of the Congo after four years of struggle. This excerpt is from the speech he delivered on the day of Congo's independence.



PRIMARY SOURCE : SPEECH

“ I ask all of you, my friends, who tirelessly fought in our ranks, to mark this June 30, 1960, as an illustrious date that will be ever engraved in your hearts, a date whose meaning you will proudly explain to your children, so that they in turn might relate to their grandchildren and great-grandchildren the glorious history of our struggle for freedom.

Although this independence of the Congo is being proclaimed today by agreement with Belgium, an amicable country, with which we are on equal terms, no Congolese will ever forget that independence was won in struggle, a persevering and inspired struggle carried on from day to day, a struggle, in which we were undaunted by **privation** or suffering and **stinted** neither strength nor blood.

It was filled with tears, fire and blood. We are deeply proud of our struggle, because it was just and noble and indispensable in putting an end to the humiliating bondage forced upon us.

That was our lot for the eighty years of colonial rule and our wounds are too fresh and much too painful to be forgotten.”

—Patrice Lumumba, “My Government Serves the People,” 1960

privation a state of being deprived

stinted limited; restricted; held back

EXAMINE THE SOURCE

1. **Identifying** How does Lumumba describe Congo and Belgium at the point of independence?
2. **Speculating** Why does Lumumba remind his listeners of the struggle for independence?

D

Achmed Sukarno

Achmed Sukarno became the first president of Indonesia after it gained independence. In this excerpt from his autobiography, he describes the unforeseen consequences that resulted from outside pressure to emulate Dutch-style democracy.



PRIMARY SOURCE : AUTOBIOGRAPHY

“ Their [the British and Dutch] concepts of a society in which the President was liable for what went on had overtones of Nazi Germany. . . . ‘If President Sukarno is Chief of the Government, Commander-in-Chief of the Army, and head of the Cabinet, it is Fascistic,’ thundered Sir Philip Christison and other British Generals. . . .

‘No,’ we exclaimed, ‘it is Indonesian-influenced. To us, a head of state is like a head of a family. . . . The elder or village chief shoulders all burdens for his village. This has been the Indonesian way through centuries.’ We strove desperately to **garner** the approval of the world. . . .

Over 40 dissimilar parties sprang up. So terrified were we of being labeled ‘a Japanese-sponsored Fascistic dictatorship’ that single individuals forming splinter organizations were tolerated as ‘mouthpieces of democracy.’ Political parties grew like weeds with shallow roots and interests top-heavy with petty selfishness and vote-catching. Internal strife grew. We faced disaster, endless conflicts, hair-raising confusion. Indonesians previously pulling together now pulled apart.”

—Achmed Sukarno, as told to Cindy Adams, *Sukarno: An Autobiography*, 1965

garner to gather; to collect

EXAMINE THE SOURCE

1. **Identifying** How does Sukarno characterize Indonesia's initial form of government?
2. **Explaining** What challenges did the Indonesian political system ultimately face?

Gamal Abdel Nasser

Gamal Abdel Nasser gained widespread popularity in Egypt after he nationalized the Suez Canal. This excerpt is from a speech he delivered in response to a U.S. proposal that the canal be split among 18 nations.

PRIMARY SOURCE : SPEECH

“ In these decisive days in the history of mankind, these days in which truth struggles to have itself recognized in international chaos where powers of evil domination and imperialism have prevailed, Egypt stands firmly to preserve her sovereignty. Your country stands solidly and **staunchly** to preserve her dignity against imperialistic schemes of a number of nations who have uncovered their desires for domination and supremacy.

In these days and in such circumstances Egypt has resolved to show the world that when small nations decide to preserve their sovereignty, they will do that all right and that when these small nations are fully determined to defend their rights and maintain their dignity, they will undoubtedly succeed in achieving their ends. . . .

I am speaking in the name of every Egyptian Arab and in the name of all free countries and of all those who believe in liberty and are ready to defend it. I am speaking in the name of principles proclaimed by these countries in the Atlantic Charter. But they are now violating these principles and it has become our lot to shoulder the responsibility of reaffirming and establishing them anew.”

—Gamal Abdel Nasser, “Speech by President Nasser Denouncing Proposal for a Canal Users Association,” in *The Suez Canal Problem: July 26–September 22, U.S. Department of State Publication No. 6392*, 1956

staunchly with strength

EXAMINE THE SOURCE

1. **Drawing Conclusions** How does Nasser characterize the challenge to Egyptian control of the Suez Canal?
2. **Making Connections** What document does Nasser use to defend nationalization of the canal, and how does it relate to his argument?

Your Inquiry Analysis

EVALUATE SOURCES AND USE EVIDENCE

Refer to the Compelling Question and the Supporting Questions you developed at the beginning of the lesson.

1. **Gathering Sources** Which sources helped you answer the Compelling Question and your Supporting Questions most directly? Which sources, if any, challenged the answers you thought you were going to arrive at when you first created your Supporting Questions? Are there details you still need more information on? If so, where might you look to find that information?
2. **Evaluating Sources** Identify the sources that helped you answer your Supporting Questions. How reliable is each source? How would you verify the reliability of each source? Does each source provide complete, relevant, and useful information?
3. **Comparing and Contrasting** Compare and contrast two of the leaders presented in this lesson. What do these excerpts reveal about their ideas? How were their ideas similar? How were they different? Consider the reasons for their nationalism and the effects of it.

