

Absolutism in France under Louis XIV

- Louis XIV, a.k.a. the Sun King, was the next threat to universal absolute monarchy.
- Born in 1638, he ruled from 1643 – 1715. His rule had three phases:
 1. 1643 – 1661 → Cardinal Mazarin rules b/c Louis XIV was too young. Mazarin put down the *Fronde* (rebellion by nobles, not by peasants) but only after Louis XIV fled Paris and his entire family was killed (oops!) which, naturally, left a lasting impression on Louis XIV (could have been a reason why Louis XIV did not want his palace @ Paris). This phase ended when Mazarin died in 1661.
 2. 1661 – 1682 → Louis takes over, builds Versailles, and vows not to let anyone rule over him. He built up the standing army, continued centralization of power through the bureaucracy, helped the economy grow and said *I am the state*, which pretty much sums it up.
 3. 1682 – 1715 → Constant wars, France vs. the rest of Europe.

Louis XIV's Internal Policies

- **Versailles** → isolated location of Louis XIV's palace. Versailles was the *great trap* dedicated to the *taming of the aristocracy*. Effectively, it drew the nobles away from their affairs and kept them close to Louis XIV. Versailles was a constant party, so nobody wanted to leave. Louis XIV, however, knew how to balance work w/party so he was a good ruler, unlike his successors and the foreign rulers who tried to emulate him. Versailles was also the center of French culture.

- Louis attempted to strengthen the economy by making reforms (which he later ignored b/c he needed instant \$ for wars) by stimulating manufacturing, agriculture, and trade. He also tried to reduce the effect of France's internal toll, and tried to boost overseas trade.

- Louis XIV wanted to **unify the country** and keep his control over it, which he attempted to do by:

1. Trying to create religious uniformity (i.e. trying to make France Catholic). First, Louis XIV revoked the entire *Edict of Nantes* in order to "clean out" the country from the Huguenots. He also tried to get a papal bull to condemn the Jansenists, a Catholic faction, but Louis XIV died before he could put the policy into effect. This aspect of Louis' policies did not work, for they simply angered productive and hardworking sects of the French population while accomplishing nothing. In other words, in attempting to unify the country through religion, Louis XIV simply alienated his people.
2. Employing *intendants* and royal officials to subdue peasants and collect taxes. Although this helped the economy and the treasury, it was terrible for the peasants, who had to pay exorbitant taxes to support the wars, and, since nobles couldn't be taxed, the peasants were forced to bear all the burden of taxation.
3. Keeping the regional assemblies and nobles (with Versailles) under control. Additionally, he ruthlessly suppressed all the peasant rebellions that occurred.

Louis XIV's Foreign Policies

- Louis made very good use of his contrasting advisers, which helped him greatly @ foreign policy.
- **Colbert** → one of Louis' advisers who regarded the Netherlands as France's biggest enemy b/c of their mercantilist policies. Therefore, he felt that all the taxes should go to building up a navy to fight the Netherlands, who tended to dominate the overseas trade routes.
- **The War of the Spanish Succession** → was a war to gain the Spanish throne for Louis' family. The previous king had actually chosen Philip (Louis XIV's grandson), and his wishes might have been respected had Louis promised to open Spain to trade and not unify France and Spain under one ruler. Since he didn't agree to do so, the Grand Alliance declared war on him in 1701. Louis was defeated, but at the Peace of Utrecht in 1713 he still was able to secure the throne for his grandson though he couldn't unify the country and had to open Spain to trade. Mainly, the war was a waste of \$ and an additional on France's already strained economy.

THE SCIENTIFIC REVOLUTION

Definition of the Scientific Revolution

- The Scientific Revolution (1543 – 1687) was a period of time in which many breakthrough discoveries were made in science and philosophy, as well as an era in which the Europeans' perception of the universe and their role in it was changed forever.
- Although the SR began by only affecting the scientific and intellectual elite (5 % of the population or so) the concepts that originated during the SR eventually spread to all of the population.

Science Before the Scientific Revolution

- Prior to the SR, all scientific concepts came from either the Bible or ancient scientists. Since, during the Middle Ages, most of the works of other ancient scientists were lost, Aristotle, Ptolemy, and Galen became the only, and therefore ultimate, authorities, on their fields. The old beliefs came from:
 1. **The Bible** → naturally, the main source of information, in all respects, was the Bible, whose teachings were taken literally (for example, if a story stated that the world stopped spinning, Europeans believed that the world actually did stop spinning).
 2. **Aristotle** → was the greatest philosopher of ancient times. He was viewed as the absolute authority on physics, although many of his theories were clearly wrong! His theories included the belief that there was *no movement without a mover* (which fit in perfectly with church philosophy since it made it obvious that God was necessary to move the Earth) and that *in their natural state all objects were at rest* (i.e. all objects wish to be at rest, motion is an unnatural state which must be accounted for by an outside force at all times). He explained motion by the fact that each of the four elements (earth, air, fire and water) wished to return to its natural place (for example, a stone falls because it wants to return to the earth). Air and fire, he said, always wished to go upwards and earth and water wished to fall downwards. Aristotle believed in *teleological* (based on the fact that everything is made for a purpose).
 3. **Ptolemy** → a great astronomer from ancient times, he stated that the earth was the center of the universe and that the sun and all the planets moved around in *crystalline spheres*. Since this alone was not able to mathematically explain *retrograde motion* Ptolemy added in *epicycles* (circles

within circles), which, through some very complicated calculations, could approximate planetary motion.

Causes of the Scientific Revolution

- One cause was that scientists were simply beginning to take note of the inadequacies of the standard theories, and, although they greatly preferred to make slight changes to the theories (vs. abandoning them) some scientists were beginning to question the old authorities.

- Still, it is unlikely that the scientists would have challenged the established theories without the influence of the other ancient scientists, especially Archimedes, (who were rediscovered during the Renaissance due to the humanists' efforts to find ancient works) that disagreed with the old theories.

- Another influence was the interest in what is now regarded as magic, but was then seen as serious science. These branches of science included alchemy and astrology, and were linked by the belief that the world could be understood through several secret truths (like Neoplatonism). These sciences contributed to the outpouring of new ideas, the questioning of the old theories, and the use of math.

- Lastly, the European interest in technology both stimulated and made possible the SR. New instruments and devices (printing press, telescope, vacuum pump, thermometer, barometer and microscope), often made for other purposes, were used in science and made possible many of the new discoveries. The interest in technology was actually stimulated by the competition between the different nations b/c applied technology was used in warfare.

The Major Scientific Discoveries

- **Nicolaus Copernicus** (1473 – 1543) → was a Polish priest and astronomer who shook the foundations of European beliefs. He challenged Ptolemy's system simply because it was *too complex* and he felt that there had to be a better system mathematically. So, based on mathematics, he developed a new, sun-centered system that placed earth as the third planet rotating around the sun. This system eventually ended up requiring complex mathematics as well, but Copernicus was a great mathematician who easily defended his theory. Copernicus even began developing the concept of gravity, for he stated that *large masses have their own attractive forces*. However, he kept the crystalline spheres and did not account for the stars. His major work was *The Revolution of Heavenly Bodies* (1543 – start of scientific revolution), which, fearing the Church, he did not publish until his deathbed. The book sparked a major controversy, but, because of the Church, it was dangerous to express Copernican views openly.

- **Johann Kepler** (1571 – 1630) → a brilliant mathematician who developed the first theories of motion. With the aid of Brahe's star data (which he acquired since he was Brahe's assistant), Kepler came up with the theory that the planets moved in ellipses, and that they did not move at a steady rate. Instead, as they came closer to the sun, they accelerated, and they slowed down as they moved away. So, Kepler's First Law of Motion stated that the planets moved in elliptical orbits, and his Second Law stated that the planets sweep through an equal area of space in an equal amount of time.

- **Galileo Galilei** (1564 – 1642) → was the first scientist to use the telescope. With the telescope, he saw Jupiter's moons (the existence of which proved that not everything orbited the earth, as was previously thought) and the craters on the moon (which proved that heaven was not perfect). Based on his observations, Galileo concluded that the principles of terrestrial physics could be applied to the heavens as well. In 1610, he wrote the *Starry Messenger* and subsequently got in trouble with the Spanish Inquisition, which stated that it was not allowed to openly support Copernicus. So, in 1632, he wrote the *Dialogue on the Two Great World Systems* (supposedly a work of fiction, but obviously supported

Copernicus). But this did not fool the church, for they forced him to recant in 1633 and made him spend the last years of his life under house arrest. There, he developed his *Theory of Inertia*, which stated that things in motion remain in motion unless acted upon by another force (implies that God is not necessary to move planets), which he published in *The Two New Sciences* in 1638. Galileo is really considered to be the first modern scientist, for he developed the scientific method of experimentation and was one of the first *mechanists* (how, not why).

- **Isaac Newton** (1642 – 1727) → brought to a climax all the previous works in his masterpiece, *The Principia*, which described three laws of motion (in the absence of force, motion continues in a straight line; the rate of change of the motion is determined by the forces acting on it; action and reaction between two bodies are equal and opposite) and a law of *universal gravitation* (which applied the concept of gravity to both the earth and the heavens). Newton also supported observation and experimentation, and helped further develop the scientific method.

***The New Epistemologies (theories of knowledge)**

- The SR allowed many new epistemologies (theories of knowledge) to develop. First, the belief in *mechanism*, which stated that scientists should question how (not why) things worked, became more widespread, especially through Galileo and Newton. The opposite philosophy to mechanism is *teleology*, which stated that everything is made for a purpose, and was used by Aristotle.

- Mainly, however, the discoveries helped the scientific method develop. The scientific method, which was a new theory on how to obtain and verify knowledge, stressed experience, reason, and doubt and rejected all unsubstantiated authority. The scientific method revolutionized science, and made measurement of data, and mathematics, essential parts of science. From the SR onwards, science was based on pure fact – the acquisition of data and the testing of theories.

- The scientific method was actually a combination of two theories of knowledge:

1. **Empiricism** (a.k.a. induction) → was advocated by **Francis Bacon** (who wrote *New Atlantis* a description of an ideal society based on science) and supported going from particular knowledge (observation) to general knowledge.
2. **Rationalism** (a.k.a. deduction) → was advocated by **Rene Descartes** (who wrote the *Discourse on the Method of Rightly Conducting the Reason and Seeking Truth in the Sciences*) who stated that *senses can lie* and that the only way to find truth was to start from one fact, which was “I am doubting” and proceed to deduce all other statements – “I think, therefore I am.” Descartes also stated that there was an essential divide between the world of thought and reality (tangible objects). In other words, he took Bacon’s statement that religion (faith) and science (fact) should be separate and turned it into a far-reaching divide between the reality of the world and our perception of it – i.e. The Matrix!

The Famous Empiricists

- Empiricism was a very influential epistemology, and soon, it was beginning to be applied to other fields, not just science. Actually, several individuals used empiricism to develop political theories.

- **Thomas Hobbes** → was a radical who stated that *there are no abstract ideas*. Therefore, he was also an atheist (since God is an abstract idea – he must not exist). He also did not believe in abstract good or evil. Instead, in his *Pleasure-Pain Philosophy* he stated that, since abstract good and evil do not exist, the only good things are ones that bring one pleasure and the only bad things are the ones that bring one pain.

Mainly, however, Hobbes used empiricism to develop a political system. Because, according to him, in the *state of nature* (w/out any authority) there would be a constant war of all-against-all b/c of competition, diffidence (fear), and vain glory (desire to show off). Nobody could ever win the war, for, although a *law of nature* exists which states that *if you want respect then respect others*, people, the terrible beings that they are, will break the agreement to get what they want unless there is an outside authority enforcing the law. So, the only solution, Hobbes writes in his masterpiece, *The Leviathan* (1651) is ABSOLUTE MONARCHY! Hobbes' absolute monarchy is not based on divine right, but, instead, it is based on a *social contract* (an agreement between the people and their ruler) in which the people agree that, since anything is better than the war of all-against-all, they will give up their natural rights to the government in exchange for protection. So, the government is all-powerful, but, in theory, they will never need to actually use their power, it is only a threat.

- **John Locke** → the next significant empiricist, he was somewhat a reaction to Hobbes' negativity. Locke began with the assumption that, at birth, each person is born with a *tabula rasa* (blank slate) and that all human nature and knowledge comes from either direct experience or from reflection. Therefore, since all beliefs come from experience, all beliefs are open to criticism (this was one of the most powerful arguments for equality and tolerance yet). Clearly, Locke was a great supporter of equality, toleration, and education (make good environments). Locke also used his ideas to write a social contract, like Hobbes. Locke's social contract, however, as stated in *An Essay Concerning Human Understanding* (1690) and *Two Treatises of Government* (1689), had almost nothing in common with Hobbes. Locke stated that, in the state of nature, people are neutral, since it all depends on the environment. Based on this, he said that, at birth, each person has *certain inalienable rights of life, liberty and property*. Since people must be forced to respect e/others rights, government is formed, to protect the rights. In his contract, government must protect peoples' rights, but not more, and the people must obey the government so long as it does not do more than necessary. If it does, people have the right to rebel and establish another government. The Declaration of Independence is pretty much just paraphrasing JL's beliefs.

The Effects of the Scientific Revolution

- People felt that human understanding of the universe could be reduced to mathematical laws.
- The universe was no longer appeared to be a mystery. In fact, people felt that it was orderly, rational, and, most importantly, could be understood by humans.
- People felt that humans were able to control their own destiny.
- The concept of *natural laws* developed. These laws, which were similar to the laws found in science by Newton, could govern other aspects of life as well, such as economics, politics, or ethics.
- Science gained wider appeal and unprecedented popularity. Additionally, science was institutionalized, and scientific societies sprung up throughout Europe, on both the national and personal level. The institutions greatly helped the rate of progress.
- **Positive effects of the SciRev** → gain of knowledge, greater toleration (both religious and scientific), less superstition and more scientific answers, and freedom to deviate from established theories, which opened the door for new, further developments.
- **Negative effects of the SciRev** → loss of innocence, loss of traditional faith, loss of faith in heaven, earth is no longer regarded as the center (God's pet project), skepticism, loss of personal/caring God.

- Overall, however, the SR was an **era of optimism** that gave way to an Age of Reason in the 18th century. People living during the SR felt that they had surpassed even the ancients and were at the peak of human knowledge, and ideas of progress dominated intellectual discussions.

The Enlightenment

The age of the Enlightenment began in the late seventeenth century and continued through most of the eighteenth.

The Enlightenment was an age of reason based on faith, not an age of faith based on reason

I. The philosophes

- A. It was led by the philosophes, an informal and unorganized group of critics, political reformers, and **religious skeptics** in Europe and North America whose ideas touched on almost every element of human existence.
- B. The *philosophes* found unity in an ambitious program to create a new worldview for Europe.
- C. Key goal of the philosophes:
 - a. Freedom in its many forms — freedom from arbitrary power, freedom of speech, freedom of trade, freedom of aesthetic response, freedom, in a word, of **moral man to make his own way in the world.**
- D. In short, the philosophes sought to create a worldview based on humanity's claim to be recognized as adult, responsible beings, dependent on no one nor on any institution, whether it was the church or the state.
- E. The philosophes believed there was a moral sense in natural man
- F. The idea that the lot of humanity can be improved drove the Enlightenment philosophes.
- G. To improve humanity however, the new social sciences had employ inductive and deductive reasoning, historical research, scientific (or social science) methods, then compare and evaluate the information they have developed.

II. . Roots of the Enlightenment

- A. The roots of the Enlightenment lay in the views about the natural world and humanity brought forth during the Scientific Revolution. The beginning of the Enlightenment can be identified as the period between the publication of Newton's *Principia Mathematica* (1687) and the death of Louis XIV (1715).

B. There was great faith in the instrument of reason rather than mere accumulation of knowledge

C. Newton and Locke: The ideas of Isaac Newton and John Locke provided a new framework for studying the world and the people in it.

D. Newton

1. Newton encouraged people to examine the workings of nature directly through experimentation and concrete evidence.
2. His studies uncovered what seemed to be rational laws of nature.

E. Locke

1. John Locke had denied innate (something you are born with) ideas and derived all knowledge, opinions and behavior from **sensory experiences**.
2. Locke applied Newton's ideas about experience to understanding the human psyche and argued that human personalities developed through experience.
3. He claimed that each person entered the world as a blank page, but as they grew older, their experiences shaped their personalities.
4. Thus, according to Locke, humans could take charge of their own destiny and make ways to better their lives.

F. Locke's Theory of the Consent of the Governed: People have NATURAL RIGHTS: (i) life; (ii) liberty; (iii) property. While people are generally good, it is probably, without an organized society, that in trying to secure rights, people will come into conflict.

1. Thus, members of a community or political body AGREE to invest powers of protecting the natural rights of all to a GOVERNMENT (he does not say which type, unlike Hobbes).
2. Purpose of the government is to ensure that everyone is free to pursue his/her rights.
3. IF the government ABUSES ITS POWER and THREATENS THE NATURAL RIGHTS, the people have the POWER TO DISSOLVE THE GOVERNMENT AND FORM A NEW ONE.

4. COMPLETE opposite of Hobbes, who saw necessity of an absolute monarch who would IMPOSE order.
- G. At the same time Newton and Locke presented their ideas to the world, on the continent of Europe, the philosophes were using the concepts of natural laws and **human improvability** as the framework for their notions on how to improve the human condition.
- H. . British politics and society as a model of a stable and tolerant system.
1. With a theoretical framework and a practical model to work from, the philosophes needed a way to spread their message to a wide audience.
 2. Impact of printing press: volume of printed works-books, magazines, newspapers, pamphlets, and broadsides-rose dramatically throughout Europe
 3. The only thing that remained for the reformers was to provide the messages they wanted to communicate.

III. Enlightenment Thinkers and Thought

A. Voltaire

1. Challenged, usually indirectly, the Catholic Church and Christian religious doctrine at every turn, often using satire.
2. He particularly hated what he saw as the fanaticism of organized religion, which he blamed for many savage and inhuman acts.
3. Although many devout Christians saw Voltaire as a blasphemer, he was in fact a Deist (believe in a God who created the universe as an orderly system and then stepped back to let humans run their own affairs; NOT the angry, Biblical God).

B. The key to the philosophes' strength lay in their numbers, organization, and above all, their dedication to reform.

C. The Encyclopedia

1. This ideal was perhaps best realized in a project begun by Denis Diderot and Jean le Rond d'Alembert.

2. These two men edited what became known as *The Encyclopedia: The Rational Dictionary of the Sciences, the Arts, and the Crafts*
3. In what became a seventeen-volume work, Diderot and d'Alembert set out to teach people how to think **critically and objectively** about matters of all different types
4. He was humanistic, secular, modern and scientific
5. He expected from his method a regeneration of mankind

D. Men such as the Baron de Montesquieu and Jean-Jacques Rousseau challenged the political and social systems of Europe

- H. The writers of this generation continually criticized the church (although often indirectly to avoid reprisals from religious and political authorities) as being full of superstition and backward, “barbarian” ways of thinking
- I. They also rejected the Christian idea that humans were stained with original sin and therefore unable to create a better life for themselves on earth

J. Deism - became quite popular with many of the major Enlightenment figures
It was a religious belief centered around a God who had created the universe, set it to operating under a set of distinct, orderly laws, and had then stepped aside to let it run

1. The Deists often compared their view of God to that of a clockmaker who, having once created a clock, then wound it up and let it operate in an orderly fashion
2. Deism was a logical outgrowth of scientific inquiry, rational faith in humanity, and the study of comparative religion
3. It emphasized an impersonal deity, natural religion and the common morality of all human beings

In America, the deists were led by Franklin, Jefferson, Madison, and Adams

K. Montesquieu

1. Montesquieu published his *Spirit of the Laws* in 1748.
2. Being a member of the nobility, he called for an “intermediary corps” and fundamental laws to temper the monarchy.

3. constitutionalism with its principle of separation of powers, the basis of modern constitution-making.
4. He advocated the examination of a variety of constitutional forms to discover the republic and its inner law.
5. Montesquieu based his model on the government of Great Britain, claiming that a system which placed a series of checks and balances on the power of the monarch would be best.
6. network of interacting forces, if altered, affect the equilibrium of the whole structure--this becomes the basis for the idea of a balance of powers in government (U.S. Constitution).

L. Jean Jacques Rousseau – “Man is born free and everywhere he is in chains”

1. Rousseau rejected all compromise with contemporary society
2. He called for a moral reformation, a revival of religion, and a purification of manners
3. He passionately asserted the moral and legal equality of man, the sovereignty of the people and the authority of the general will
4. He wanted a return to primitive simplicity
5. While he realized that his “state of nature” never existed, he asserted that self-knowledge was the source of his proofs

IV. Enlightened Despotism and Revolution

A. Prussia--Frederick the Great: “The First Servant of the State”

1. In Prussia, Frederick II, also known as Frederick the Great, made efforts to rationalize agricultural and business methods, to codify and simplify the Prussian legal system, and to improve the conditions of peasants.
2. Although Frederick made some gains in all three areas, long-standing traditions and the power of the nobility prevented him from making significant progress

B. Joseph II of Austria

1. He eventually abolished serfdom in all the lands owned by the crown
2. He also began a program to increase the literacy of the Austrian population, establish freedom of the press, and even grant limited freedom of religion (the

3. Unfortunately, Joseph's harsh personality and tendency to sometimes override the wishes of the nobility created a backlash against his reforms
4. Some of them were overturned even before his death.

C. Russia--Catherine the Great

1. Perhaps the ablest of the "enlightened despots" was Catherine the Great of Russia
2. Born in Germany, Catherine had been brought to Russia to marry Tsar Peter III
3. After eight years of brutal treatment at his hands, she orchestrated a coup in 1762 that saw Peter killed and left her on the throne
4. Catherine saw herself as a true follower of the Enlightenment
5. She frequently corresponded with Voltaire and acted as a patron to Diderot.

D. Catherine's Reign

1. As ruler, she worked to construct a new legal system for Russia (although the new laws actually favored the wealthy class at the expense of the serfs) and to bring a greater level of literacy and education to the upper-class
2. Her boldest reform was to secularize lands owned by the Russian Orthodox Church-a move that not even Peter the Great had dared to take.
3. But despite these measures, Catherine remained in step with the other major powers of central and eastern Europe to a large degree.
4. Like the rulers of Prussia and Austria, Catherine found she had to share power with a class of nobles and thus had to give in to their wishes on many major issues
5. Her greatest failure to meet Enlightenment ideals, as was the case of Frederick, Maria Theresa, and even Joseph II, was her *failure to improve the condition of the serfs living under her rule*

REVIEW : THE FRENCH REVOLUTION

I. The Origins of the Revolution

- A. The Enlightenment provided the ideology for the Revolution
- B. For decades the philosophes questioned accepted political and religious beliefs and advocated for freedom, liberty and reason.
- C. French government was corrupt and ineffective.
 - 1. Louis XVI was not suited to be an absolute monarch (he was stupid) and his queen, Marie Antoinette, was hated through the land for her lack of sympathy with the people.
- D. Estates
 - 1. First Estate – Clergy – owned vast lands
 - 2. Second Estate – Nobility – paid almost no taxes
 - 3. Third Estate – Everyone else, including BOURGEOISIE, who had Enlightenment ideas.
- E. Most peasants burdened by taxes, but were not really involved with the start of the Revolution

II. Prelude to Revolution

- A. France had debts from French and Indian War, helping U.S. in War of Revolution
- B. Long-term economic difficulties made it necessary for the king to try to tax the nobility, an act that pretty much set in motion the unraveling.
- C. After looking at plans to raise revenue, Louis XVI realized he had no choice but to convene the ESTATES-GENERAL, which had not met since early 1600s
 - 1. What king wanted was taxation on nobles
- D. The first big issue was the method of voting for the EG.
 - 1. Third Estate – representing most of population – wanted one representative, one vote.
 - 2. With voting by estate, First and Second would always override Third Estate
- E. June 1789, Third Estate, frustrated, proclaimed itself the National Assembly.
 - 1. A few days later, most of the clergy joined.
 - 2. The king decided to support nobles and locked the Third Estate out of its meeting hall.
 - 3. Tennis Court Oath - the Revolutionaries went to a tennis court and swore that they wouldn't separate until they had given France a constitution.
- F. Finally the king recognized the National Assembly
 - 1. King ordered 1st and 2nd Estates to join the assembly
But was secretly was ordering 20,000 royal troops to the Paris region.
- G. At the same time, ordinary citizens were getting mad over food shortages.

H. When they heard rumors of the royal troops, they feared an aristocratic plot to overthrow the National Assembly.

I. July 14, 1789, Parisian crowds attacked the Bastille, a prison and armory, and took control

J. Starvation and rumors (that nobles were going to destroy the harvest) caused The Great Fear in which the peasants attacked nobles and revolted.

1. After women marched on royal palace at Versailles, king agreed to come to Paris.

K. August 26th, 1789, National Assembly writes The Declaration of the Rights of Man and the Citizen

1. Based on Enlightenment principles and U.S. Bill of Rights
2. Freedom of expression, natural rights

L. A CRITICAL MISTAKE of the National Assembly.

1. In 1790, they passed law that forced clergy to become state employees and take oaths of loyalty to state.
2. Sought to sell church lands
3. Peasants, who were religious, were outraged, and a split between peasants and BOURGEOISIE opened.
4. Peasants wanted modest reforms and FOOD
5. Bourgeoisie wanted social restructuring

III. The Legislative Assembly (1791 – 1792)

A. After the constitution was finished, the National Assembly gave way to the Legislative Assembly.

B. King Louis XIV and his family tried to escape to Austria (Marie Antoinette's home country)

1. Public rage

C. Unity fades as people begin to split into CONSERVATIVE, MODERATE, AND RADICAL blocs.

D. WAR: Austria and Prussia proposed to restore Louis XVI to the throne (were leaders scared for their own thrones?).

E. Legislative Assembly declared war on Austria – April 1792

1. Prussia joins war on Austria's side
2. War goes badly for France; Paris in danger
3. As panic ensues, mobs march on king's Paris palace and imprison him and family

F. Legislative Assembly realizes a monarchy is no longer possible – it is abolished (1792)

G. Yet another legislature – National Convention – goes into effect

1. A republic is declared

H. Dominant faction – radical JACOBINS

1. King is tried and found guilty of treason
2. January 1793 – King Louis XVI executed by guillotine

I. England, Holland, and Spain join the war against France

1. France begins a DRAFT of all men 18-40
2. Army grows large

IV. The Radical Phase (1792 – 1794)

A. Jacobins have enemies (peasants horrified at execution of the king), priests, and other political factions.

B. After power struggle, MAXIMILIEN ROBESPIERRE became leader

1. Believed in a “republic of virtue”
2. to achieve that, enemies would have to be rooted out and eliminated

C. Summer 1793 – Committee of Public Safety

1. While a committee of 12, Robespierre held power

D. REIGN OF TERROR – July 1793-July 1794

1. As many as 40,000 killed – most of whom were peasants and urban poor
2. Guillotine in Paris served as a public spectacle
3. NO ONE WAS SAFE
4. Former queen, Marie Antoinette, executed

V. End of the Terror and the Directory

A. Revolution was devouring itself

B. Leaders turned on Robespierre – he was sent to the guillotine.

C. French opinion turned more conservative.

D. Need for food and order after such tumult

E. 1795 – moderates of the assembly set up five-man executive committee known as the **Directory**.

1. It also had a two-house legislature
2. But members of the directory were corrupt

F. Talented general NAPOLEON BONAPARTE put in charge of France’s army

Review Sheet – The Development of Nationalism

I. Overview

- A. Nationalism developed as a movement of resistance against the forcible internationalism of the Napoleonic Empire.
- B. Since the international system was essentially French, the nationalistic movements were anti-French; and since Napoleon was an autocrat, they were anti-autocratic.
- C. The nationalism of the period was a mixture of the *conservative* and the *liberal*.
- D. Some nationalists, predominantly conservative, insisted on the value of their own peculiar institutions, customs, folkways, and historical development, which they feared might become extinct under the French and Napoleonic system.
- E. Others (or maybe even the same persons) insisted on more *self-determination*, more participation in government, more representative institutions, more freedom for the individual against the bureaucratic interference of the state.
- F. Both conservatism and liberalism rose up against Napoleon, destroyed him, outlasted him, and shaped the history of the following generations.
- G. Nationalism was thus very complex and appeared in different countries in different ways.

II. England

- A. In England the *solidarity* [togetherness] of the country exhibited itself; all classes rallied and stood shoulder to shoulder against Napoleon.
- B. Ideas of reforming Parliament or tampering with historic English liberties were resolutely put aside
- C. Did the Napoleonic wars help England through a very difficult social crisis?
- D. The Industrial Revolution was causing dislocation, misery, unemployment, and even revolutionary agitation among a small minority, all of which were put aside by the patriotic need of resistance to Bonaparte.

III. Spain

- A. In Spain, nationalism took the form of fierce resistance to the invading French armies
- B. Some Spanish nationalists were liberal; a bourgeois group at the port city of Cadiz, rebelling against the French regime, proclaimed the Spanish constitution of 1812, modeled on the French constitution of 1791.
- C. But Spanish nationalism drew its greatest strength from sentiments that were counterrevolutionary, aiming to restore the clergy and the Bourbon Dynasty

III. Italy

- A. In Italy the Napoleonic regime was better liked and national feeling was less anti-French than in Spain.
- B. Bourgeois of the Italian cities generally prized the efficiency and enlightenment of French methods and often shared in the anticlericalism of the French Revolution.
- C. The French regime, which lasted in Italy from 1796 to 1814, broke the habit of loyalty to the various duchies [places ruled by dukes], oligarchic republics [republics ruled by a small elite], papal states, and foreign dynasties [such as Austria] by which Italy had long been ruled.
- D. Napoleon never unified Italy, but he consolidated it into only three parts, and the French influence brought the notion of a politically united Italy within the bounds of reasonable aspiration.

IV. The Movement of Thought in Napoleonic Germany

- A. By far the most momentous new national movement took place in Germany.
- B. The Germans rebelled not only against the Napoleonic rule but also against the century-old dominance of French civilization.

- C. *They rebelled not only against the French armies but also against the philosophy of the Age of Enlightenment.*
- D. The years of the French Revolution and Napoleon were for Germany the years of great artistic flowering
1. Beethoven; the poets Goethe and Schiller; and historians and philosophers such as Herder and Kant.
- E. German ideas fell in with all the ferment [mental activity] of the new cultural movement known as “romanticism,” which was challenging the “dry abstractions” of the Age of Reason and shaping the new themes of literature, music, art, and historical research.
- F. Germany became the most “romantic” of all countries, and German influence spread throughout Europe.
- G. In the nineteenth century the Germans came to be widely regarded as intellectual leaders, somewhat as the French had been in the century before.
- H. And most of the distinctive features of German thought were somehow connected with nationalism in a broad sense.
- I. Since the end of the Thirty Years’ War in the mid-1600s, the Germans had been the least nationally minded of all the larger European peoples. They prided themselves on their world citizenship or cosmopolitan outlook.
- J. Looking out from the tiny states in which they lived, they were conscious of Europe, conscious of other countries, but hardly conscious of Germany.
- K. The German world had no *tangible* [actual] frontiers; the area of German speech simply faded out into Alsace or the Austrian Netherlands, or into Poland, Bohemia, or the upper Balkans.
- L. Until the 1780s, the upper classes of Germany looked to France for dress, etiquette, ideas, and innovations. Even the enlightened despot Frederick the Great hired French tax collectors and wrote his own books and poems in French.
- M. About 1780 signs of a change set in. Even Frederick, in his later years, predicted a golden age of German literature, proudly declaring that Germans could do what other nations had done. In 1784
- N. A pastor and theologian [professor of religion] named J. G. Herder published *Ideas on the Philosophy of the History of Mankind*. Herder believed French culture was frivolous [silly; marked by unseriousness]. He concluded that imitation of foreign ways made people shallow and artificial.
- O. Herder declared that German ways were indeed different from French, but not for any reason that made German culture inferior.
1. All true culture or civilization, he held, must arise from native roots. It must arise also from the life of the common people, the *Volk*, not from the cosmopolitan and out-of-touch upper classes.
- P. Each people [meaning by a people a group sharing the same language], had its own attitudes, spirit, or genius. *A sound civilization must express a national character or Volksgeist*. And the character of each people was special to itself.
- Q. Herder did not believe the nations to be in conflict; quite the contrary, he simply insisted that they were different. He did not believe German culture to be the best [many other peoples, notably the Slavs, later found his ideas applicable to their own needs].
- R. Herder’s philosophy of history was very different from Voltaire’s. Voltaire and the *philosophes* *had expected all people to progress along the same path of reason and enlightenment* toward the same civilization.
1. Herder thought that all peoples *should develop their own genius in their own way*

WHERE	COLONIAL POWER	WHO	LEADERS	STRUGGLE	OUTCOME
San Domingue (western part of the island of Hispaniola; eastern part remained Santo Domingo, the modern-day Dominican Republic)	France	Enslaved Africans who were brought to the island, terrorized, and forced to do the brutal work of sugar cane cultivation and refining	Toussaint L'Ouverture,	L'Ouverture led army composed of slaves. France sent troops and captured him. Many French troops died of tropical diseases (Yellow Fever and Malaria). Leadership of revolt taken up by Jean-Jacques Dessalines . Much brutality by French forces. After winning major battle, Dessalines declares the former colony a republic and names it Haiti .	Haiti became second-oldest republic (after U.S.) in Western Hemisphere. Jean-Jacques Dessalines adopted the Napoleonic model and crowned himself Emperor Jacques I . He was assassinated in 1806, and civil strife and dictatorships followed.
Viceroyalty of New Spain (Mexico) – included large parts of current-day southwest and central plains United States	Spain . Hernando Cortés landed in 1519 and marched to Aztec capital and seized it.	Natives (Indians) and mestizos (people of mixed European and Indian blood). First leader was a priest who held Enlightenment ideals, Father Miguel Hidalgo . However, the creole (native-born people of Spanish descent) put down rebellion.	Father Miguel Hidalgo Father José Morales	A liberal revolution in Spain in 1820 began negotiations, and the creole officer who had led the struggle for the Spanish army, Agustín de Iturbide proclaimed independence.	Iturbide proclaimed himself emperor, but was soon deposed. A military strongman soon emerged, and Mexico was governed as a dictatorship. A war with the United States resulted in the loss of Texas. Dictatorships continued into the 20 th century.
Brazil	Portugal (explored South American coast in 1400s and received Portugal under 1493 Treaty of Tordesillas)	The crown prince of Portugal, later King John VI, fled in 1807 as Napoleon made preparations to invade Iberian Peninsula. Brazil became capital of Portuguese Empire.	Dom Pedro / Emperor Pedro I	Even after fall of Napoleon, King of Portugal remained in Brazil and proclaimed United Kingdom of Portugal, Brazil and Algarve. In 1821, he returned to Portugal to put down liberal rebellion. His son, Dom Pedro , remained in Portugal and creole planter class asked him to declare independence and rule Brazil.	Dom Pedro became Emperor Pedro I (he was also briefly King of Portugal). Became an authoritarian ruler backed by wealthy planters. Slavery continued until 1888. Monarchy ended and republic established in 1889.
Central & South America	Spain Balboa explored the isthmus of Panama, and Pizarro landed in Peru and conquered the Aztec Empire	creole class – people of Spanish heritage who were born in Latin America. They resented their limited political opportunities and the privileges held by the highest class (and the only one from which high officials were born), the Peninsulares (people born in Spain)	Simón Bolívar, a creole who had traveled in Europe and America and was familiar with Enlightenment ideas. José de San Martín , a creole general and associate (and later rival of) Bolívar	Venezuela , birthplace of Bolívar, declared independence in 1811, but a long struggle followed. Argentina , home of San Martín , declared independence in 1816. Chile's fight for freedom was led by Bernardo O'Higgins . Bolivia created.	Early attempts at regional cooperation failed and quarreling began. Bolívar became a dictator of Bolivia, but regional strife continued, and the creole class did not bring democracy to Central and South America.