COMMUNICATE CONCLUSIONS

Analyzing Perspectives With a partner, discuss how the unique perspective of each source affects the way you think about independence movements. Consider what each leader is saying about the fight for independence and its consequences. Then, on your own, write a short essay that uses evidence from the sources to answer the Compelling Question and your Supporting Questions. Use the graphic organizer that you created at the beginning of the lesson to help you.

TAKE INFORMED ACTION

Making a Speech Several of the excerpts in this lesson are from speeches given by world leaders at pivotal moments in their countries' histories. Through the ages, speeches such as these not only served to commemorate important events but also inspire contemporary listeners and future generations. Think of an important event in your school or community that deserves to be remembered, and write a speech that captures its importance and inspires listeners.

READING STRATEGY

Analyzing Key Ideas and

Details Read closely to identify significant events in the history of South America, Mexico and Central America, and the Caribbean. Record the events in a graphic organizer like the one below.

Significant Events	
South America	
Mexico and Central America	
Caribbean	

Trends in Latin America Through the Great Depression

GUIDING QUESTION

What factors influenced the Latin American economy in the 1920s and 1930s?

The early twentieth century marked a turning point in Latin America's relationship with the rest of the world. As a result of World War I, Europe's power over Latin America lessened while the power of the United States grew. From that point forward, the relationships between foreign powers and Latin American states were greatly influenced by the policies of the United States.

Role of the United States

Beginning in the 1920s, the United States began to replace Great Britain as the major **investor** in Latin America. British investors had put money into stocks and other forms of investment that did not give them direct control of Latin American companies. U.S. investors, however, put their money directly into production facilities and ran companies themselves. In this way, large segments of Latin America's export industries fell into U.S. hands, leaving little revenue for the Latin American countries where the companies operated. A number of smaller Central American countries became independent republics, but their economies still depended on wealthy nations. The U.S.-owned United Fruit Company, for example, owned land, packing plants, and railroads in Central America. American firms also gained control of the copper-mining industry in Chile and Peru, as well as the oil industry in Mexico, Peru, and Bolivia.

Many Latin Americans resented U.S. control of Latin American industries. A growing nationalist awareness led them to view the United States as an imperial power. It was not difficult for Latin American nationalists to show that profits from U.S. businesses were sometimes used to keep ruthless dictators in power. In Venezuela, for example, U.S. oil companies had close ties to the dictator Juan Vicente Gómez.

In fact, the United States had always cast a large shadow over Latin America. It had intervened militarily in Latin American affairs for years. This was especially true in Central America and the Caribbean, regions that many Americans viewed as vital to national security. In the 1930s, the United States attempted to change its relationship with Latin America. In 1933 President Franklin Roosevelt announced the Good Neighbor Policy, rejecting the use of U.S. military force in Latin America. He removed the last U.S. Marines from the region in 1934, emphasizing cooperation and trade over military power.

Impact of the Great Depression

In the early twentieth century, the Latin American economy was based largely on the export of foodstuffs and raw materials. Some countries relied on only one or two products for sale abroad. Argentina, for example, exported beef and wheat; Chile, nitrates and copper; Brazil, coffee and cotton; in the Caribbean, Cuba exported sugar; the Central American countries exported bananas. United States investors and local landowners reaped large profits from these exports. For most of the local workers, however, the returns were small, and they saw few benefits.

investor an individual or organization that puts money into a business or industry in exchange for a financial return.





A rail car owned by the United Fruit Company is loaded with bananas in 1915.

Speculating What about the railroad made it possible to sell bananas from Central America in the U.S.?

The Great Depression was a disaster for Latin America's economy. Weak U.S. and European economies meant less demand for Latin American exports, especially coffee, sugar, metals, and meat. The total value of Latin American exports in 1930 was almost 50 percent below the figures for the years 1925 through 1929. The countries that depended on the export of only one product were especially hurt.

The Great Depression, however, had one positive effect on the Latin American economy. When exports declined, Latin American countries could no longer buy manufactured goods from abroad. Thus, their governments began to encourage the development of new industries to produce manufactured goods. The hope was that industrial development would bring greater economic independence.

Often, **entrepreneurs** could not start new businesses because **capital** was scarce in the private sector. Governments, however, could invest in whole industries. This led to government-run steel industries in Chile and Brazil and government-run oil industries in Argentina and Mexico.

Although governments had access to capital, they were not immune to the effects of the Great Depression. Before the Depression, most Latin American countries were republics. In reality, however, a relatively small group of church officials, military leaders, and large landowners ruled each country and controlled the masses of mostly poor peasants. Military forces were crucial to keeping these special-interest groups in power, which pushed many countries toward authoritarianism. This trend increased during the 1930s as economic crises caused domestic instability. Authoritarianism was especially

prevalent in the countries of Argentina and Brazil. Both would experience military coups. Together, these nations possessed more than half of the land and wealth of Latin America.

Argentina

In the late 1800s Argentina was controlled by an **oligarchy**, a government in which a select group of people exercised control. This oligarchy of large landowners who had grown wealthy from the export of beef and wheat failed to realize the growing importance of industry and cities in their country. They also ignored the growing middle class, which reacted by forming the Radical Civic Union Party in 1890.