Review Sheet - THE UNIFICATION OF GERMANY

I. Before 1815

- A. “Germany” consisted of many small kingdoms and principalities (a country or region ruled by a prince).
- B. Some were “free cities” not ruled by a monarch, and others were governed by a church authority. Most of them had belonged to the Holy Roman Empire, which was dissolved in 1806. Some German states were Catholic; some were Lutheran.

II. The Congress of Vienna (1815)

- A. No attempt to unify Germany was made during the Congress of Vienna, which put Europe back together after the fall of Napoleon.
- B. **Prince Metternich**, the leader of the Congress of Vienna (and an Austrian), feared nationalistic attitudes.
- C. Instead, the 39 German states (including Prussia and Austria) were joined in a very loose “German Confederation.” Austria and France were happy to see the Germans quarrel among themselves and remain weak.

III. After 1848

- A. During the year of revolutions across Europe, a group of private citizens attempted to organize a united Germany and write a constitution.
- B. This was called the Frankfurt Assembly.
- C. This attempt failed, because the delegates had no power.
- D. Austria and Prussia remained dominant.
- E. While political unity was not yet established, the German states were becoming integrated by a customs union (allowing goods to pass freely), railroads, and telegraphs.

IV. Prussia Becomes the Dominant German Power

- A. Among the Great Powers of Europe, Prussia was the smallest, and its strength rested on the might of its army.
- B. In 1850, Prussia developed a parliament.
- C. One of the most powerful groups in Prussia was the Junkers, the aristocratic land-owning families. The Prussian Army’s officer corps was made up almost exclusively of Junkers.

- D. In the years since 1815, the population of Prussia had increased from 11 million to 18 million, but the size of the army remained unchanged. When parliament refused to grant money for enlarging the army, in 1862, the king appointed a new chief minister, **OTTO VON BISMARCK**.
- E. Bismarck was from an old Junker family. He distrusted most people and things, and thought only of Prussian interests.
- F. Bismarck especially feared democracy, liberalism, and socialism. His mind, and his actions, were governed by duty, order, and service.

V. Realpolitik and “Blood and Iron”

- A. Bismarck began to think about German unification, but only as a way to strengthen Prussia
- B. His world-view and basic principle was realpolitik (literally, “real politics”).
- C. This is a term that describes politics and policies that are based on practicality and self-interest, rather than ideal or abstract notions (such as “human rights” or “respect for other countries”).
- D. Basically, under realpolitik, if it’s good for your country, you do it.
- E. Bismarck was able to play off factions: Junkers, liberals, socialists. He had no permanent allegiances or attachments. Today’s enemy might be tomorrow’s friend.
- F. Bismarck essentially ignored the Prussian parliament.
- G. The king gave Bismarck almost unlimited power.
- H. Bismarck declared that the boundaries set in 1815 were no longer useful, and Prussia would find opportunities to expand.
- I. And this would be done, he said: “Not by speeches and majority votes...but by blood and iron.”

VI. Wars of Expansion

- A. The War of Schleswig-Holstein (1864)
 - 1. The nation of Denmark sits on a peninsula that juts out from Germany.
 - 2. Two semi-autonomous border provinces (ruled by dukes), Schleswig and Holstein (the place where the black-and-white spotted cows were first bred).
 - 3. In 1864, Denmark attempted to annex (incorporate) Schleswig and Holstein.

- B. Bismarck saw this as an opportunity to enlarge Prussia.
- C. Using realpolitik, Bismarck made an alliance with Austria (so it would seem that they were acting for the good of the German Confederation), and then Prussia and Austria declared war on Denmark.
- D. Austro-Prussian War (1866)
 - 1. Denmark was quickly defeated, but Prussia and Austria could not agree on the boundaries and administration of the conquered provinces.
 - 2. Knowing that Britain, Russia, and France were all occupied with problems of their own and would not be likely to intervene, Bismarck quickly turned on his former ally, Austria, and declared war on Austria in 1866.
 - 3. The well-trained Prussian Army crushed the Austrian troops in the and Prussia emerged from the “Seven Weeks’ War” with Schleswig, Holstein, and the formerly “free” city of Frankfurt.
- E. With Bismarck’s swift actions, the old German Confederation collapsed, and Bismarck organized a new “North German Confederation,” composed of Prussia and 21 other German states.
- F. A constitution — which made the king of Prussia its hereditary leader — was drawn up. The lower chamber of the Reichstag (parliament) was elected by universal male suffrage.
- G. The Franco-Prussian War (1870)
 - 1. The southern states of Germany were not in Bismarck’s confederation, and he worried that they would fall under the control of France or Austria.
 - 2. Bismarck — once again using realpolitik — believed that they could be scared into allying themselves with Prussia if Prussia went to war with France, and Austria would be left out.
 - 3. Bismarck essentially engineered an incident in which it appeared that the French ambassador had insulted the Prussian king.
 - 4. In July 1870, the French Empire, under the (terrible) leadership of Napoleon III declared war on Prussia.
- H. France had no allies, and its army was inept. The Prussians crushed the French by early September and took the French emperor, Napoleon III, was taken prisoner.
 - 1. Prussia then encircled Paris and besieged it.

When France surrendered, Bismarck proclaimed the German Empire, and the king of Prussia became the hereditary Emperor of Germany.

2. His title was kaiser (German for Caesar)
3. empire was called the Second Reich (the first was Holy Roman Empire, and the Third Reich was created by the Nazis).
4. Realpolitik had paid off.!

ITALIAN UNIFICATION

- A. The settlements reached in 1815 at the Vienna Congress had restored Austrian domination over the Italian peninsula but had left Italy completely fragmented.
- B. The Congress had divided the territory among a number of European nations and the victors of the Napoleonic Wars. The Kingdom of Sardinia recovered Piedmont (Piemonte), Nice, and Savoy and acquired Genoa.
- C. There were three major obstacles to unity at the time the congress took place:
 - 1. the Austrian occupation of Lombardy and Venice in the north
 - 2. the principality under the sovereignty of the pope, i.e. the Papal States that controlled the center of the Italian peninsula; and
 - 3. the existence of various states that had maintained independence, such as the **Kingdom of Sardinia**, also called Piedmont-Sardinia, which located at the French border had slowly expanded since the Middle Ages and was considered the most advanced state in Italy..
- D. **Giuseppe Mazzini**, an Italian patriot spearheaded a national revolutionary movement. Mazzini's ideology of an independent integrated republic spread quickly among large segments of the Italian people. Revolutionary cells formed throughout the Italian peninsula.
- E. The first revolution on the Italian peninsula took place in the Kingdom of Sicily, which resulted in a constitution for the whole kingdom.
 - 1. A revolt in 1848 caused pope Pius IX to flee Rome and a republic was proclaimed.
 - 2. King Charles Albert of Sardinia mobilized his army and marched to the assistance of Lombardy and joined in the war to drive the Austrians from Italian soil.
- F. While it initially looked as if the independence and unity of Italy was a realistic possibility, the Austrians defeated the Piedmontese and Charles Albert had to abdicate. His son, Victor Emmanuel II, succeeded him in 1849.
- G. A new revolutionary leader, **Giuseppe Garibaldi**, could not avoid Rome's destruction by the French in 1849.
- H. **Count Camillo di Cavour** became prime minister of the Kingdom of Sardinia in 1852. It was his leadership and accommodating policies that led to the unification of Italy in little more than a decade.
- I. Cavour was able to persuade France to join a secretly planned war against Austria.
- J. By early 1859, Cavour had caused a crisis that provoked the Austrians to send an **ultimatum** demanding Piedmontese disarmament.
 - 1. As part of the "plan." Cavour rejected the ultimatum which led to the subsequent war with the Austrians.
 - 2. The French came to the aid of the Piedmontese and the Austrians were defeated in two major battles.
 - 3. The Austrians were forced to surrender Lombardy, with its great city of Milan, to France.
 - 4. France transferred Lombardy to the sovereignty of Victor Emmanuel II.
- K. Following elections during 1859 and 1860, all northern states (of the Italian peninsula), except Venetia, which was still part of Austria, joined the Kingdom of Sardinia.

- L. France's growing concern with respect to the sudden (large) size of his neighbor was resolved in part by the granting of the Sardinian provinces of Savoy, near the Alps, and Nice, on the Mediterranean coast to France in 1860.
 - 1. After 1860, the only French presence on the Italian peninsula was in the city of Rome, where French troops remained at the request of the pope.
- M. In 1860 Garibaldi conquered Sicily and set up a provisional government.
- N. Garibaldi then conquered Naples, which he then delivered to Victor Emmanuel in 1861.
- O. With the annexation of Umbria and the Marches from the papal government, a united Italy was finally established in 1861 with Victor Emmanuel as its king.
- P. The Italian kingdom was missing Rome, which was still a papal possession, and Venice, which was controlled by the Austrians.
- Q. Venice was added to Italy in 1866 after Prussia defeated Austria in the Seven Weeks' War, in which Italy sided with Prussia - Venice was its reward.
- R. Then, in 1870 during the Franco-Prussian War, the French withdrew from Rome and the remaining Papal States were left unprotected
 - 1. Italian troops moved into Rome without opposition.
- S. Rome voted for union with Italy in October 1870 and, in July 1871, Rome became the capital of a united Italy.

THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION

I. Basic Conditions before the Industrial Revolution

- A. Prior to the eighteenth century, the levels of populations seemed to flow in cyclical, or wave-like patterns, depending on natural phenomena such as crop failures, plagues, etc.
- B. Around 1730, a new era in Europe's demography began. During the 18th century (which is considered, demographically, to begin in 1730), Europe's population skyrocketed, jumping from 120 to 190 million.
- C. Prussia, Sweden, Spain, France, and especially England experienced tremendous population increases during this period. After this time, the cyclic behavior of the populations stopped, and Europe's population simply continued to increase.
- D. The rapid population growth was, according to historians, caused by a decline in mortality rates (as opposed to an increase in birthrates) in all the countries except for England.
- E. The decline in mortality rates occurred because Europe began to enjoy a more stable and better food supply (due to improvement in avg. climate, opening of more farmland, and improvement in transportation systems). Disease was still a major problem, but, on the whole, mortality rates declined.
- F. During the 18th century, overall wealth also increased, although the growth was not consistent. Still, the overall trend was a positive one. In the first decades of the century, prices remained stable, due to the economic consequences of the War of the Spanish Succession.
- G. Significant growth began around 1730 and continued until 1815. This period was characterized by gradual price inflation (which reflected growing demands for goods from a growing population).
- H. This gradual price inflation stimulated the economy, and, although there were some problems, the economy generally grew.
- I. The growth, however, did not affect all sectors of society in the same way. Though the gradual increase in prices was good for landlords, employers, merchants, and landed peasants, it was very bad for the poor, landless peasants, who could barely afford to live.

II. Economic Conditions Setting the Stage for the Industrial Revolution

- A. **Proto- industrialization:** is the economic development that occurred just prior to the rise of the factory system and may have led to it.

- B. Protoindustrialization, also known **as the putting out system**, was a system in which merchants distributed raw materials to peasants' households, who would process it, and then would pick it up and sell it.
- C. Protoindustrialization led to increased manufacturing and population growth in rural areas. Additionally, it strengthened marketing networks, helped merchants get more money (which could be re-invested in production), helped the peasants make money (increasing their demand for goods), and allowed peasants to familiarize themselves w/industrial processes.
- D. Though it didn't lead to technological improvement, it helped economic growth.

III. Changes in Industry

- A. During the 18th century, most industries remained the same, dramatic change was beginning to occur, **especially in the manufacturing of cotton cloth**.
- B. The changes in industry were meant to increase the productivity of labor through new technologies. This replacement of workers with new tools and machines, which is known as factor substitution, eventually led to **the factory system**.
- C. Increases in performance (which is measured by the output per individual) in industry always depend on the structure (characteristics that support industry – economy, politics, etc.) of the society.
- D. Before Europeans could change the format of industry, they had to face major obstacles and make changes that affected the very structure of European society.
- E. Europeans faced many difficulties as they attempted to change the structure of the economy, such as:
 1. **Small Market Size** - since European countries were cut off from one another for both physical and political reasons, merchants were forced to deal with very limited markets. This slowed the growth of specialized manufacturing and limited the mobility of capital and labor.
 2. **Skewed Distribution of Wealth** - since the aristocracy used most of the income, merchants would cater to their desires and make small quantities of luxury goods, as opposed to lots of cheap goods that would be accessible to the public. This screwed up supply and demand.
 3. **Property Rights/Privileges** - these traditional institutions worked against innovation, as rents and tolls often sucked up capital that would otherwise be available to both would-be consumers (peasants) and **the entrepreneurs** (merchants).
 4. **Guild/Government Regulations** - were huge problems for the merchants. As the guild regulations established a standard, traditional procedure for

industry, which was not be changed, they made innovation exceedingly difficult. Government restrictions on economic activity and licensing of monopolies only made it more difficult for merchants.

5. **Cultural Attitudes** - as many Europeans, especially the nobles, still regarded earning money as dirty and simply wanted to have their titles, going into business ("being in trade") was discouraged.

IV. Laissez-Faire ("Let it Be") Economics

- A. Many Europeans began to question and criticize the barriers that prevented further industrialization and innovation. They called for less control of the economy.
- F. Adam Smith - a Scottish philosopher, wrote *An Inquiry into the Nature and Causes of the Wealth of Nations* (1776).
- G. Smith believed that MONEY was not actually wealth, but only showed it, and that real wealth consisted of the added value of manufactured items produced by invested capital.
- H. Most importantly, Smith **said economic progress required that each individual be allowed to pursue his/her self-interest freely w/out restrictions for this would lead to economic growth.**
- I. Natural divisions of labor and specialization, should be encouraged.
- J. This philosophy became known as laissez-faire economics, which means that people should be allowed to pursue their own economic interests.
- K. Smith also introduced the concept of the **invisible hand** -- if all individuals follow their own self-interest, it would be for the economic good of everyone, since everyone will do what they do best.
- L. Laissez-faire economics caught on, especially in England, and British colonies in North America colonies (soon to become the U.S.) practiced it, leading to creation of wealth.

V. England Begins to Industrialize

- A. England was the first nation to develop a social structure supportive of innovation and economic growth. **So, why was it England?**
- B. many advantages, such as:
 1. Geography - England was close to the sea, which allowed trade with foreign nations and colonies.
 2. England had two great resources essential to industry, **iron and coal**, as
 3. Much good, productive farmland to feed the nation.

4. Existing Capital to Invest - the English began with a store of capital from the colonies.
5. Banking and investing systems – the Bank of England – in 1694. The bank took responsibility of England's public dept, sold shares to the public, and met the interest payments for shareholders. This helped stabilize the markets.
6. Free Trade with other nations
7. Labor Supply - slavery (in American colonies) , cheap labor (peasants) due to the **Enclosure Acts**, which drove the peasants out of the communal farmlands (so they could be used for sheep pastures) and made them look for work.
8. Friendly Political Environment - since the gentry were in control of the government (since they had Parliament) they could pass laws favorable to the merchants.
9. Superb navy to patrol sea lanes; intimidate rivals

VI. Cotton Begins Industrialization

- A. Since England had developed a social structure supportive of industrialization, all it needed was a take off industry, or an industry that would begin a pattern of industrialization all the others would follow.
- B. In England's case, this industry was the weaving of **cotton cloth**
- C. Due to the slave labor in the southern colonies of North America, there was a very large supply of raw cotton.
- D. There was also a very high demand for the durable, cheap cotton goods.
 1. However, the putting-out system had reached its limits in productions, so merchants were ready to take the next step towards industrialization.
- E. **Richard Arkwright**: inventor of the water frame, which was able to twist fibers into thread using water power.
- F. **James Watt**: inventor of the steam engine. Now industry could be located anywhere, not just near rivers.
- G. Arkwright asked Watt to use steam engines to drive his spinning machines, and the first factories were created.
- H. Power-driven loom.

- I. The cotton industry was revolutionized by the 19th century, for goods could be made incredibly fast, and merchants could house all their workers in factories and watch them work.
- J. After industrialization, the price of cotton fell tremendously, and it became available to many poorer people.

VII. Changes in Agriculture

- A. In England, many peasants were able to leave the country and go to the city, where they found work as factory laborers
- B. New agricultural techniques and machines (steel plough, seed drill) , which caused an increase in efficiency and productivity.
- C. Enclosure Movement: throughout Europe, all towns shared communal lands, which were divided into small plots.
- D. This made it very difficult to change agricultural techniques, since the village as a whole had to agree to a certain technique.
- E. But, in England, Parliament was able to (in response to the petitioning of large landowners) enclose all the land in a village, even against the will of the village itself.
- F. Though enclosure was difficult and expensive, it was worth it, for it ended up generating high profits.
- G. In the end, the communal field system was practically eradicated in England, leading to the domination of rural society by great landlords and their tenant farmers.
- H. Enclosure also forced many peasants to leave for the cities, where they could then find work.
- I. On the continent, however, things were very different, for, in Eastern Europe, nobles completely controlled the lives of their serfs, who spent their time in unpaid labor for their noble lord.
- J. In Western Europe, though there was no serfdom, most peasants lived under a under a local lord and owed him certain obligations.
 - 1. Since, throughout the continent, peasants were barely surviving, they had little time to worry about efficiency (change was too risky to afford). So change came very slowly, especially in Eastern Europe.