In 1916 Hipólito (ee · POH · lee · TOH) Irigoyen (ih · ih · GOH · yehn), leader of the Radical Civic Union Party, was elected president of Argentina. The Radical Civic Union Party was a socially liberal party that held democratic values, such as universal male suffrage. Because party leaders feared the working class, who were using strikes to improve their conditions, they drew closer to the large landowners and became more corrupt.

The military was also concerned with the rising power of factory workers. In 1930 the Argentinean army overthrew President Irigoyen and reestablished the power of the large landowners. Through this action, the military hoped to continue the old export economy and stop the growth of working-class power that would come with more industrialization. During World War II, restless military officers formed a new organization, the Group of United Officers (GOU). They were unhappy with the Argentinian government and overthrew it in June 1943.

entrepreneur a person who takes financial risks to establish and run a business

capital financial assets, often in the form of money

oligarchy "the rule of the few"; a form of government in which a select group of people exercises control

Brazil

In 1889 the Brazilian army overthrew the country's monarchy and established a republic. It was controlled chiefly by the landed elites, who had become wealthy from large coffee plantations. By 1900, three-fourths of the world's coffee was grown in Brazil. As long as coffee prices remained high, the ruling oligarchy was able to maintain its power. The oligarchy largely ignored the growth of urban industry and the working class that came with it.

The Great Depression devastated the coffee industry. By the end of 1929, coffee prices had hit a record low. In 1930 a military coup made Getúlio Vargas, a wealthy rancher, president of Brazil. Vargas ruled Brazil from 1930 to 1945. Early in his rule, he appealed to workers by establishing an eight-hour workday and a minimum wage.

However, when faced with strong opposition in 1937, Vargas made himself dictator. Beginning in 1938, he established his New State. It was essentially an authoritarian regime with some fascist-like features. Political parties were outlawed, and civil rights were restricted. Secret police silenced Vargas's opponents.

Vargas also attempted to stimulate new industries. The government established the Brazilian steel industry and set up a company to search for oil. By the end of World War II, Brazil had become Latin America's chief industrial power. In 1945 the army forced Vargas to resign, fearing that he might prolong his power illegally after calling for new elections.

Mexico

Although Mexico was not an authoritarian state, it was not truly democratic. The Mexican Revolution of the early twentieth century was the first significant effort in Latin America to overturn the system of large landed estates and to raise the living standards of the masses. Out of the revolution emerged a relatively stable political order.

The government was democratic in form. However, the official political party of the Mexican Revolution, known as the Institutional Revolutionary Party, or PRI, controlled the major groups within Mexican society. Every six years, party bosses of the PRI chose the party's presidential candidate. That candidate was then dutifully elected by the people.

A wave of change began with Lázaro Cárdenas (KAHR • dehn • ahs), president of Mexico from 1934 to 1940. He fulfilled some of the original goals of the revolution. He took a major step by distributing 44 million acres (17.8 million ha) of land to landless Mexican peasants. This action made him enormously popular with the peasants.

President Cárdenas also took a strong stand with the United States over oil. By 1900, enormous oil reserves had been found in Mexico, especially in the Gulf of Mexico. Over the next 30 years, oil companies from Britain and, in particular, the United States, made

large investments in the Mexican oil industry. After a dispute with the foreign-owned oil companies over workers' wages, the Cárdenas government seized control of the oil fields and the property of the foreign-owned oil companies.

U.S. oil companies were furious and asked Franklin Roosevelt to intervene, but due to his Good Neighbor Policy, the president refused to send troops to Mexico. Eventually, the Mexican government paid the oil companies for their property. It then set up PEMEX, a national oil company, to run the oil industry. PEMEX did not do well at first, however, because exports fell. Still, for many, PEMEX was a symbol of Mexican economic independence.

✓ CHECK FOR UNDERSTANDING

1. **Making Connections** How did American investments during the early twentieth century support oligarchies and elites in Argentina and Brazil?
2. **Analyzing** How did conflict between social classes shape their involvement in regime changes?

Post–World War II Trends in Latin America

GUIDING QUESTION

What economic and political challenges did Latin American countries face after World War II?

Even after the Great Depression, Latin America continued to experience economic challenges. Although they had developed industries, by the 1960s, they still depended on the United States, Europe, and Japan, especially for the advanced technology needed for modern industries. Also, many Latin American countries had failed to find markets abroad to sell their manufactured products.

These economic failures led to political instability. In the 1960s, repressive military regimes in Chile, Brazil, and Argentina abolished political parties and returned to export-import economies financed by foreigners. These regimes also encouraged multinational corporations (companies with divisions in multiple countries) to come to Latin America. This made these Latin American countries even more dependent on industrialized nations. In the 1970s, Latin American countries tried to maintain their weak economies by borrowing money. Between 1970 and 1982, debt owed to foreigners grew from \$27 billion to \$315.3 billion. A number of Latin American economies began to crumble. Wages fell, and unemployment and inflation skyrocketed. As economies declined, people moved from the countryside into the cities.