REVIEW SHEET – MEIJI RESTORATION AND THE RUSSO-JAPANESE WAR

I. MEIJI RESTORATION

- A. In the 1630s, Japanese rulers expelled Europeans from their land and prohibited Japanese to leave the country.
- B. Only one Dutch ship was allowed to visit Nagasaki each year.
- C. **An End to Isolation**
 - 1. In 1853, the United States sent a naval force to Japan under the command of **Commodore Matthew C. Perry** to open diplomatic negotiations with the Japanese government.
 - 2. Perry carried a letter from the American President that presented three demands to the Japanese: (1) that the Japanese grant the United States the right to trade with their country; (2) that they guarantee the safety of American sailors shipwrecked in Japanese waters; and (3) that they allow American ships to take on food, fuel, and water at Japanese ports.
 - 3. Perry told the Japanese that he would return the next year for their answer. He made it clear that the alternative to a treaty granting these rights would be war.
- D. Some Japanese leaders opposed yielding to the Americans, but other, more realistic voices, were aware of America's growing military power.
- E. Perry returned in 1854, Japan signed the **Treaty of Kanagawa** with the United States.
 - 1. The treaty opened up two Japanese ports to foreign trade and met the other American demands.
 - 2. This treaty marked the end of Japanese isolation.
 - 3. Japan, like China, soon had to grant further concessions to foreign powers.
 - 4. The treaties gave these foreign countries control over Japanese tariffs, extensive trading rights in Japan, and the right of **extraterritoriality**.
- F. **The Meiji Period** - The treaties granting privileges to foreigners aroused fierce opposition to the shogun among the Japanese
- G. In 1868, the last Tokugawa shogun resigned, and the emperor, who was only 15 years old, moved his capital from Kyoto to Tokyo.

- H. He took the name **Meiji**, meaning “enlightened government.”
- I. During the Meiji period, from 1868 to 1912, the Japanese government embarked on a course that transformed the country from a feudal state into a modern industrial nation.
- J. **An End to Feudalism** - Large landowners were persuaded to turn their vast estates over to the emperor. They were paid for their lands and were given high positions in government.
- K. The samurai class lost power and prestige because the Meiji government made all classes equal before the law.
- L. Moreover, in 1872, Japan introduced a system of universal military service.
 - 1. This meant peasants and merchants as well as samurai would serve in the armed forces. The samurai were no longer the only class with the right to bear arms, a privilege that had been a major source of their power and prestige.
- M. **Constitutional Government** – Japanese officials impressed with the constitutional system of government in Germany.
- N. In 1889, the emperor presented the constitution to the Japanese people.
- O. The Meiji constitution established a two-house Diet, or parliament.
 - 1. But the Diet had limited power because the emperor had the greatest authority.
 - 2. He could issue laws, veto laws passed by the Diet, and declare war. In practice, however, ministers appointed by the emperor did the actual governing.
- P. Economic and Social Changes - During the Meiji period, Japan moved rapidly to strengthen its economy.
- Q. The government led the effort to modernize Japan by sponsoring new industries.
- R. Meiji leaders borrowed ideas from abroad. Japanese visited factories in Europe and the United States. The government hired thousands of foreign engineers to teach their skills in Japan.
- S. In Japan, cooperation among companies was more important than competition, so companies were often merged to make them more efficient. By 1914, the combination of government support and private initiative had made Japan a powerful industrial nation.

II. JAPAN ON THE WORLD STAGE: THE RUSSO-JAPANESE WAR

- A. Japan’s modernization an imperialistic urge.

1. Expansionists already looked to the Chinese mainland and to the south.
- B. Japanese imperialism first revealed itself to the rest of the world in 1894, when Japan went to war with China over disputes in Korea.
1. The Japanese soon won, equipped as they were with modern weapons, training, and organization.
 2. China ceded (gave) the island of Formosa (Taiwan) and the Liaotung Peninsula to Japan and recognized Korea as an independent state.
- C. This sudden Japanese triumph precipitated a crisis in East Asia. No one had realized how strong Japan had become.
- i. Europeans were astounded that a people who were not “European” could be so powerful
- D. Japanese influence in Manchuria worried Europe.
1. Under pressure, it gave back part of what it had won in 1895 war with China.
 2. Japan felt bullied
 3. Resented Russian advantages on land it considered to be won in war.
- E. Due to the political turmoil at home, Tsar Nicholas II wanted to use the atmosphere of crisis and foreign threat to put down any challenge to his autocratic rule.
- E. War broke out in February 1904 when Japan launched a naval attack on Port Arthur. Both Russia and Japan sent large armies to Manchuria.
- F. British refused to let Russian fleet use Suez Canal; fleet had to travel 18,000 miles.
- G. Japanese fleet annihilated Russian fleet at Battle of Tsushima (May 1905)
- H. U.S. President Theodore Roosevelt mediated an end to the war.
- i. But Japan felt it didn’t get what it fully deserved.

REVIEW SHEET - IMPERIALISM

I. MOTIVES

A. Political and psychological factors

1. prestige for a nation – a mark of greatness

B. Economic motives

1. need for raw materials
2. need for markets

C. Social Darwinism – survival of the fittest

1. Africans and Asians were considered ‘inferior’

D. Religion / Humanitarian

1. “White man’s burden” – need to ‘civilize’ and Christianize

II. BELGIAN CONGO

A. After interest in Dr. David Livingstone, Belgian King Leopold II schemed to acquire a large chunk of Africa using his agent, Henry Stanley

B. African leaders had different concepts of land ownership – Leopold exploited

C. By late 1870s he PERSONALLY owned Belgian Congo

- i. Unbelievable riches
- ii. Torture/coercion used on workers

III. “Scramble for Africa”

A. Germany’s OTTO von Bismarck realized he could set the terms for European colonization.

B. BERLIN CONFERENCE 1884-85

C. Rules for establishing a colony

1. A nation had to actually inhabit interior of area it claimed
2. A nation had to notify other nations

D. Colonies created with little regard for ethnic/tribal/language barriers

1. Europeans used intra-African tensions to their advantage
2. Played tribes off each other while they (Europeans) exploited

E. Direct vs. Indirect Rule

<u>Direct</u>	<u>Indirect</u>
Officials from home Country brought in to rule	use of local leaders limited self-rule
Little/no contact between Colonial masters and locals	European-style institutions Infrastructure
Goal is to assimilate	Goal is to groom local leaders

IV. India

- A. Britain kicked out last French in 1763
- B. Some small Portuguese enclaves
- C. 1600s – Britain relied on BRITISH EAST INDIA COMPANY to rule India
 - i. Sepoy Mutiny – 1857
- D. After that, Britain ruled colony directly

V. CHINA

- A. Manchu Dynasty weak
- B. Britain wanted more leverage – OPIUM WAR 1839
- C. Britain given enclave and EXTRATERRITORIALITY
- D. Taiping Rebellion – led by peasants
- E. Other nations establish enclaves
- F. BOXER REBELLION – anti-foreigner – suppressed by Europeans

VI. CRIMEA

- A. Britain and Turkey fought Russia because Russia had a warm water port on Black Sea
- B. Russia could potentially have influence in the Mediterranean

VII. JAPAN / MEIJI Restoration

- A. Since 1600s, Japan closed off, except for one port
- B. 1853 – American Navy came to Japan – told Japan they wanted trading rights, or else... .
- C. Japan signed commercial treaty with U.S. in 1854
- D. During 1850s, early 1860s, Shogunate crumbling
- E. New emperor, MEIJI EMPEROR (“enlightened rule”) decided that Japan would modernize itself in order to prevent being colonized

- F. Reached out to West for ideas and technology
 - i. Eastern ethics and Western technology
- G. Fast industrialization and militarization
- H. Japan quickly became a world power
 - 1. Defeated China (1894) – acquired rights on mainland
 - 2. RUSSO-JAPANESE WAR – first time in modern history an Asian nation beat a European one.
 - a. Japan given Korea to rule

THE CAUSES OF WORLD WAR ONE

Militarism

- A. The military buildup was especially evident in the **naval rivalry between Britain and Germany**. For most of the 1800s, the British had maintained a “two-power standard.” This meant that their navy was always to be more powerful than the navies of any other two countries combined.
- B. Then, in 1898, Germany began an ambitious program to increase the size of its navy.
- C. Britain saw this as a clear threat to its naval supremacy.
- D. It responded by increasing its own naval spending. This naval race contributed to the growing tensions between these two countries.
- E. European nations also competed for power and prestige by enlarging their armies and implementing reforms (generally adapted from Prussian practices). In 1913, France increased the size of its army by extending required military service from two to three years. Russia almost doubled spending on its army between 1900 and 1914.
- F. Almost every major nation in Europe had a set of elaborate war plans ready.
- G. In particular, the German plan called for marching through neutral Belgium (Belgium was guaranteed to be perpetually neutral when it was created in 1830) to attack France.

Alliances

- A. Germany wanted to keep France isolated.
- B. Bismarck turned to the Austro-Hungarian Empire, which shared a language and culture with Germany, as a natural ally.
- C. Later, he brought Italy (which was weak, sought a strong protector, and was angry at France for the seizure of northern territories) into the fold, and formed the **TRIPLE ALLIANCE**.
- D. France and Russia found common cause and soon entered into an alliance. Each country pledged to come to the aid of the other if one was attacked by a third country (Germany or Austria-Hungary, or both).
- E. England, in first decade of the 20th century, it saw Germany becoming a dangerous rival. In 1907, it joined France and Russia in the **TRIPLE ENTENTE** (“entente” is the French term for a treaty or an understanding between governments).

Nationalism

- A. In the early 20th century, the Balkan states (a peninsula in southeastern Europe).
- B. By 1914, there were 5 independent Balkan States: Albania, Bulgaria, Montenegro, Romania, and Serbia.
- C. Most of the people of the Balkans were **SLAVS** who practiced the Eastern Orthodox faith and spoke a common language.
- D. Serbia, a small country which had won its independence from Turkey, longed to be the leader of the **pan-Slavic movement**.
- E. Russia, which saw itself as the protector of the Orthodox faith, was Serbia's ally.
- F. Austria-Hungary was given the right to administer the region of Bosnia-Herzegovina, which held many Slavs.
- G. In 1908, Austria-Hungary annexed the region outright, infuriating Serbia and Russia.
- H. A secret nationalist society arose in Serbia. The **Society of the Black Hand** devoted itself to freeing Bosnia and Herzegovina from Austrian rule and took as its motto "Union or Death."

Imperialism

- A. Much of the non-European world, particularly Africa and Asia, had been carved up into colonies.
- B. As a result, rivalries over colonial interests had the potential to become showdowns between European powers.
- C. Morocco Crisis of 1905 – Germany seemed to challenge French claim to Morocco
- D. Morocco Crisis of 1911 – same thing.

Assassination

- A. On Sunday, June 28, 1914, **Archduke Franz Ferdinand**, heir to the throne of Austria-Hungary, paid a state visit to **Sarajevo**, the capital of Bosnia.
- B. The neighboring Serbs were furious about the visit. In their minds, the Austrians were sending the archduke into the province that Austria had annexed illegally.
- C. Franz-Ferdinand killed by young Serbian nationalist

WAR

- A. In the wake of the assassination, the Austrian government received an assurance from Germany that it would have a “blank check” to deal with Serbia.
- B. Austria drew up a list of demands — including the right to come into Serbia to investigate — called an **ultimatum**. Austria knew Serbia would not agree to the harsh terms.
- C. After a month of feverish diplomatic activities, with telegrams between governments,
- D. Austria-Hungary declared war on Serbia in July.
- E. Serbia turned to its protector, Russia, and Russia mobilized its troops.
- F. In reaction, Germany mobilized its army and then, with swiftness, invaded neutral Belgium to attack France.
- G. With Belgium’s neutrality violated, England entered the war.

THE GREAT WAR, 1914-1918

I. Overview

- A. Everyone expected a short war.
- B. It lasted for 4 years (August 1914 to November 1918)
- C. The battles took place in Europe, Africa, and the Middle East and on both the Atlantic and Pacific oceans.
- D. New weapons —**such as the machine gun, the airplane, the tank, and poison gas** — caused great destruction and killed millions of people. It was a war that changed the world.
- E. Both sides raised tremendous armies through conscription (draft), and also called on volunteers from their colonies.

II. Western Front

- A. The most important battles of the war were fought in Europe, primarily in France, on the border with Germany
- B. German armies under the **Schlieffen Plan** (for a two-front war with France and Russia) struck through neutral Belgium (attacking Belgian cities and harming civilians) and invaded France.
- C. Early momentum by Germany stopped
- D. From 1915 to 1917, the British and French fought the Germans in one bloody battle after another. Even though tens of thousands were killed, very little territory changed hands.
- E. Both sides dug **trenches**
- F. Between the Allied trenches and the Central Powers' trenches lay "**No-Man's Land**"

III. The Eastern Front

- A. The Central Powers [AUSTRIA/HUNGARY/OTTOMANS] won many victories in Eastern Europe.
- B. In 1915, the Ottoman Turks stopped a British attempt to capture the **Dardanelles**, the passage between the Mediterranean Sea and the Black Sea at Battle of Gallipoli
- C. German and Austrian armies invaded Russia.
- D. Russian losses and suffering were so great, and the leadership by Tsar Nicholas II was so inept, that the tsar abdicated in 1917 and a constitutional democracy was established.
- E. Eager to consolidate their power at home, the Bolshevik government negotiated a peace treaty with Germany in March 1918.

- F. The **Treaty of Brest-Litovsk** required Russia to give up large amounts of territory. The exit of Russia from the war also meant that Germany could now devote all of its resources on the Western Front.

IV. Other Fronts

- A. During the first year of the war, the Allies occupied most of the German colonies in Africa.
- B. In Egypt, British forces successfully defended the Suez Canal from attacks by the Turks.
- C. In 1917 that the British and Arab nationalist forces were able to gain Palestine (modern-day Israel), Mesopotamia, and the Arabian Peninsula.

V. The War at Sea

- A. The Royal Navy blockaded the German coast, causing food shortages in Germany.
- B. Germany's most effective naval weapon was the submarine, U-BOAT
 - 1. U-boat attacks caused tremendous loss of Allied shipping

VI. The United States Enters the War

- A. At the beginning of the war, the United States stayed neutral.
- B. In 1915, over 100 Americans died when the British passenger ship *Lusitania* was torpedoed by a German U-boat.
- C. The president, Woodrow Wilson, up for reelection in 1916, campaigned on the platform "He Kept Us Out of War."
 - 1. He won a narrow victory. Nonetheless, preparations for war were being made, and the U.S. instituted a military draft.
- D. In January 1917, Germany, becoming desperate, announced that it was resuming unrestricted U-boat warfare (no more stopping and announcing before attack, and no respecting of neutral flags) around Britain.
 - i. Three U.S. vessels were sunk, outraging the U.S.

- E. Just at that time, British Intelligence had intercepted and decoded a message from Germany's foreign minister, Arthur Zimmermann, to the government of Mexico:
The **Zimmermann Telegram**

1. If Mexico would enter the war on the German side, Germany would aid Mexico in reconquering California, Nevada, Arizona and New Mexico — land that Mexico lost to the United States in the 1846-1848 Mexican-American War

- F. American public was angered.
G. President Wilson, who had earlier said that the U.S. was "too proud to fight," now argued that the U.S. had to intervene in "the war to end all wars."
H. The U.S. declared war on the Central Powers in early April, 1917.
I. Some troops of the United States' **Allied Expeditionary Force** were sent to Europe soon after the declaration
J. but the full U.S. troop strength did not come until the spring of 1918, when the armies of Europe were exhausted and near collapse.
K. In June, 1918, U.S. troops participated in two important battles that slowed what had been some momentum by Germany.
L. By the autumn, they had thrown the Germans back. Germany was in chaos, and **Kaiser Wilhelm II** abdicated.
M. At 11:00 a.m. on November 11, 1918, an armistice (an agreement to stop fighting; NOT a peace treaty) went into effect

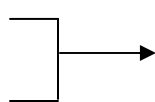
Effects of the Treaty of Versailles on Germany

Germany lost:

100% of its prewar colonies (Pacific Ocean, Asia, and Africa)

80% of its prewar naval fleet

48% of its iron production
16% of its coal production



The Saar Region of Germany, rich in iron and coal, was transferred to France (for a 15-year period)

The region of Alsace-Lorraine was given to France

Overall:

Germany lost 13% of its prewar territory

Germany lost 12% of its prewar population

Germany allowed only small self-defense army of 100,000

Germany forced to accept COMPLETE RESPONSIBILITY for the war

Germany forced to pay \$32 billion in reparations to the Allies

THE ECONOMIC CRISIS IN GERMANY AFTER WORLD WAR I

Inflation is the term used to describe an increase in the cost of goods in an economy. Typically a rate of inflation will be between 2 and 6% over the course of a year. This means that if something costs \$1 at the start of the year, it will cost \$1.02 to \$1.06 a year later. In general, a national economy can cope with low levels of inflation, but when there are high levels of inflation, the value of money drops — in other words, it takes more money to buy something. A person whose wages have not been raised will have to spend more and more of his/her income on goods.

Hyperinflation is a term used to describe levels of inflation that are very high. This was the case in Germany in the period 1919 - 1923. The **Big Four** powers at the **Treaty of Versailles** made Germany accept full guilt for starting the war, and also set the level of **reparations** (money damages) Germany would have to pay. In 1921, the amount of reparations owed to Allies was set at 132 billion gold marks (\$33 billion) in annual installments of 2.5 billion gold marks.

In January 1919: \$1.00 = 8.9 German marks.

In January 1922: \$1.00 = 191.8 German marks.

Several things contributed to this devaluation of the German currency, which continued to decline in value throughout 1922 and 1923:

The Reparations Bill. Having to pay the Allies large sums of money had a significant impact upon the German economy. It meant that a large proportion of income had to leave the country.