Several Latin American countries endured periods of upheaval and civil war during the 1980s. Although conflicts eased in the 1990s, many of the underlying

issues lingered. Discord between indigenous peoples and mestizos, as well as political disagreements among conservatives and more left-leaning parties, had long plagued the region. Economies reflected these disagreements, as many leaders struggled to find footing in either socialist or capitalist systems. However, with the debt crisis in the 1980s, a movement toward democracy emerged. Some military leaders could not deal with their nations' debt problems, while others realized that military power without popular consent could not maintain a strong state. As a result, a movement toward democracy and free elections was the most noticeable trend of the 1980s and the early 1990s in Latin America.

Even as some nations remained under military control, others moved toward civilian governments and held popular, free, multiparty elections. Costa Rica, with its constitution of 1949, is one of the most stable and democratic countries in the region today. Likewise, Peru reestablished constitutional rule in 1979 and held elections in 1980, although an internal armed conflict in the 1990s challenged its stability. Through participation in the global economy, both Peru and Costa Rica have continued to achieve economic growth.

In 1948 the nations of the Western Hemisphere formed the Organization of American States (OAS), which called for an end to military action by one state in the affairs of any other state. The OAS also recognized that indigenous peoples had a right to greater legal protection because they had endured severe discrimination in the past.

The formation of the OAS did not stop the United States from intervening in Latin American affairs, however. As the Cold War developed, so too did the anxiety of U.S. policymakers about the possibility of communist regimes in Central America and the Caribbean. As a result, the United States returned to a policy of taking action when it believed Soviet agents were trying to set up governments hostile to U.S. interests.

After Fidel Castro created a socialist state in Cuba, the desire of the United States to prevent "another Cuba" largely determined U.S. policy toward Latin America. In the 1960s, President John F. Kennedy established the Alliance for Progress, a U.S.-led network of 22 Latin American countries. It encouraged social reform and economic development in Latin America rather than revolution. The nations in the alliance hoped that economic growth would discourage people from following radical leaders, but the alliance failed to work. U.S. aid decreased over the years, and political tensions between the United States and Latin America increased. The OAS dissolved the program in 1973.

When Cuba began to support guerrilla wars in other Latin American countries, the United States reacted by sending massive military aid to anti-communist regimes, regardless of their nature. In the

1980s and 1990s, the United States returned to a policy of direct intervention in Latin American affairs.

✓ CHECK FOR UNDERSTANDING

Explaining What was the Alliance for Progress, and why did it fail?

Mexico and the Caribbean

GUIDING QUESTION

What economic and political challenges did Mexico and the Caribbean face?

Throughout the twentieth century, Mexico and the Caribbean experienced political turmoil and economic crises. Events in the region caused great concern in the United States.

Mexico

The Mexican Revolution in the early 1900s created a political order that remained stable for many years. Some called it a *dictablanda*, a perfect dictatorship "with soft hands," in which civil liberties were preserved rather than destroyed.

The official political party of the Mexican Revolution—the Institutional Revolutionary Party, or PRI—came to dominate Mexico. Every six years, leaders of the PRI chose the party's presidential candidate, who was then elected by the people. During the 1950s and 1960s, steady economic growth led to real gains in wages in Mexico.

At the end of the 1960s, student protests against Mexico's one-party government system led to change. Two presidents, Luis Echeverría and José López Portillo, made political reforms, and new political parties emerged. Greater freedom of debate was allowed in the press and at universities.

In the late 1970s, vast new reserves of oil were discovered in Mexico, and the government became more dependent on revenues from foreign oil sales. As a result, when world oil prices dropped in the mid-1980s, Mexico was no longer able to make payments on its foreign debt. The government responded by adopting new economic policies. One was **privatization**, the sale of government-owned companies to private firms.

President Carlos Salinas de Gortari sped up privatization to relieve the debt crisis. In 1992 de Gortari began working with the U.S. president and the Canadian prime minister to form the North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA). It went into effect two years later.

The Cuban Revolution

In the 1950s, an opposition movement arose in Cuba. It aimed to overthrow the government of the dictator

privatization the process by which property or a business goes from government ownership to private ownership

Central America and the Caribbean

Many Caribbean islands are dependent territories while independent countries in the region are still reliant on foreign investment and goods.



GEOGRAPHY CONNECTION

1. **Exploring Place** What countries in the Caribbean are still dependent territories?
2. **Spatial Thinking** What challenges and advantages do you think Central American countries might have based on their location?

Fulgencio Batista, who had controlled Cuba since 1933. The leader of the movement was a man named Fidel Castro. In 1954 Fidel and his brother Raúl teamed up with a small band of revolutionaries. As the rebels gained more support, the Batista regime collapsed. Castro's revolutionaries seized Havana on January 3, 1959. Many Cubans who disagreed with Castro fled to the United States.

Relations between Cuba and the United States quickly deteriorated when Castro's regime began to receive aid from the Soviet Union. The United States was troubled at the thought of an ally of the Soviet Union so close to their shores. In October 1960, the United States declared a **trade embargo** with Cuba. Just three months later, all diplomatic relations with Cuba were broken.

On April 17, 1961, U.S-trained exiled Cubans, under the direction of the Central Intelligence Agency (CIA), landed at the Bay of Pigs on Cuba's south-central coast with the goal of inciting rebellion and overthrowing Castro's regime. The invasion was a failure. Castro's troops quickly overwhelmed the U.S.-backed forces and captured more than 1,000 men.

Beyond being an immense embarrassment to the United States, the failed Bay of Pigs invasion also contributed to the Cuban missile crisis in 1962. In October of that year, the Soviet Union attempted to deliver and install intercontinental ballistic missiles in Cuba. President Kennedy issued a naval "quarantine" of Cuba, causing dangerously high tensions between the United States and Soviet Union. The Soviet Union ultimately agreed to remove its nuclear warheads in exchange for U.S. promises not to invade Cuba.

After the failure of the Bay of Pigs invasion and the Cuban missile crisis, Cuba became less dependent on the Soviet Union and pursued a new strategy of fomenting revolution in the rest of Latin America. Although Cuba's strategy failed, Castro's Marxist regime continued, but with mixed results. The Cuban people did secure some social gains, such as free medical services for all citizens. With improvements in education, illiteracy was nearly eliminated.

Haiti

After American troops left Haiti in 1934, the Haitians made several efforts to move toward democracy. In 1957, however, in elections controlled by the military, François Duvalier became president. He created a private militia, established dictatorial rule, and terrorized the country, killing tens of thousands.

After Duvalier's death in 1971, his son continued to rule Haiti with an iron fist. Growing opposition to his rule led to the collapse of his regime in 1986. Five years later, Jean-Bertrand Aristide became president in Haiti's first free democratic election. He was president for only a short time before a military coup forced him into exile. With U.S. pressure, this regime failed and Aristide would return as Haiti's president, serving from 1994 to 1996 and again from 2001 to 2004. A second coup ousted him from power in 2004.

✓ CHECK FOR UNDERSTANDING

1. **Identifying** What factors contributed to the stability of Mexico's government?
2. **Identifying Cause and Effect** What effects did the Cuban revolution have on Cuba's relationship with the U.S.?

trade embargo government order prohibiting the trade of certain goods or all goods

Central America

GUIDING QUESTION

What economic and political challenges did Central American countries face?

Central America includes Costa Rica, Nicaragua, Honduras, El Salvador, Panama, Guatemala, and Belize. Prices changes for regional crops such as bananas, coffee, and cotton have created economic crises. In addition, a huge gap between the rich and poor has created instability. U.S. leaders' fear of the spread of communism often led to repressive regimes. U.S. involvement has been especially evident in Guatemala, El Salvador, and Nicaragua.

Guatemala

In 1954, the democratically elected president Jacobo Árbenz of Guatemala was overthrown in a coup supported by the United States. A series of dictators then ruled for years. Guerrilla forces opposed them, leading to right-wing death squads that attacked anyone they believed belonged to the opposition, especially the indigenous peoples of Guatemala, descendants of the ancient Maya. The government killed as many as 200,000 people, mostly Maya civilians.



Archbishop Oscar Romero of El Salvador

Drawing Conclusions Why do you think Romero was so popular?

El Salvador

After World War II, the wealthy elite and the military controlled the government in El Salvador. The rise of an urban middle class led to hope for a more democratic government. The army, however, refused to accept the results of free elections held in 1972.

World attention focused on El Salvador in the late 1970s and 1980s when the country was rocked by a bitter civil war. In 1979 Marxist-led leftist guerrillas and right-wing groups began battling one another for control. The Catholic Church became a main target of both sides, and many priests were tortured or killed by death squads, among them Archbishop Oscar Romero. As the archbishop of San Salvador, Romero originally held moderate political views but began attacking the government's violent practices. He was murdered in 1980 and later canonized by the Catholic Church in 2018. The United States provided weapons and training to the Salvadoran army to defeat the guerrillas, hoping to bring stability to the country, but the killings continued until a 1992 peace settlement ended the conflict. The once-warring groups became official political parties at this time.

Nicaragua

In Nicaragua, the Somoza family seized control of the government in 1937 and maintained control until 1979. Over most of this period, the Somoza regime was supported by the United States. The Somozas enriched themselves at the expense of the Nicaraguan people and used murder and torture to silence opposition.

By 1979, the United States, under President Jimmy Carter, had grown unwilling to support the corrupt regime. In that same year, Marxist guerrilla forces known as the Sandinista National Liberation Front, founded in 1962, won key military victories against government forces and gained control of the country. Soon, a group opposed to the Sandinistas' policies, called the contras, tried to overthrow the new government. Worried by the Sandinistas' alignment with the Soviet Union, the United States supported the contras, who sought to restore the Somozas. The war waged by the contras undermined support for the Sandinistas. In 1990 the Sandinistas, led by Daniel Ortega, agreed to free elections and lost to a coalition headed by Violeta Barrios de Chamorro, who became the first woman in Nicaragua to be elected president.

✓ CHECK FOR UNDERSTANDING

1. **Comparing** What experiences did Guatemala, El Salvador, and Nicaragua have in common in the post-World War II period?
2. **Explaining** Why did the United States support repressive regimes in Central America?

South America

GUIDING QUESTION

What economic and political challenges did South American countries face?

Throughout the twentieth century, most South American countries experienced political unrest.