Reaction to the Reparations Bill. In order to manage the payments required by the Treaty of Versailles, strict economic controls and fiscal (taxes) practices were required. It can be argued that the Government deliberately **failed** to put many of these things into place, in an attempt to force the Allies into rethinking the level of Reparations to be paid. The consequences of this led to the **French occupation of the Ruhr Valley**. The Ruhr valley is the industrial heart of Germany. Whilst it was occupied by the French, the German economy could not benefit from its industrial output, thus straining the economy even further.

Printing more money. In order to control inflation, a Government can limit the amount of currency in circulation. At the height of the reparations repayment crisis the Weimar Government did the exact opposite, it printed MORE money.

The scale of **hyperinflation** can be seen in this chart which illustrates the cost of items against an index. 1 is the starting point, anything above 1 is an increase in cost relative to that first figure (so 3 would mean that items had risen in price by 300%).

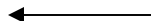
July 1914	1.0
Jan 1919	2.6
July 1919	3.4
Jan 1920	12.6
Jan 1921	14.4
July 1921	14.3
Jan 1922	36.7
July 1922	100.6
Jan 1923	2,785
July 1923	194,000
Nov 1923	726,000,000,000



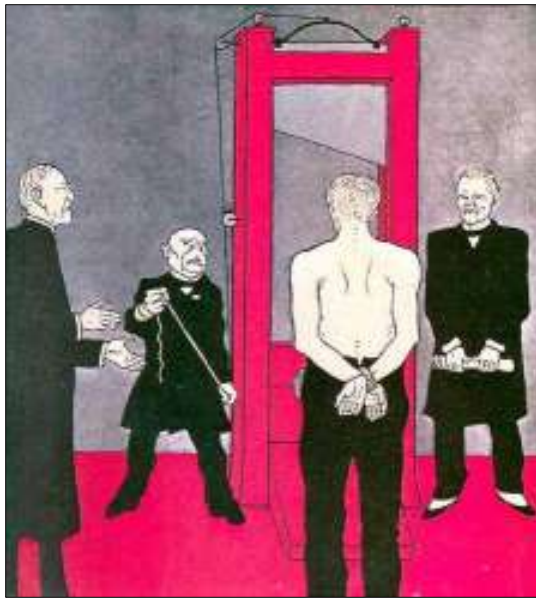
A woman burning worthless paper money



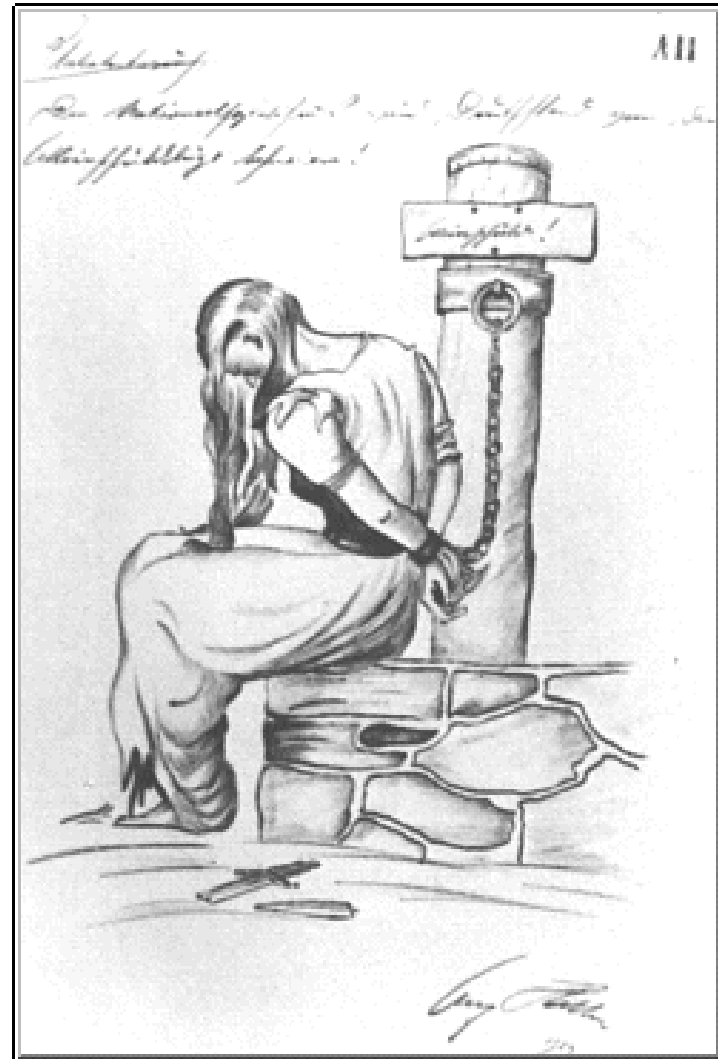
Children point to stacks of banknotes their parents are about to spend



Blocks of paper money make great toys!



A 1919 cartoon from a German humor magazine. Germany's hands are bound and the guillotine is manned by French Prime Minister Georges Clemenceau, as U.S. President Woodrow Wilson and British Prime Minister David Lloyd George look on.



A sketch portraying Germany as shamed and humiliated. Note the broken sword (a traditional symbol of military defeat) at her feet.

THE ECONOMIC CRISIS IN GERMANY AFTER WORLD WAR I

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3. **The cost of War.** Even without the reparations, the war had a high cost for Germany.
4. **Loss of land and colonies.** This led to the cost of raw materials increasing as the German economy could no longer depend upon cheap imports from her own colonies or produce the raw materials in the same quantities from German sources. The increase in the cost of raw materials was inflationary; it meant that prices would have to rise.
5. **Printing more money.** In order to control inflation, a Government can limit the amount of currency in circulation. At the height of the reparations repayment crisis the Weimar Government did the exact opposite, it printed MORE money.

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Questions:

1. How do you think hyperinflation affected the life of the average person in Germany?

2. As life become more difficult and expensive in Germany, how do you think the national mood changed?

CHARACTERISTICS OF THE TOTALITARIAN STATE

Dictatorship
One-Party Rule
Primacy of the State over the Individual
Control by the State over Most Aspects of Life

BASIC PRINCIPLES	FASCISM/NAZISM	COMMUNISM
Philosophy	Authoritarian; action-oriented; leader identified with the state	Leninism; Marxism; dictatorship of the proletariat
Political	Nationalist; militarist; racist (Nazism)	Nationalist; internationalist
Social	Supported by industrialists and the military	Supported by workers (USSR); supported by peasants (China)
Economic	Private property; possibly control by state corporations of the state	Collective ownership, centralized state planning
Cultural	Censorship; indoctrination; secret police; “approved” art forms	Censorship; indoctrination; secret police; “approved” art forms
Examples	Fascism: Italy and Spain; Nazism (Germany)	Soviet Union People’s Republic of China

THE RISE OF ADOLF HITLER

1889: Hitler born to Klara Hitler and her older husband on the Austro-German border.

1902: Hitler is 13 when his father dies

1905: Hitler, a high school dropout, moves to Vienna with dreams of becoming an artist. He sees the splendor of the capital of the Austro-Hungarian Empire and also sees the prominent of Jews in the city's cultural and intellectual life. He is rejected by the Viennese Academy of Fine Arts.

1907-1914: Hitler drifted, living in shelters and boardinghouses. He moved to Munich.

1914-1918: Hitler enlists in the German Army, serving on the Western Front. He was twice decorated, but never received a promotion.

1919: Hitler remains in the army, working as a spy and infiltrator. He is told to spy on the German Worker's Party. He is impressed by the anti-Communist, anti-capitalist, and anti-semitic party platform. Hitler impresses the party leaders (he moved from observer to participant) and moved up in the party ranks. The name of the party is changed to the National Socialist German Workers Party (although it was neither socialist nor a worker's party).

1921: Hitler becomes the leader (*fuehrer*) of the party.

1923: Hitler tries to copy Mussolini's "March on Rome" and attempts a *coup d'etat* in Munich. It fails miserably and Hitler is put on trial.

1924: At his trial, Hitler gives speech after speech, raising his profile. He is sentenced to five years in prison.

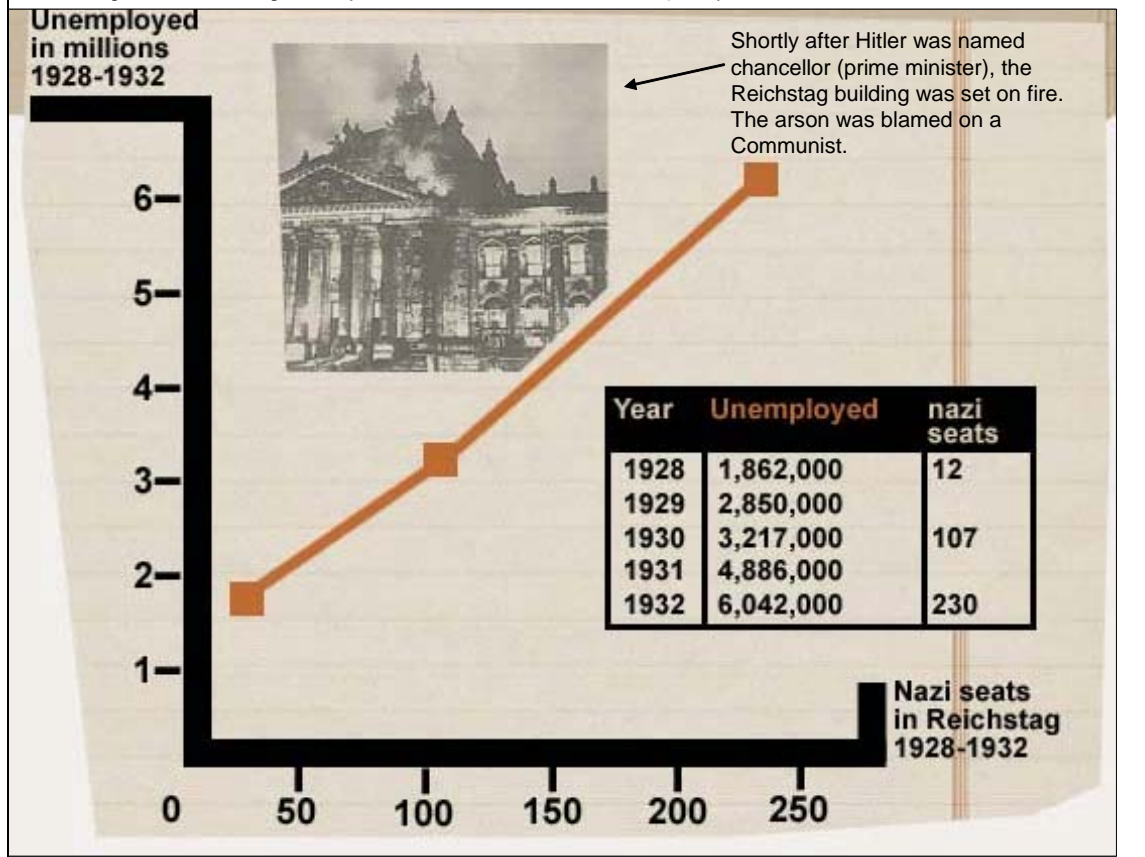
1924: Hitler dictates his book *Mein Kampf* (My Struggle) to his comrade Rudolph Hess. In it, he blames Marxists and Jews for Germany's defeat in WWI and his own personal failings. He also outlines the *fuehrerprinzip*: the leader principle.

He is released from jail after serving a little more than one year.

1925: *Mein Kampf* becomes a bestseller.

During the next several years, the Nazi Party grew slowly. It benefited from the economic and social chaos of the **Weimar Republic**, the weak democratic government created after WWI. As conditions worsened, more people turned to the Nazi Party message.

The Nazi Party's message became popular as Germany's economic and political crises grew worse. The number of seats in the Reichstag (parliament) held by the Nazis grew, although they never constituted a majority.



By 1932, unemployment reached almost 40%. The elected government was unable to cope, and the president of the republic, former general **Paul von Hindenburg** had to use Article 48 – the decree power – to enact any legislation. Hitler (who had just become a citizen of Germany), ran for president, coming in a strong second.

In January 1933, Von Hindenburg asked Hitler to form a government and become chancellor (prime minister - *reichskanzler*). ***The Nazi Party did not hold an absolute majority in the parliament (Reichstag).***

New elections were scheduled for February 1933, and the Nazis hoped to win an outright majority. Before the polling, the Reichstag building was set on fire. The arsonist named by the police claimed to be a Communist. It is possible the Communist Party ordered the arson; it's also possible the Nazi Party created a set-up.

Hitler demanded the passage of an Enabling Act that would allow him to rule by decree for four years. In order for this to pass, however, the Nazis had to expel the Communists in the Reichstag, and then the measure easily garnered the necessary 2/3 vote.

Reasons why Hitler rose to power

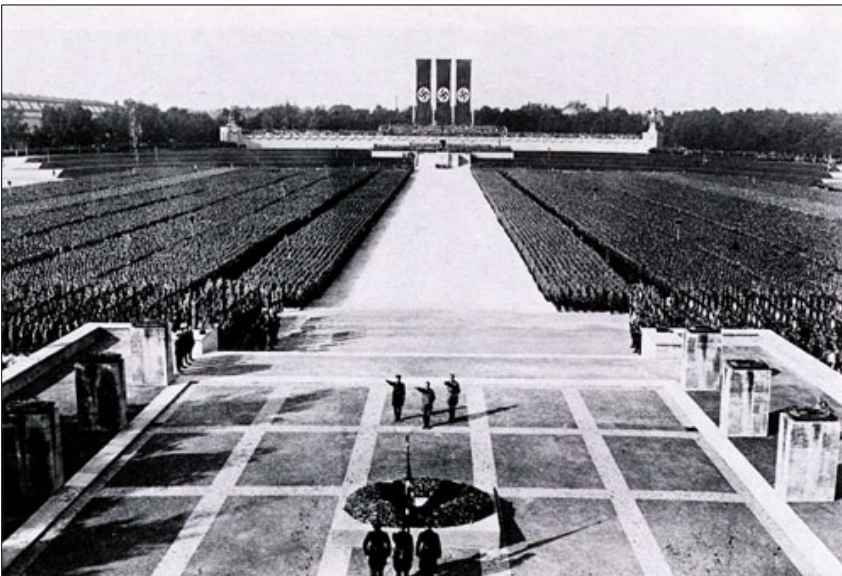
1. Hitler was a **compelling speaker**, with the power to make people support him.
2. The **moderate political parties would not work together**, although together they had more support than the Nazis.
3. The depression of 1929 created **poverty and unemployment**, which made people angry with the Weimar government. People lost confidence in the democratic system and turned towards the extremist political parties such as the Communists and Nazis during the depression.
4. The Nazi storm troopers attacked Hitler's opponents.
5. Nazi propaganda chief Josef Goebbels' **propaganda campaign** was very effective and it won support for the Nazis. The Nazis targeted specific groups of society with different slogans and policies to win their support.
6. Hitler was given power in a political deal by Hindenburg and his allies who thought they could control him.
7. **German people were still angry** about the Treaty of Versailles and supported Hitler because he promised to overturn it.
8. **Industrialists** gave Hitler money and support.



Hitler was a mesmerizing speaker



Indoctrination of the young



In the 1930s, an annual Nazi Party rally was held in the city of **Nuremberg**. These featured thousands of soldiers, pageantry, music, and precision marching.

Filmmaker Leni Reifenstahl recorded the 1934 rally and released her work as *The Triumph of the Will*. It is still watched today for its innovative cinematography and editing.

The Birth of Fascism in Italy

As the Depression spread across Europe, it created misery and suffering. Many families endured freezing winters for lack of money to heat their homes. Others lost their homes. Thousands of homeless people lived in shantytowns (slums filled with shacks made from whatever materials were handy).

The Depression dealt a particularly cruel blow to the youth. Teachers reported that many children could not go to school because they had no shoes. Teenagers frequently could not find jobs, while college graduates had to compete for low-paying work. Parents were powerless to help their children. With nowhere to go and little to do, countless unemployed workers passed long hours standing on street corners. Their loss of self-respect created frustration and deep anger at society.

As a result of these conditions, millions of people lost faith in democratic government in many countries. Frightened and desperate people turned to extremist political groups. Some supported communism, hoping for a workers' revolution that would begin a new era. Still others turned to **fascism**, a new political movement that emphasized autocratic and nationalist policies. Fascist leaders in Italy, Germany, and Spain promised to revive economic growth, punish those responsible for hard times, and restore national pride.

Fascism Glorifies the State

Unlike communism, fascism had no clearly defined theory or program. Fascists acted first and devised theories later. According to **Benito Mussolini**, the first of Europe's Fascist dictators, "Fascism was not the nursling [child] of a doctrine worked out beforehand with detailed elaboration; it was born of the need for action."

Nevertheless most Fascists shared several ideas. They believed in an extreme form of nationalism. Unlike more peaceful nationalists, however, Fascists were not content to serve their own nation and let others do the same. Fascists believed that nations must struggle. Peaceful states, they said were doomed to be conquered.

Fascists looked to an **authoritarian leader** to guide the state and rally the people. Loyalty to the leader was part of loyalty to the state. The trappings of fascism were also similar from country to country. Fascists wore uniforms or shirts of a certain color, used special salutes and war cries, and held mass rallies.

In some surprising ways, fascism was similar to its archenemy, communism. Both systems advocated dictatorial one-party rule. Both denied individual rights and insisted on the supremacy of the state. Both scorned democracy.

However, there were also differences between fascism and communism. Fascists, unlike Communists, did not seek a classless society. Rather, they believed that each class had its distinct place and function. Communism claimed to be a dictatorship of the workers. Fascist parties

allied themselves, in most cases, with aristocrats and industrialists. Many communists were internationalists, hoping to unite workers of all countries. Fascism was openly nationalistic.