Chile

Chile democratically elected Salvador Allende in 1970. Allende's program of nationalization and increased services to citizens raised concerns about Soviet influence in the country. In 1973 General Augusto Pinochet overthrew Allende's democratic socialist government in a coup. Chile, the oldest democracy in South America, was now ruled by a military dictator. Pinochet dissolved the congress, issued a new constitution, restricted civil liberties and political parties, and cancelled Allende's economic policies.

The Pinochet regime, which was secretly supported by the United States, was one of the most brutal in Chile's history. Thousands of opponents were imprisoned, tortured, or murdered. Others were arrested and never seen again. These horrible abuses of human rights led to growing unrest by the mid-1980s, and Pinochet's military regime finally ended in 1989 with free presidential elections.

Argentina

Argentina is Latin America's second-largest country. For years, it had been ruled by a powerful oligarchy whose wealth was based on growing wheat and raising cattle. Support from the army was crucial to the continuing power of the oligarchy.

In 1943 a group of army officers overthrew the oligarchy. One of these officers, Juan Perón, devised a strategy to pacify the working classes. Using his position as labor secretary, Perón sought to win over the workers. He encouraged them to join labor unions and improved job benefits.

In 1946 Perón was elected president with his chief support coming from labor and the urban middle class. To please his supporters, Perón expanded industry. Seeking to free Argentina from foreign investors, the government took over the banking, shipping, and other industries. Perón's regime was also authoritarian and he used violent gangs to intimidate his opponents.

The military overthrew Perón in September 1955, and he went into exile. Later, overwhelmed by economic and social problems, Perón was allowed to return, and he was reelected as president in 1973. His wife, Isabel Perón, was vice president and succeeded him upon his death in 1974. Two years later, the military once again took power. The new regime tolerated no opposition, and it is believed that as many as 36,000 people were killed during its brutal reign.

BIOGRAPHY

SALVADOR ALLENDE (1908–1973)

Salvador Allende (ah • YEHN • day) was born in Valparaíso, Chile, into an upper-middle-class family. When Allende was ten years old, his father sent him to study in Chile's capital, Santiago. After graduation, Allende served in the military and later studied medicine. He was one of the founders of Chile's Socialist Party and served in the national government as minister of health and as a senator. He ran for president in 1952, 1958, and 1964 but failed each time. Finally, Allende was elected president of Chile in 1970, making him the world's first democratically elected Marxist leader.

SOCIALIST Allende ran for election on the same democratic socialist principles, focusing on the inequality and poverty in his country. He blamed the inequality on the foreign and domestic capitalists who controlled the country's natural resources and vital industries.

NATIONALIST After taking office, Allende nationalized Chile's resources and industries, including seizing control of U.S.-owned copper mines. These measures played a key role in promoting Chilean political and economic independence. Allende also promised to create free public health-care and educational systems. Some feared that Chile's socialist president would be influenced by the communist Soviet Union. As a result, in 1973, political tension and social unrest led General Augusto Pinochet (pee • noh • CHEHT) and the military to seize control of the government. In a sudden and violent attack on the capital, Allende died, and Chile's democratic socialist experiment ended.

Speculating Why do you think some people in Chile feared the influence of the Soviet Union?





South America

The countries of South America largely gained independence in the 1800s but faced many economic, political, and social challenges.



GEOGRAPHY CONNECTION

- Exploring Place** What do you notice about the location of many of the cities in South America?
- Human-Environment Interaction** Based on the map, which countries do you think would have the highest agricultural output? Why?

In 1982 the military regime invaded the Falkland Islands off the coast of Argentina. Great Britain, which had controlled the islands since the 1800s, sent forces to take back the islands. The loss discredited the military and opened the door to civilian rule. When Raúl Alfonsín was elected president in 1983, he restored democracy and prosecuted the former military leaders.

✓ CHECK FOR UNDERSTANDING

Summarizing Why did both Chile and Argentina return to democracy after a period of military rule?

In most Latin American nations, women gained the right to vote between the 1940s and 1950s. With the vote came expanded rights and freedoms for women and indigenous peoples. Many women have since been elected president in the region; for example, Isabel Perón of Argentina in 1974 and Lidia Gueiler Tejada of Bolivia in 1979. Women have also become more involved in political activism. In 1977 a group of Argentinean mothers, Las Madres de la Plaza de Mayo, marched each week in the capital's main plaza to protest crimes against their spouses and children. This group gained worldwide support and is credited with helping to end of the military regime in 1983.

✓ CHECK FOR UNDERSTANDING

Explaining How did gaining the right to vote change the political role of women in Latin America?

Women in Latin America

GUIDING QUESTION

How have women's roles in Latin American changed?

Latin American women's roles changed from the middle to late 1900s as women moved into new professions. However, greater economic opportunities did not always lead to better quality of life. Women's poverty was exacerbated by gender-based wage inequality. Women's experiences also differed on the basis of ethnicity. Women of indigenous and African descent suffered doubly.

LESSON ACTIVITIES

- Argumentative Writing** The United States has used economic tools to resolve conflicts in Latin America. Research the embargo imposed on Cuba. Write a persuasive argument for or against it.
- Analyzing Information** With a partner, review the lesson to find examples of the United States and the Soviet Union contributing to instability in Latin America. Show your findings in a presentation.

Reviewing Independence and New Challenges

Summary

Decolonization

The 1800s were marked by European colonization in Asia, Africa, and the Middle East. Competition for global empires and resources helped fuel both world wars. Beginning with World War I and accelerating after World War II, independence movements resulted in the formation of new nations throughout the 1950s and 1960s. Anti-colonial and decolonization efforts were aimed at more than political independence and continue today as historically less-powerful countries work to secure economic and cultural autonomy.

Asia

In parts of Asia long dominated by Europeans and the Japanese, some independence movement leaders embraced the communist ideals of Vladimir Lenin. This was especially true in China, where Communist Party leaders led the opposition to imperialist forces. Likewise, some Southeast Asian nations that were influenced by communism after gaining independence, became caught up in the Cold War, leading to physical conflicts such as the Vietnam War, which spread the Cold War into neighboring Cambodia and Laos. In Cambodia, the extremist communist government of the Khmer Rouge carried out a genocide that killed 1 million citizens.

Indonesia and Myanmar (Burma), with U.S. support, became military dictatorships rather than communist. The long-term effects of colonization shaped political conflicts in these nations. In the Philippines, the dictator Ferdinand Marcos gained control, and under his rule, fraud and corruption became widespread. After Marcos was deposed, some democratic reforms were made, but economic and social problems continue.

The independence movement in India gained traction under the leadership of Mohandas Gandhi, Jawaharlal Nehru, and the Indian National Congress. They used methods of nonviolent resistance over many years to pressure the British government to allow for self-determination in India. As independence neared, tensions rose in the leadership, and mistrust between some Muslims and Hindus grew. The Muslim League, led by Mohammad Ali Jinnah, advocated for the creation of the state of Pakistan. In 1947, British India was divided into two newly independent nations, India and Pakistan. As millions migrated across the borders to reach their new homelands, violence erupted and more than a million people were killed.

After independence, India was led by Nehru and became a parliamentary democracy with a socialist economy. It followed the principle of nonalignment with regard to foreign policy, which extended to the Cold War. The economy grew after independence, but ethnic and religious strife remained and continues to this day.

Pakistan was a divided country with East and West Pakistan separated by more than 1,000 miles. Pakistan also had a weaker political infrastructure than India. In 1971, the people of East Pakistan broke away from West Pakistan and created their own country of Bangladesh.

The Middle East

The fall of the Ottoman Empire following World War I dramatically reshaped the oil-rich Middle East. European powers swooped in to claim resources. New conflicts emerged in the Palestine Mandate, where the British promised to work toward the creation of a Jewish state, sparking violent opposition from Arab Palestinians.

Some Middle Eastern nations sought to retain their independence by modernizing, or adopting elements of Western societies without ceding local control. Mustafa Kemal's efforts in Turkey and the Pahlavi dynasty in Iran are examples of such efforts. The newly independent kingdom of Saudi Arabia gained power and wealth through the oil trade.

New conflicts emerged with the creation of the democratic Jewish state of Israel in 1947. Continued opposition to Israel from Arab Palestinians and neighboring Muslim countries led to several wars between the 1940s and 1970s. An Islamic fundamentalist revolution in Iran that sought to restore traditional, non-Western practices brought new conflicts between Iran and the West and sparked a long war with Iraq in the 1980s. Although the United States backed Iraq in that conflict, in 1990 a U.S.-led international force opposed Iraq's invasion of Kuwait. A failed Soviet occupation of Afghanistan also contributed to unrest in the region.

Africa

As subjects of European global empires, many Africans fought for the imperial powers during World War I. Frustration over lack of support for decolonization after the war gave rise to numerous independence movements. These movements gained support from Western activists such as W.E.B. Du Bois and Marcus Garvey, who saw the Africans' struggle as part of a larger pan-African movement to unite all peoples of African descent in a common cause for self-determination.





Women in Senegal voting to establish a National Assembly in 1956. Senegal would become fully a independent nation in 1960.

African independence efforts gained greater international support following World War II. By the late 1960s, most African countries had gained independence, although many maintained strong economic ties with their former colonizers. In North Africa, the war for Algeria's independence was particularly brutal.

In South Africa, the white minority continued to retain tight control over the black majority. By the 1950s, South Africa had established apartheid, an oppressive system that severely limited the rights of black South Africans. The African National Congress, led by activist Nelson Mandela, rallied international opposition to the apartheid government. The system was finally dismantled in the 1990s, leading to the election of Mandela as the country's president.

African nations, whether embracing Western-style capitalism, Soviet style communism, or governments built upon traditional structures were in danger of becoming embroiled in Cold War rivalries. To many African nations, the Democratic Republic of the Congo became a chilling example of the danger of taking sides. Its first prime minister was overthrown and his U.S.-backed successor, Joseph Mobutu, ruled as an authoritarian. This led many African nations to choose nonalignment.

Independent African nations continued to struggle with inequalities left over from colonialism. Environmental disasters, civil wars, corruption, economic difficulties, and the spread of HIV/AIDS have proved to be enormous challenges as well.

Latin America

Most Latin American countries had already become independent by the 1900s, but they were heavily dependent on foreign investment. Before World War II, the United States was the major investor in Latin American economies and occasionally intervened with military force when local conflicts jeopardized U.S. interests. Lack of industrialization in some Latin American nations limited opportunities.