Mussolini Launched a Fascist State

Fascism began in Italy during the early 1920's. Italy had entered World War I on the side of the Allies in hopes of winning Austrian territory in the Alps and along the Adriatic Sea.

The Treaty of Versailles, however, did not give Italy as much land as it had wanted. Angry veterans believed that Italy's sacrifice of 650,000 dead and 1 million wounded had been in vain. Millions of Italians felt betrayed.

Italy also faced a severe economic crisis. As the war drove up prices, the cost of living shot up 500 percent between 1914 and 1919. To make matters worse, unemployment was rising. As a result, there was widespread social unrest.

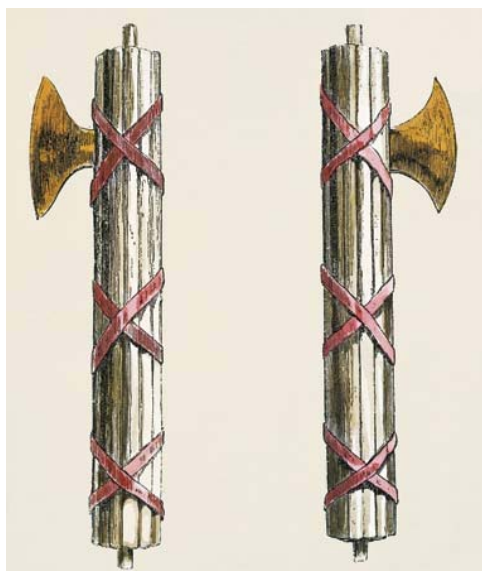
Italy's upper and middle classes feared that this unrest might lead to a Communist revolution, as had just happened in Russia. To many Italians, their democratic government seemed helpless to deal with the country's problems.

Growing numbers of people demanded action and waited impatiently for a strong leader.

A newspaper editor named **Benito Mussolini** (1883-1944) stepped in. Mussolini began his career as a Socialist and radical. He fought in the war and was wounded at the front. When he returned home he, like many others, was bitter about the outcome of the war. He began to organize, gathering around him a group of followers.

Mussolini boldly promised to rescue Italy. Unemployed veterans listened enthusiastically to Mussolini's speeches pledging to revive Italy's economy and rebuild its armed forces.

Within a short time and his followers organized the **Fascist Party**. The term fascism was designed to recall memories of ancient Rome. In Latin, *fascis* is the word for a bundle of wooden rods tied around an ax handle. Roman officials carried such bundles as symbols of authority.



Fasces



Mussolini in a classic bombastic pose

At first, the Fascists failed to win widespread support. As economic conditions worsened, however, Mussolini's popularity rapidly increased. While Mussolini publicly criticized Italy's government groups of young Fascists known as **Black Shirts** roamed the streets, beating up Communists and Socialists. As many as 3,000 people were killed between 1920 and 1922. This campaign of terror weakened Mussolini's opponents and won him support from the middle classes, the aristocracy, and industrial leaders.

By 1922, the Fascists were ready to take over Italy's government. On October 24, 1922, Mussolini told a cheering crowd of supporters, "Either they will give us the government or we shall take it by descending on Rome." Within four days, some 30,000 Fascists surrounded Rome. Although the government could have stopped Mussolini with a show of force, King Victor Emmanuel III gave in and named Mussolini prime minister. Mussolini soon gained emergency powers to restore order and make new laws.

Fascist Policies

The Fascist type of government proved to be authoritarian, requiring absolute loyalty and obedience to the state. The state's interest was more important than the individual's rights. Mussolini quickly abolished democracy and outlawed all political parties except the Fascist Party.

The secret police filled Italy's jails with Mussolini's opponents. Government officials strictly censored all radio stations and publications, forcing them to accept the Fascist ideology.

Mussolini believed that capitalists and workers must be forced to cooperate for the good of the state. He therefore set up 22 state corporations to run all parts of Italy's economy [**syndicates**]. These corporations dealt with wages, prices, and working conditions. Strikes were against the law. This is "state-managed capitalism."

Education involved indoctrination. Teachers had to teach a specified curriculum, stressing Italy's glory (and demonizing democracy and communism). Youth groups (for different ages) involved uniforms, rituals, and the pledge: "I believe in Rome, the Eternal, the mother of my country.....I believe in the genius of Mussolini...and in the resurrection of the Empire." Women were encouraged to have children and play domestic roles.

Mussolini was now Il Duce (doo-chay) or the leader, of Italy. Il Duce was a dazzling speaker, using gestures, sarcasm, and body language. With his hands on his hips and his chin thrust forward (and always speaking from a balcony or a pedestal), he looked imposing.



CONTROL OF GERMANY BY THE NAZIS

The difficult economic conditions in Germany in the 1930s brought the Nazi Party and Adolf Hitler to power. He became head of the German government in 1933. Hitler pronounced the new regime “The Third Reich” (the first was the Frankish kingdom ruled by Charlemagne; the second was the German Empire created by Bismarck in 1871 and ended by the defeat in WWI). This new Reich “would last 1,000 years.”

Taking Total Control

Hitler expected his subjects to follow his direction without question. He was determined to control all aspects of German life. A web of cultural and economic offices assumed responsibility for almost all areas of everyday life: economy, culture, sports, popular entertainment, and news. However, the “National Socialist Workers Party” was neither socialist nor geared toward workers.

The Economy. During his first year as chancellor, Hitler reduced unemployment by starting public works programs, such as the construction of superhighways (*autobahns*) and public housing.

Hitler cast aside the arms limitations imposed by the Treaty of Versailles and began to re-arm Germany. This won support of the big industrial firms (such as Krupp, IG Farben, and Daimler-Benz). This created many new jobs and ensured big business’ support of Hitler. Business leaders were also won over by Hitler’s anti-Communist stance.

National Pride. Not only did the new prosperity ease tensions, it also restored their self-esteem, which had been battered in the years after the Treaty of Versailles peace treaty. Hitler’s program of culture (*kultur*) was a mix of propaganda and fact. The minister of propaganda, **Josef Goebbels**, was extremely talented and one of Hitler’s closest advisors.

Nazi ideology centered around the concept of the “master race” and the German spirit (*volk*). “Aryans” were superior to Slavs, Blacks, the English and, of course, the Jews. If Germans were the master race, it followed that other races existed to serve them.

Public Spectacles. Hitler was a powerful orator and had a genius for staging grand spectacles. He held huge rallies, at which he made impassioned and hypnotic speeches. Crowds cheered wildly as he described the treachery of Jews and Communists. He blamed them for Germany’s defeat in the war. Germany’s need to expand into other countries for *lebensraum* (living space) was a feature of many speeches.

Culture: To make sure that the German people would not be influenced by anti-Nazi ideas, the party took complete control of the media. Germans had access only to state-approved radio broadcasts, movies, and publications. German artists, composers (especially Wagner) and authors were glorified. Modern art and music was considered “decadent.” Films based on

German themes were made, and most foreign films were banned. The approved forms of architecture (a favorite art form of Hitler) were classical and massive. Book burnings were common.

Youth. Perhaps Hitler's most powerful method of indoctrination was his education of young people. The Nazi Party took control of all schools and universities. It weakened parental influence by requiring children from the ages of 6 to 18 to join groups run by the Nazis. If parents objected to letting their children become members of these organizations, Nazi officials threatened to take the children away from them.

At age six, boys began training to join the **Hitler Youth**. They participated in athletics and camping and learned the Nazi version of history. At ten, they were allowed to join the *Jungvolk* ("Young Folk"). From the *Jungvolk* 14-year-old boys graduated into Hitler Youth. Military training was added to camping, athletics, and indoctrination in Nazi ideology. At age 18, they entered the army.

The Hitler Youth movement also included girls. As did the boys' organization, the League of German Girls offered training in sports, camping, and soldiering. Nazi leaders prescribed vigorous exercise for girls so that they would grow up to be healthy mothers of future soldiers.

Sex Roles. The Nazis believed in virile men and subservient women who would mind the "kitchen, children, and church." Although the Nazi state was officially atheist, it recognized the value of having organized religion as a tool of control and indoctrination. Women who bore many children were awarded medals and citations signed by Hitler

Suppression of Dissent. The super-nationalism Hitler preached glorified his own need for power. He made all the decisions in the government and military. Germans had to subordinate their individual needs and goals to serve his ends. Although Hitler was a compelling leader, he could not persuade all Germans to cooperate with his plans. Those who opposed him were killed or imprisoned in death camps.

Security Forces. Hitler rose to power with the help of the paramilitary **S.A.** stormtroopers. These young men – some of whom had been with Hitler since the early years – were known as **Black Shirts**. In 1934, Hitler ordered a **purge** of the SA leaders and senior members. While the organization continued to exist after this, it was not powerful.

Hitler's personal security force, the **SS** became extremely powerful after 1933. SS members held important military posts, exerted control over all police forces, and constituted the most loyal group of soldiers.

The state secret police, **The Gestapo** (responsible to the SS leadership) was responsible for spying on dissidents, riot control, and much of the domestic intelligence operations.

The oath taken by 10-year-old boys on entering the Jungvolk

"In the presence of this blood banner which represents our Führer, I swear to devote all my energies and my strength to the savior of our country, Adolf Hitler. I am willing and ready to give up my life for him, so help me God."

Hitler Youth 'Prayers' (modeled after the Lord's Prayer)

"Adolf Hitler, you are our great Führer. Thy name makes the enemy tremble. Thy Third Reich comes, thy will alone is law upon the earth. Let us hear daily thy voice and order us by thy leadership, for we will obey to the end and even with our lives. We praise thee! Hail Hitler!"
"Führer, my Führer, give me by God. Protect and preserve my life for long. You saved Germany in time of need. I thank you for my daily bread. Be with me for a long time, do not leave me, Führer, my Führer, my faith, my light, Hail to my Führer!"



Bund Deutscher Mädel, the League of German Girls



Hitler Youth Poster



A poster calling for donations to the Mother and Child Division of the Nazi Party's Welfare Office. A woman who bore four or more children was awarded the Cross of Honor for the German Mother (and received a letter from Hitler)

A Timeline of Nazi Aggression and the War in Europe

1933

January 30 – Hitler sworn in as chancellor

February 27 – Arson attack on Reichstag (parliament building) is the pretext (excuse) for emergency laws giving Hitler emergency powers.

March 5 – Nazi party gains plurality (greatest number, but *not* a majority) of 44% in parliamentary elections. Enters into a coalition with other right-wing parties.

March 11 – S.A. (Sturm Abteilung) – the "Brownshirt" Nazi militia (Storm Troopers) attacks Jewish shops

March 20 – Nazis build first concentration camp (for political prisoners) at Dachau, near Munich

March 24 – Reichstag (the parliament) passes Enabling Act, allowing Hitler to rule as dictator (*Führer*, leader).

April 4 – The "Law for the Restoration of the Professional Civil Service" purges Jews (and political opponents) from public-sector jobs.

April 25 – Quotas introduced for Jewish children in state-run schools.

June 28 – The Committee of Experts for Population and Racial Policy is established. "Law for the Prevention of Hereditarily Diseased Progeny" gives doctors wide-ranging powers to sterilize the mentally and physically handicapped.

July 26 – First purge of Jewish academics from universities. *This is initiated by the universities, NOT the government.*

October 11 – Propaganda Minister Josef Goebbels removes all non-Aryan editors from newspapers.

1934

Nuremberg Rally is the subject of filmmaker Leni Reifenstahl's documentary, *Triumph of the Will*.

Nazis in Austria attempt a coup and assassinate the prime minister. They demand *Anschluss* (link) with Germany to create a German-language empire. Hitler had advocated this in *Mein Kampf*

Italy, afraid of being overwhelmed, advises Hitler not to act.

1935

June 28 – Male homosexual activity criminalized.

September 15 – **Nuremberg Laws**

- Reich Citizenship Law – Jews stripped of citizenship.

- Law for the Protection of the Blood – limits all marriage and extramarital relations between Aryans and non-Aryans (Jews and Gypsies).

The Treaty of Versailles limited the German army (Reichswehr) to 100,000 men. But shortly after Hitler came to power, Nazi officials began to study the actions of the army in World War I, in order to determine weaknesses in Germany's military weaknesses — and build a better, stronger army. By 1935, with his power firmly in place, Hitler publicly announced the rearmament of Germany and a military draft was instituted. By 1936, Hitler was able to state that Germany was "already in a state of war, only the guns have not gone off."

1936

March – Hitler sends 30,000 troops, in violation of the Treaty of Versailles, to reoccupy the Rhineland, which was, by treaty, demilitarized. The other nations of Europe and the League of Nations do not act to stop Hitler.

July – Summer Olympics provide a showcase for Nazi rule. Hitler is embarrassed when African-American athlete Jesse Owens, representing the U.S. team, wins four gold medals in track & field.

November - Nazi Germany and Fascist Italy sign a treaty of friendship that creates the "Rome-Berlin Axis" (later, Japan will join the alliance). Mussolini and Hitler each realize they can benefit from the other. Hitler notes, "For us National Socialists, the attempted [friendship] with Italy is not a matter of sentiment, but the result of very selfish considerations."

The two nations offer aid to Francisco Franco, who is attempting to topple the republican government of Spain. Both Italy and Germany want to see France hemmed in by two fascist countries.

1938

Anschluss (link-up)

February - Seeing that Western Europe did nothing when he rearmed, invaded the Rhineland, and made a treaty with Italy, Hitler realizes that territorial aggression will bring results.

Hitler summons the Austrian prime minister and demands that Austria unite with Germany. Austria offers to hold a plebiscite (vote). Hitler vetoes the idea, threatening invasion. The prime minister, unable to cope, steps down and is replaced with a pro-Nazi leader who *invites* German troops into Austria to “restore order.”

March 13 – Union of Austria and Germany is proclaimed. Cheering Austrians shouting “Heil Hitler” welcome the German leader when he arrives in Vienna. Antisemitic laws of Germany also apply to Austria.

April – Jews required to report all assets worth more than 5,000 Reichmarks. This is part of the “Aryanization” of German business, and many Jewish-owned businesses forced to close.

August – Passports of Jews stamped with a red “J.”

1939

August – Representatives of Hitler and Soviet dictator Josef Stalin sign the German-USSR Non-Aggression Pact.

September 1 - Hitler invades Poland. Three days later, Britain and France declare war on Germany.

1940

May 10 - Nazis invade France, Belgium, Luxembourg and the Netherlands.

Winston Churchill becomes British Prime Minister.

May 26 - Evacuation of Allied troops from Dunkirk, France, begins.

June 10, 1940 - Norway surrenders to the Nazis; Italy declares war on Britain and France.

June 14 – Germans enter Paris. Northern two-thirds of France occupied by Germany; southern one-third is set up as a Nazi puppet state with Vichy as capital.

June 18 - Soviets begin occupation of the Baltic States (Lithuania, Latvia, Estonia)

Summer 1940 – Hitler begins bombardment of England in preparation for amphibious landing (Operation Sea Lion). Fierce British resistance in the air forces Hitler to postpone, then cancel, invasion plans. Hitler blockades England.

Embargo on oil, metals, and other resources placed by U.S. on Japan.

September

- * Italy invades Egypt
- * U.S. begins military draft.
- * Tripartite (Axis) Pact signed by Germany, Italy, and Japan.

November – U.S. President Franklin D. Roosevelt wins third term.

1941

March – U.S. Congress passes Lend-Lease Act. Old Navy destroyers are sent to Britain in return for rights to establish bases.

April – Greece and Yugoslavia fall to Nazis.

June – Hitler invades Soviet Union (*Operation Barbarossa*), pushing deep and capturing Minsk and Kiev. Over 30,000 Jews in Kiev are murdered.

Summer – U.S.-Japanese relations deteriorate. U.S. freezes Japanese assets in U.S.

August – Nazi siege of Leningrad begins.

December – Nazi assault on Moscow abandoned.

December 7 – 300 Japanese warplanes, flying from carriers, attack U.S. Navy Pacific headquarters at Pearl Harbor, Hawaii. Much of U.S. fleet is crippled, and 2300 sailors die. The next day, the U.S. declares war on Japan. Germany declares war on U.S.

1942

January – Representatives of various branches of the military and Reich meet at Wannsee, a suburb of Berlin, to plan the “final solution” for the Jews of Germany and captured lands.

Poison gas (Zyklon-B – “cyclone”) used at Auschwitz-Birkenau death camp in Poland.

Spring-Summer: Jews from France, Slovakia, and Poland taken to death camps. Adolf Eichmann, the top Nazi officer in charge of the Final Solution, coordinates with leaders in all occupied nations to round up and ship Jews “to the east.”

British troops fight Germany's Afrika Korps in North Africa and eventually prevail.

May – U.S. Navy defeats Japan at the Battle of Midway, slowing Japan's aggression in the Pacific.

Soviet troops counterattack at Stalingrad.

June -

July - First deportations from the Warsaw Ghetto to concentration camps; Treblinka extermination camp opened.

December - British Foreign Secretary Eden tells the British House of Commons of mass executions of Jews by Nazis; U.S. declares those crimes will be avenged.

1943

January – Germans surrender at Stalingrad.

February - The Romanian government proposes to the Allies the transfer of 70,000 Jews to Palestine, but receives no response from the British or the U.S.

May – Uprising in the Warsaw Ghetto is suppressed.

July – Allies, including American troops, land in Sicily and then Italian mainland.

* Mussolini overthrown.

* Allies bomb Hamburg. Approximately 100,000 deaths.

Poison gas (Zyklon-B – “cyclone”) used at Auschwitz-Birkenau death camp in Poland.

Spring-Summer: Jews from France, Slovakia, and Poland taken to death camps. Adolf Eichmann, the top Nazi officer in charge of the Final Solution, coordinates with leaders in all occupied nations to round up and ship Jews “to the east.”

• Death camps begin to cremate bodies.

October – Denmark manages to smuggle most of its Jewish population (approx. 7,000) out of country to neutral Sweden.

Dr. Josef Mengele, the “Angel of Death,” begins gruesome medical experiments and killings at Auschwitz.

1944

April - Two Jewish inmates escape from Auschwitz-Birkenau and make it safely to Czechoslovakia. One of them submits a report to the Papal Nuncio (ambassador) in Slovakia which is forwarded to the Vatican, received there in mid-June. Pope Pius XII takes no action.

May – Agents working for S.S. chief Heinrich Himmler secretly propose to the western Allies to trade Jews for trucks, other commodities or money.

June – At the urging of Denmark, which was concerned about the fate of Danish Jews, the International Red Cross delegation makes a 6-hour visit to the camp at Theresienstadt in Czechoslovakia. In preparing for the visit, the Nazis erect a music pavilion, a playground, and send many inmates to Auschwitz to relieve overcrowding. The Red Cross Committee takes Nazis at their word that the “showers” are for de-lousing.

June 6, 1944 - D-Day: Allied landings in Normandy. Deep thrust into the French countryside and advance toward Paris.

Late 1944 – Businessman Oskar Schindler saves 1,200 Jews by moving them from a labor camp to a new ammunition factory that is deliberately inefficient. Schindler dies in 1974 and is buried in Israel.

1945

Early winter – Germans make one last counterattack in Belgium, “The Battle of the Bulge.”

Winter-spring – Allied forces (Americans and British moving east, and Soviet forces moving west) close in on Berlin.

April 12 - President Franklin Roosevelt dies shortly after taking office for fourth term. Harry S. Truman becomes president. On same day, Allies liberate Buchenwald death camp.

April 21 – Russian troops enter Berlin.

April 30 – Adolf Hitler commits suicide.

May 9 – Germans surrender unconditionally.

1945 – The Birth of the Cold War

January – President Franklin Delano Roosevelt is sworn in for a fourth term.

February – At the Crimean port city of **YALTA** in the Soviet Union President Roosevelt, British Prime Minister Winston Churchill, and Soviet chief Josef Stalin meet. At this time:

- Russian troops poised to launch assault on Berlin
- German counter-offensive in France had been stopped
- Most of France liberated

The “Big Three” agree to divide Germany into zones (British, French, American, and Soviet). Stalin insists on — and is granted — territorial concessions in Poland..

With regard to the formerly Axis-dominated nations “liberated” by the Soviet Army, (Bulgaria, Czechoslovakia, Hungary, most of Poland, Romania, and Yugoslavia) Stalin agreed to pledge “the earliest possible establishment through free elections of governments responsive to the will of the people.”

Soviet demands for \$20 billion in war reparations are rebuffed, but the Soviet Union would receive 50% of any sum set by a reparations committee.

The Soviet Union agreed to enter the war against Japan “in two to three months.”

WHY did Roosevelt and Churchill agree to *de facto* control of eastern Europe by the USSR?

1. The need for Soviet support in the war against Japan
2. *Realpolitik* – the Soviet Army was large and powerful, and harmony would be essential in any postwar effort.

WAS THIS A SELL-OUT?

Churchill, Roosevelt, and Stalin at Yalta. Note Roosevelt’s gaunt appearance. Within two months, Roosevelt would be dead.



April 12 – President Franklin D. Roosevelt dies of a cerebral hemorrhage at the age of 63. Vice President Harry S. Truman is sworn in as the 33rd president.

April 21 – Russian troops enter Berlin.

April 30 – Adolf Hitler and his bride of one day, Eva Braun, commit suicide.²¹

May 7 – The German High Command signs an unconditional surrender with the Allies, ending the war in Europe.

July 16 – U.S. explodes its first atomic bomb in the New Mexico desert. Yield is 13,000 tons of TNT (13 kilotons); the plutonium-fueled weapon is code-name “Trinity.”

July 17 – U.S. President Harry S. Truman arrives in **POTSDAM** (a suburb of Berlin) to confer with Churchill and Stalin. The three finalize plans for: (1) demilitarization; (2) **de-Nazification** of Germany; (3) division of Germany **AND AUSTRIA** into zones; and (4) and reparations. The three also reissue a call for an **unconditional Japanese surrender**. During the conference, British elections are held, and Churchill and the Conservatives are swept from power (he would return to office in 1951). Truman also tells Stalin that the U.S. has tested “a new weapon of unusual power” (Stalin already knows of the atom bomb project through his espionage network).

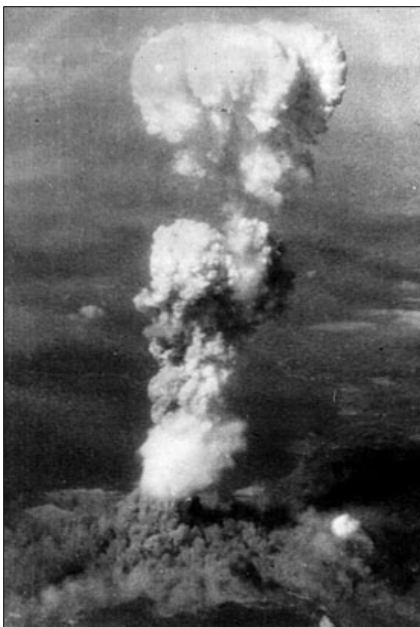
August 6 – A U.S. B-29 bomber drops a uranium-fueled atomic bomb, nicknamed “Little Boy” on the Japanese city of Hiroshima. The yield is 12.5 kilotons. Of the 76,000 buildings in the city, 48,000 are completely destroyed. At least 70,000 people are killed outright; by the end of 1945, deaths from radiation drive the total to 140,000. The number of deaths due to radiation-induced cancers in the following decades is not known.

August 7-8 – the United States broadcasts radio warnings to Japan and drops a limited number of leaflets describing the atomic bomb and urges the Japanese to petition their emperor to end the war.

August 9 – a second atomic weapon (this one fueled by plutonium and known, because of its bulbous shape, as “Fat Man” is dropped on the city of Nagasaki. While Fat Man, at 22 kilotons, is considerably more powerful than Little Boy, a navigational error by the bomber crew results in an explosion contained by the mountains surrounding the city. 70,000 people die immediately, with 140,000 deaths by the end of the year. Plans are made for a third bombing on August 17 or 18.

August 14 – Japanese emperor Hirohito broadcasts a surrender message. It is the first time that most of his subjects have ever heard his voice.

September 2 – A delegation of Japanese diplomats sign formal articles of surrender aboard the U.S. warship Missouri anchored in Tokyo Bay. World War II is over.



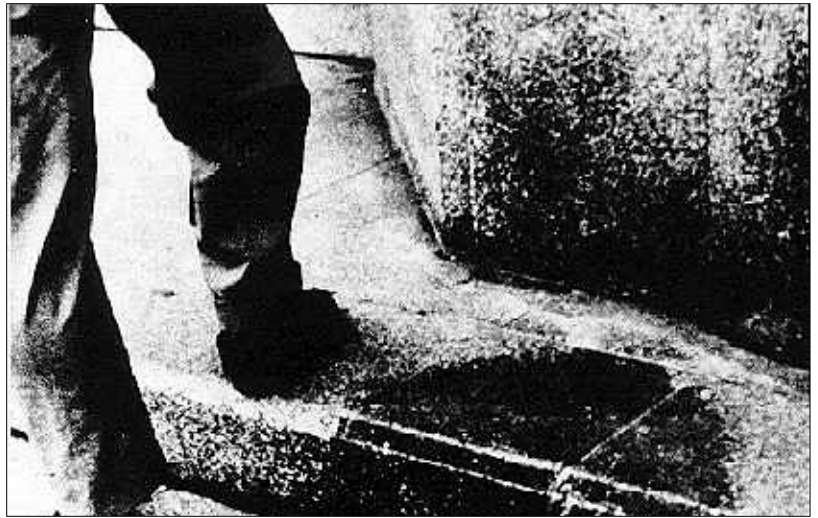
The mushroom cloud rising over Hiroshima, as seen from an observation plane, Aug. 6, 1945



The Japanese delegation arrives onboard the *U.S.S. Missouri* to sign the articles of surrender, September 2, 1945.



The charred corpse of a boy



The intense flash left “shadows” of people as they were vaporized

President Harry Truman’s Address to the Nation, August 6, 1945

Sixteen hours ago an American airplane dropped one bomb on Hiroshima, an important Japanese Army base. That bomb had more power than 20,000 tons of TNT. It had more than 2,000 times the blast power of the British “Grand Slam,” which is the largest bomb ever yet used in the history of warfare.

The Japanese began the war from the air at Pearl Harbor. They have been repaid many-fold. And the end is not yet. With this bomb we have now added a new and revolutionary increase in destruction to supplement the growing power of our armed forces. In their present form these bombs are now in production, and even more powerful forms are in development.

It is an atomic bomb. It is a harnessing of the basic power of the universe. The force from which the sun draws its power has been loosed against those who brought war to the Far East.

The battle of the laboratories held fateful risks for us as well as the battles of the air, land, and sea, and we have now won the battle of the laboratories as we have won the other battles.... . We have spent \$2 billion on the greatest scientific gamble in history--and won

We are now prepared to obliterate more rapidly and completely every productive enterprise the Japanese have above ground in any city. We shall destroy their docks, their factories, and their communications. Let there be no mistake; we shall completely destroy Japan's power to make war

It was to spare the Japanese people from utter destruction that the ultimatum of July 26 was issued at Potsdam. Their leaders promptly rejected that ultimatum. If they do not now accept our terms they may expect a rain of ruin from the air, the like of which has never been seen on this earth. Behind this air attack will follow sea and land forces in such numbers and power as they have not yet seen and with the fighting skill of which they are already well aware.

THE BIRTH OF THE COLD WAR

1945 was an important year because it marked the end of World War II and the emergence of new relationships between the remaining world powers: the United States and the USSR. Prior to the official end of World War II, the Allies (United States, USSR, and Britain) hosted two conferences: Yalta in February 1945 and Potsdam in July 1945. These conferences were designed to help decide what would happen to Europe, specifically, Germany, at the end of World War II. In between the conferences, delegates from 50 nations meet in San Francisco for the United Nations (UN) in April of 1945. The United Nations, much like the original intent of the League of Nations, was created to maintain international peace and security. In May 1945, Germany surrendered to the Allies.

YALTA	POTSDAM
<p>When: February 1945 Germany not yet defeated Churchill (Britain); Stalin (Soviet Union); Roosevelt (USA)</p> <p>Key points of the meeting</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Germany would be split into four occupied zones• Germany would undergo demilitarization and denazification• The Declaration of Liberated Europe would allow for free elections in Eastern Europe• Stalin pledged to permit free elections in Poland and to form a government of “national unity” composed of communists and non-communists• Stalin agreed to enter the fight against the Empire of Japan when Germany was defeated	<p>July 1945 Germany surrendered; Japan not yet beaten Churchill (Britain); Stalin (Soviet Union); Truman (USA)</p> <p>There were arguments about the details of the agreement reached at Yalta. For example, there were disagreements about the boundaries for the four occupied zones of Germany.</p> <p>Harry S. Truman, the new president of the United States, was also frustrated because Stalin began to arrest non-communist leaders of Poland after agreeing to a government of “national unity.”</p> <p>Additionally, even though there were supposed to be free elections in Eastern Europe, the United States and Britain noticed that communists were rising to power in Eastern Europe.</p> <p>While there were many disagreements, there were some agreements such as:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Germany would be demilitarized and disarmed• German society would be remade along democratic lines by repeal of all discriminatory laws from the Nazi era• Germans deemed to be “war criminals” would be arrested and tried

OVER ► ► ►

1947 – A Fateful Year

During the war, the United States and USSR cooperated to defeat Nazi Germany. However, after the war ended, disagreements over reparations and the emergence of communist governments in Eastern Europe strained the relationship.

Many of the enduring ideological and pre-war disagreements surfaced. Between 1945 and 1947, Stalin went back on his pledge to allow free elections in Eastern Europe and to have coalition governments of both communist and non-communist leaders. During these two years, communists seized control of many Eastern European nations. This made the United States nervous because Stalin was defiant and the United States feared the ideological spread of communism.

By 1947, the distrust heightened between the United States and USSR leading to a conflict known as the **Cold War**. The Cold War was a state of political and military tension after World War II between powers in the Western Bloc (the United States and its capitalist allies) and powers in the Eastern Bloc (the Soviet Union and its communist allies). The term "cold" is used because there was no direct fighting between the two sides, however, there were **proxy wars** or wars between other nations supported by the two sides.

Western Bloc	Eastern Bloc
USA and allies (in NATO)	Soviet Union and Warsaw Pact allies
Economic System: Capitalist	Economic System: Communist
Political System: Democracy	Political System: communism
The U.S. wanted to limit Soviet influence so it pursued a policy of containment.	The Soviet Union wanted to promote communism and spread it to other countries.
Containment is a strategy of keeping communism within its existing limits and preventing further expansion. <i>This meant the US would support any nation facing an external or internal communist threat.</i>	The promotion of communism was a strategy of expanding communism outside of its existing boundaries. <i>The policy meant that the Soviet Union would support any nation facing external or internal aggression from the Western bloc.</i>

The Truman Doctrine and Containment

In 1947, United States President Harry Truman declared a new foreign policy for the US, called the Truman Doctrine. The **Truman Doctrine** stated the United States would provide political, military and economic assistance to all nations under threat from communist forces. Before the Truman Doctrine, the US stayed out of regional conflicts that did not directly involve their country, but the Truman Doctrine made it clear that the US would actively resist the USSR. In the same year, Truman sent military and economic aid to both Greece and Turkey to resist communist threats. The Truman Doctrine was motivated by the idea of **containment** or limiting communism to the areas already under Soviet control.

The Marshall Plan

The **Marshall Plan** was a policy used by the United States to strengthen democratic governments by providing food and economic assistance to war-ravaged European countries to help them rebuild after the war. The Marshall Plan was motivated by the idea that countries recovering from the war were vulnerable to communist threats. To ensure that communism did not spread, the United States provided about \$13 billion to Western nations to help rebuild their economies. Although the USSR was offered participation, they refused and blocked benefits to Eastern Bloc countries, such as East Germany and Poland. The USSR saw the Marshall Plan as an attempt to buy the support of smaller countries.

The **Berlin Blockade** was one of the first major international crises of the Cold War. The Berlin Blockade was an attempt in 1948 by the USSR to limit the ability of the Allies (France, Great Britain and the United States) to travel to their sectors of Berlin. After World War II, Germany was divided into occupation zones. Berlin was located inside USSR-controlled eastern Germany but, the United States and other Allies controlled western portions Berlin so there were questions of whether portions of the city would become part of USSR-controlled eastern Germany. On June 24, 1948, Soviet forces blockaded rail, road, and water access to Allied-controlled areas of Berlin in an attempt to get the Allies to give up their sections of the city. The United States and United Kingdom responded by airlifting food and fuel to Berlin. Realizing that they would not be able to force the Allies out without an armed conflict, the USSR forces lifted the blockade on land access to western Berlin and the crisis ended on May 12, 1949. Berlin remained divided for the rest of the Cold War.

KEY DATES AND FACTS

1938 – German scientists discover atomic fission in the element Uranium. Energy is released from the splitting of atoms.

1939 – Realizing the potential for a weapon of tremendous strength, Albert Einstein writes to U.S. President Franklin Roosevelt and urges the U.S. to begin a research program.

1940-42: The U.S. pursues some research on atomic fission, but has no coordinated program.

1939 – 1945 – Germany and Japan research atomic fission, but only on a small scale.

1942 – The U.S. government establishes the Manhattan Project to research and build a deliverable atomic weapon. Vast numbers of people at multiple sites are involved.

May, 1945 – Germany surrenders.

July 16, 1945 – First atomic bomb is tested in the New Mexico desert. Yield is 15,000 tons of TNT (15 kilotons).

July, 1945- Victorious powers in Europe (U.S., Britain, Soviet Union) issue declaration calling for unconditional surrender of the Japanese. Soviet Union prepares to enter war against Japan. U.S. is planning for massive invasion of Japan's 4 main islands. This could prolong the war to 1946 and result in 100,000 or more combat deaths (and untold numbers of Japanese soldiers and civilians).

August 6, 1945 – A-bomb dropped on Japanese city of Hiroshima (15 kilotons). Approximately 70,000 people die outright, with another 100,000 dying in following weeks and months due to radiation sickness. Japan does not surrender

August 7 – 8: U.S. warns Japan that attacks will continue; it does not specifically state A-bombs will be used.

August 9, 1945 – second, more powerful A-bomb (21 KT) dropped on Nagasaki. Due to bombing error, immediate death toll is less (39,000 – 70,000), but tens of thousands of Japanese die in following weeks and months.

August 14, 1945 – Japan surrenders. WWII is over.

KEY DATES AND FACTS

1938 – German scientists discover atomic fission in the element Uranium. Energy is released from the splitting of atoms.

1939 – Realizing the potential for a weapon of tremendous strength, Albert Einstein writes to U.S. President Franklin Roosevelt and urges the U.S. to begin a research program.

1940-42: The U.S. pursues some research on atomic fission, but has no coordinated program.

1939 – 1945 – Germany and Japan research atomic fission, but only on a small scale.

1942 – The U.S. government establishes the Manhattan Project to research and build a deliverable atomic weapon. Vast numbers of people at multiple sites are involved.

May, 1945 – Germany surrenders.

July 16, 1945 – First atomic bomb is tested in the New Mexico desert. Yield is 15,000 tons of TNT (15 kilotons).

July, 1945- Victorious powers in Europe (U.S., Britain, Soviet Union) issue declaration calling for unconditional surrender of the Japanese. Soviet Union prepares to enter war against Japan. U.S. is planning for massive invasion of Japan's 4 main islands. This could prolong the war to 1946 and result in 100,000 or more combat deaths (and untold numbers of Japanese soldiers and civilians).