After World War II, more Latin American countries attempted to shed foreign economic domination, with mixed results. Cold War rivalries continued to influence developments in Latin America, especially after the Cuban revolution led to a Marxist government on the island nation. The United States increased its political involvement in Latin American affairs to limit the spread of socialist and communist movements. Student protests and a downturn in oil prices led to economic reforms in Mexico by the 1970s, marked by increased privatization. The North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA) solidified trade ties between Mexico, the United States, and Canada.

Several smaller countries throughout Central America and the Caribbean experienced political upheavals and civil unrest, often with the influence of foreign powers seeking to benefit their own countries. U.S. officials frequently supported oppressive and corrupt regimes rather than allow for free elections of socialist governments supported by local citizens. In some nations, military forces and corrupt gangs held more power than elected political leaders.

Apply What You Have Learned

A Understanding Economics

Many newly independent African nations struggled to establish strong independent economic systems that offered equal opportunities for all. Africa is a large continent with varied ethnic and cultural groups as well as great geographic diversity, all of which influenced the path and level of economic development in new African nations.

ACTIVITY Writing an Economic Summary

The chart lists some of the economic challenges that various African nations faced after independence. Review the topics in the chart along with information in the text to identify a former African colony that struggled with at least one of these issues after independence. Using library and Internet resources, write a summary of the economic development of that nation, including the factors that have affected its development since it gained independence.

Challenges in Africa

Newly Independent African Nations

- dependence on exports like rubber or oil
- dependence on foreign investment
- utilization of natural resources for purposes other than building an industrial economy
- widespread poverty among rural and urban dwellers
- sanitation and transportation systems overwhelmed by rapid urbanization
- sanitation and transportation systems overwhelmed by massive slums

B Understanding Multiple Perspectives

Independence movements around the world gained traction throughout the twentieth century. The origins and progress of the movements varied, but many faced similar challenges in their struggle to establish stable new governments.

ACTIVITY Creating a Table Use your text along with library and Internet resources, to create a table summarizing and comparing major factors of independence movements in African, Asian, and Caribbean countries. Include examples from specific nations in each region.

C Analyzing Information

In 1992, Mexican president Carlos Salinas de Gortari began working with the U.S. president and the Canadian prime minister to form the North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA). It was in effect from 1994 until 2020, when it was replaced by the United States–Mexico–Canada Agreement. NAFTA was controversial, especially in the United States. In part, supporters in the United States argued that NAFTA would benefit all three nations by easing the flow of goods and jobs between neighboring countries while some critics feared it would lead to a trade imbalance that would hurt the U.S. economy.

ACTIVITY Drawing Conclusions Use Internet and library resources to research the impact of NAFTA on agricultural trade between the U.S. and Mexico. Be sure to look at agricultural imports and exports before and during NAFTA. Then, write a paragraph drawing conclusions about how NAFTA affected the United States when it came to agricultural trade.

D Building a Free Society

The South African system of apartheid, was designed to preserve the political and economic power of the white minority over the black majority. One of the main ways the white-controlled government maintained its power was by limiting black voting rights. Once democratic processes were available to all adult citizens, the nation elected its first black president, Nelson Mandela, who had spent years in prison for his efforts to gain independence for his people. Even in prison he served as a living symbol of freedom.



ACTIVITY Identifying Main Ideas In the Rivonia trial, named for a suburb in Johannesburg where a group of African National Congress militants hid, Nelson Mandela and other opponents of South African apartheid were charged with sabotage and conspiracy. Mandela spoke these words at the Palace of Justice in Pretoria:

“ During my lifetime I have dedicated myself to this struggle of the African people. I have fought against domination, and I have fought against black domination. I have cherished the ideal of a democratic and free society in which all persons live together in harmony and with equal opportunities, It is an ideal which I hope to live for and to achieve. But if needs be, it is an ideal for which I am prepared to die.”

—Nelson Mandela, statement at the Rivonia trial, April 20, 1964, from *In His Own Words*

Write a summary paragraph identifying the main ideas in Mandela’s statement. Conclude by noting which parts of Mandela’s ideal became reality.

E Making Connections to Today

Several nations in the Middle East have struggled with tension between modern and traditional cultural practices. To some people in these nations, “modern” is associated with corruptive Western influences that undermine Islamic values. To others, modernizing industry, education, and social freedoms increases economic opportunities for everyone. Some of these tensions have focused on restrictions regarding expectations of gender roles and the rights of women. Turkey, under the rule of Atatürk, and Iran, under the Pahlavis and the Ayatollah Khomeini, illustrate some of these tensions, which are still present today.

ACTIVITY Creating a Visual Presentation Using your textbook along with library and Internet resources, research information about the tensions between modernization and traditional culture in Turkey and Iran during the twentieth century and today. Create a visual display that illustrates how some of these tensions have affected and continue to affect Turkey and Iran.



PHOTO: (t) Allstar Picture Library/Getty Images; (b) Maskot/Getty Images. TEXT: Mandela, Nelson, and Wilmut James, Nelson Mandela In His Own Words. Edited by Kader Annand and David Childs. New York: New York University Press, 2003.

© McGraw Hill 2023 all rights reserved. This material is provided for individual evaluation purposes only and may not be downloaded, reproduced or distributed.