August 6, 1945 – A-bomb dropped on Japanese city of Hiroshima (15 kilotons). Approximately 70,000 people die outright, with another 100,000 dying in following weeks and months due to radiation sickness. Japan does not surrender

August 7 – 8: U.S. warns Japan that attacks will continue; it does not specifically state A-bombs will be used.

August 9, 1945 – second, more powerful A-bomb (21 KT) dropped on Nagasaki. Due to bombing error, immediate death toll is less (39,000 – 70,000), but tens of thousands of Japanese die in following weeks and months.

August 14, 1945 – Japan surrenders. WWII is over.

The Early Years of the People's Republic of China

The triumph of the Red Army and Mao's Communist party in 1949 ended nearly half century of revolution, civil war, and chaos in China. It also marked the start of a new era. Over the next 40 years, Mao and his successors sought to transform China into both a communist society and a modern industrial nation.

Mao Solidifies His Power

After taking power, Communist leaders set out to solidify their hold on the country. A small but highly disciplined group, the party's 4.5 million members (about 1 percent of the Chinese population) closely modeled their system on that of Soviet Union. Like the Soviets, the Chinese set up two parallel and overlapping organizations, the Communist party and the national government. Until 1959, Mao was both head of state and chairman of the Communist party. Even today, the party sets policy and the government implements it.

Land Reform

The new government's most urgent task was to improve China's economy. Half a century of war and general chaos had left the country in ruin.

Mao was determined to reshape China's economy along the lines of Marxist socialism. Because 80 percent of the population still lived in rural areas, agriculture was the obvious place to start. Most Chinese farmers owned no land. Instead, 10 percent of the rural population owned 70 percent of the farmland. The Agrarian Reform Law of 1950 took the holdings of landlords and divided them among the peasants. More than a million landlords who resisted were killed.

Mao never intended that peasants would keep the land as private property. He believed that small, privately owned farms were inefficient and contrary to socialist principles. Between 1953 and 1957, the government forced the peasants to join **collective farms** consisting of about 200 to 300 households [you may recall Stalin's "collectivization"].

Industry

Mao's changes also affected industry and business. He wanted to set up centralized planning for the whole economy. Gradually, the government nationalized all private companies. The People's Republic of China received loans and technical assistance from the Soviet Union in order to build industrial facilities. As in the USSR, heavy industry (steel, tractors, construction equipment) was the primary emphasis.

In 1953, Mao launched a Soviet-style **five-year plan** that set high production targets for industry. The plan was a striking success. By 1957, steel production had quadrupled and the output of coal, cement, and electricity had doubled.

Mao Identifies his Enemies

In 1956, Mao decided that a lack of frank discussion was harming China. He proclaimed a program of artistic and social freedom: “Letting a hundred flowers blossom and a hundred schools of thought contend.” During **the Hundred Flowers Campaign** of 1956-1957, artists experimented with new styles and people began to speak up, and write about, the shortcomings of the Party.

Mao now knew who his enemies were. Those who criticized his policies were labeled counterrevolutionaries and “Rightists.” They were often subjected to public humiliation and severely criticized by Party officials and local people in “struggle sessions.” Many were jailed or silenced.

The Great Leap Forward (1958-1961)

The success of the first five-year plan encouraged Chinese leaders to plan an even more ambitious program. Early in 1958, Mao proclaimed what he called “**the Great Leap Forward.**”

This plan called for still larger collective farms called **communes**. By the end of 1958, the government created about 26,000 communes. The average commune contained 15,000 acres and more than 25,000 people. Impossibly high production quotas were set for each commune.

Life on the communes was highly regimented. Peasants were organized into “production battalions” commanded by party and squad leaders. Workers ate in communal dining rooms, slept in communal dormitories, and raised children in communal nurseries. Mao also considered the idea of eliminating personal names and calling everyone by a number!

Mao was obsessed with the idea that China could become one of the world’s top steel producers. Communes were encouraged (and that really means ordered) to build “backyard furnaces” and collect pots, pans, and metal tools to be melted down. Many men were diverted from the fields to work at these improvised production sites. The quality of the steel they produced was terrible, even useless. And peasants now had no cooking utensils.

The Great Leap Forward was a disaster for China. Peasants resented the vast, impersonal communes. Crop failures between 1951 and 1961 caused a famine that claimed more than 25 million lives. Poor planning hampered industrial growth. Faced with failure, the government abandoned the Great Leap Forward in 1961.

The Sino-Soviet Split

After the failure of the Great Leap Forward, China faced another crisis. The Soviet Union and China had signed a treaty of friendship and cooperation in 1950. The USSR believed that China would be a junior partner in the arrangement and let Moscow lead the world communist movement.

As China grew, Mao began to assert his own ideas about the role of communist in Asia and Africa. Mao was more radical — and certainly less discreet — than the Soviet leadership. Mao boasted that China could easily survive a nuclear war. Such talk horrified the USSR, which had experienced enormous suffering and death in the Second World War.

A split developed (and, on the part of the Soviet Union, racism definitely played a role). By 1961, the two countries were barely on speaking terms. In 1964, China exploded its first atomic bomb, and the two countries came very close to war on their border in 1969.

THE KOREAN WAR (1950-1953): CAUSES AND EFFECTS

Background

The Korean War marked a significant turning point in the development of the Cold War:

- it was the first major conflict of the nuclear age (while the deployment of nuclear weapons was contemplated by the U.S., they were not used); and
- it was the Cold War's first "hot war."

As such, it set a number of important precedents that not only affected the combatant nations, but the international scene as well. In the 1600s, the Manchu Dynasty of China exercised control over China, and the country, known as the "Hermit Kingdom," was closed off from the outside world. In 1905, Japanese troops crossed Korea in order to fight Russia on the Asian mainland. Flush from their smashing military victory, Japan occupied, and then annexed Korea. In one year alone, 1907-1908, 14,500 Koreans were killed. During World War II, Japan forced many Korean females into Army-run brothels to be "comfort women" for troops.

At the July 1945 Potsdam Conference, the Soviets and Americans agreed to a temporary division of Korea along the 38th Parallel. Shortly after Japan surrendered, the Soviets occupied the northern part of the peninsula, while the United States controlled Korea south of the 38th Parallel. The two occupied halves were to be reunited once elections were held. However, neither the United States nor the U.S.S.R. could agree on the conditions necessary for a unified Korea.

The U.S.-controlled south became the Republic of Korea (**ROK**, a/k/a **South Korea**) on August 15, 1948 with **Syngman Rhee** as president. On September 9, 1948 **Kim Il-Sung** (known as the "Great Leader") formed the Democratic People's Republic of Korea (**DPRK** a/k/a **North Korea**). Korea was now permanently divided between two hostile governments, one communist and one anti-communist.

Both Rhee and Kim believed they were the rightful ruler of all of Korea. Kim was especially eager to unite Korea under his leadership and to introduce Soviet-style communism there. While Kim received support from the Soviets, the Americans were reluctant to extend significant aid to Rhee. They feared that to do so would embolden him to attack the north and start a civil war. The end result was that Kim — who had been planning to attack the south since the spring of 1949 — was in a much stronger position than Rhee by 1950.

The Surprise Attack and Intervention by the United Nations

Kim Il-Sung launched a massive attack against South Korea on June 25, 1950. ROK forces were badly outnumbered and outgunned and soon made a hasty retreat to the south and southeast. At this initial stage, the war was basically a civil war between Koreans.

U.S. President Harry S. Truman, who had won reelection in 1948 promising a vigorous anticommunist policy (you will recall that he became president in early 1945 and served out what would have been FDR's fourth term) immediately pledged to come to the ROK's defense.

Meanwhile, the United Nations (UN) requested a cease fire, which was ignored by North Korea. On June 27, the UN *asked its members to assist the ROK*. On June 30, Truman committed U.S. ground forces to the fight. One week later, the UN called for the formation of a multi-national military coalition — led by the United States—to defend South Korea. ***The United States DID NOT declare war; it was simply the leader of the United Nation’s “police action.”***

The Korean War was now an international conflict. The first phase of the war saw UN forces wage a series of bloody defensive battles. On September 15, 1950, UN forces, commanded by U.S. General Douglas MacArthur (who had commanded U.S. forces in the Pacific during WWII) staged the daring **Inchon Landing**. This took the North Koreans by surprise and placed UN forces deep inside enemy territory. It also turned the tide of the war.

Now in the second phase of the war, the Truman administration and the UN called for the complete defeat of North Korean forces and the unification of Korea under a democratic government. By mid-October, UN forces had the North Koreans retreating far to the north, almost to the Chinese border.

But this second phase of the war was short-lived. Mao Zedong, who had become the leader of China the year before, saw the opportunity to harass the United States and cement his position as the leader of an “Eastern Revolution.” The People’s Republic of China (PRC, China) intervened in the war in limited fashion on October 25, 1950. But Chinese forces retreated quickly, and UN Commander General Douglas MacArthur ignored what was a clear warning of a bigger intervention to come. On November 25, 1950, 260,000 Chinese troops intervened in the war. ***They clashed violently with UN forces, pushing them into one of the longest retreats in modern military history.***

The third phase of the war now involved UN troops fighting **both** China and the DPRK. In spring 1951, the battle lines stabilized close to the 38th Parallel. ***For the next two and a half years, the war dragged on***, bringing heavy casualties and destruction to both sides. Cease-fire negotiations bogged down over the status and repatriation of prisoners of war (POWs). A final armistice was not signed until July 27, 1953. ***No peace treaty was ever negotiated, and the two Koreas remain technically in a state of war to this very day.***

Implications for United States and the Koreas

In the political realm, Korea fanned the flames of anti-communism and **McCarthyism** in the United States. ***The war gave credence and urgency to Senator Joseph McCarthy’s anti-communist witch hunt and brought with it political turmoil and civil liberty violations.***

The conflict also strengthened the powers of the presidency, as Truman decided to go to war without explicit congressional approval. He also resorted to questionable acts in the name of national security. A strike by steel workers in 1952 threatened to halt arms production. President Truman ordered the U.S. Secretary of Commerce to seize the steel mills and operate them under federal control. The U.S. Supreme Court quickly struck down Truman’s action as unconstitutional. [Around this time Truman also announced that he would not run for another term; after Truman, a Constitutional amendment limited a president to 2 full terms]. At the end of 1952, U.S. voters, frustrated with the stalemate in Korea and blaming Truman for the “loss” of

China and Korea, elected a Republican, **General Dwight Eisenhower** [who had been commander of Allied forces in the European theater in WWII], and gave control of the House and Senate to Republicans. For the first time since FDR's election in 1932, the Republicans controlled the Executive Branch.

In China as well as North and South Korea, the war helped the leaders of those three nations consolidate their grip on power and to shape their homelands according to their own ideological visions. This was perhaps best exemplified by Chinese leader Mao Zedong's "Resist America, Aid Korea" campaign to stamp out opposition and reorganize society.

Korea had wide-ranging economic implications. In the United States, the Korean conflict precipitated a massive increase in defense spending. ***Between 1950 and 1953, the defense budget ballooned from \$13.5 billion to more than \$52 billion.*** The Korean rearmament program brought with it raw materials shortages, inflation, government-mandated wage and price controls, and budget deficits. After the war ended, defense budgets never again fell to pre-war levels. Large military budgets became a Cold War hallmark, and the government's fiscal economic philosophy shifted accordingly. As well, ***the military-industrial complex*** had its roots in the Korean War. Western European nations also suffered from shortages, inflation, and deficits after the autumn of 1950, when they were asked to join in the rearmament effort. In Asia, the Korean War revitalized the Japanese economy. During 1950-1954, the Americans bought \$2.37 billion worth of military and military-support items from the Japanese. This set Japan on a course that would make it one of the world's largest economies by the 1970s. Similarly, in South Korea, the permanent stationing of U.S. troops and the construction of U.S. military bases there boosted the economy once the war ended.

Geopolitical Implications

Geopolitically, the effects of the Korean War were extraordinary:

- The United Nations was "legitimized." Unlike the earlier League of Nations, the U.N. had the power ***and the will*** to resist aggression.
- The conflict introduced the Cold War to Asia and militarized the U.S.'s Containment policy.
- America committed itself to containment in Asia, including its involvement in a series of regional alliances beginning in 1951. These included the 1951 Australia, New Zealand, and United States Mutual Security Treaty (**ANZUS**) and the Southeast Asia Treaty Organization (**SEATO**), founded in 1954.
- China became the preeminent regional power in Asia, put Chinese-American relations on ice for 20 years, and temporarily drew the Chinese and Soviets closer together. Yet the war also set the stage for the eventual Soviet-Chinese split in the late 1950s, as the Chinese concluded that the Soviets had not done enough to aid them during the war.
- Society and culture were also affected by the conflict. The war accelerated the racial integration of American armed forces (which was effected by a presidential order in 1948), raising expectations at home and giving impetus to the civil rights movement.

- In the two Koreas, the war militarized daily life. Both regimes focused their efforts on security and defense, which left little room for dissent or democracy.
- It was the first “limited war” of the nuclear age. Because of the existence of atomic weapons, both sides sought to limit the conflict so that it did not escalate into a nuclear war. This became the blueprint for all subsequent Cold War conflicts.
- The war forced the United States to build a permanent “mobilization base” so that it would never again have to rearm from scratch. It also precipitated a major arms race. During the 1950s and beyond, nuclear and thermonuclear weapons were built by the thousands and served as a “deterrent” to an all-out East-West war. [The United Kingdom exploded its first atomic bomb in 1952; France in 1960; and China in 1964].
- Believing (falsely) that Korea was a precursor to a Soviet offensive against the West, U.S. policymakers sent large troop deployments to Western Europe to shore up North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO) defenses. This added commitment to NATO also opened the door to the rearmament of the Federal Republic of Germany (FRG, West Germany).
- The Korean War also greatly accelerated the modernization and professionalization of China’s armed forces. Since the Korean War, in fact, the West tended to overestimate China’s military power, which ultimately affected U.S. policies in Asia (and in the Vietnam War particularly).
- The conflict saw the application of new technologies, such as the wide-spread use of helicopters in evacuation and combat support roles. The first jet airplane battle in history took place in November 1950. The advent of Mobile Army Surgical Hospitals (MASH units) revolutionized medical treatment for wounded soldiers and cut the number of military deaths significantly.
- Once again, experience showed that air power alone does not win wars.
- In the end, the most horrific result of the Korean War was its grim cost. Almost every city and town in North Korea was partly or wholly destroyed, while industry and infrastructure were leveled. In the South, the destruction was less intense, but still catastrophic; the capital city of Seoul saw its population cut by 60% during 1950-1952. The United States suffered 142,091 casualties (33,686 killed-in-action, KIA); The ROK suffered 300,000 casualties (70,000 KIA); the DPRK and PRC sustained a staggering 1.5 to 2 million KIA. And perhaps as many as 3 million Korean civilians were killed, while several million more became homeless.

Event	Date	Location	Significance
Democratic Republic of Vietnam established	1945	Vietnam	With defeat and withdrawal of Japanese, Ho Chi Minh leads new state with 15,000 French soldiers present
Ho retreats to hills	1947	Vietnam	French seek to depose Ho who leads Viet Minh troops in opposition to French colonial presence
French suffer huge defeat as 12,000 troops surrender and withdraw from Indochina	May 7, 1954	Dienbienphu	Although U.S. paid 80% of French costs, Eisenhower refused to send troops to Vietnam
Geneva Accords establish temporary division of Vietnam at 17th parallel	July 1954	Geneva, Switzerland	Vietnam is divided into two nations with Ho leading the north and Ngo Dinh Diem leading the "free" South. Promise of free elections in 1956
Diem opponents form National Liberation Front (NLF)	1960	South Vietnam	Communists and others attempt to overthrow Diem and unify Vietnam
Diem overthrown and assassinated	November 2, 1963	Saigon	With U.S. approval and support, Diem is replaced with military junta. 16,000 American military advisors in Vietnam
Gulf of Tonkin Resolution	August 5, 1964	Washington, D.C.	Following conflict between U.S. destroyers and North Vietnamese gunboats, Pres. Johnson is given authority to "prevent further aggression." Measure passes Congress 416-0 in House and 88-2 in Senate
Johnson defeats Goldwater for presidency	November 1964	U.S.	Portrayed as peace candidate, Johnson scores huge victory with 61% of the vote
Johnson orders bombing of North Vietnam after attack at Pleiku kills 7 U.S. soldiers	February 1965	Vietnam	In retaliation for Communist attack on U.S. unit, LBJ authorizes attack, but stops short of all-out bombing
20,000 U.S. troops sent to support South Vietnam	April 1, 1965		Violating his promises, LBJ raises U.S. troop level to 100,000 to fight Viet Cong
Tet Offensive begins	January 31, 1968	Vietnam	Viet Cong forces launch massive attack on American positions throughout Vietnam. LBJ's popularity ratings drop to 35%
My Lai Massacre	March 16, 1968	Vietnam	Lt. William Calley leads unit which kills at least 175 unarmed Vietnamese civilians. Calley is later court-martialed

			and convicted, though none of his superiors are charged
LBJ announces withdrawal from 1968 presidential race	March 31, 1968	White House, Washington, D.C.	Johnson announces end of bombing and calls for peace talks after embarrassing performance in New Hampshire primaries
Paris Peace talks begin	May 1968	Paris	Longest war in U.S. history begins winding down
Nixon defeats Humphrey and Wallace	November 1968	U.S.	Nixon wins with 43.4% of popular vote
U.S. begins secret bombing of North Vietnam and Cambodia	March 1969		Nixon avoids antiwar protests by not telling Congress or people about bombings
Nixon announces withdrawal of 60,000 U.S. ground troops	September 1969		First reduction of U.S. troops since start of war
U.S. troops enter Cambodia	April 1970	Cambodia	Despite Nixon pledges that U.S. troops were withdrawing from Vietnam, Cambodia invasion and bombing brought huge domestic opposition
Kent State Massacre	May 4, 1970	Ohio	National Guard forces kill four students protesting Vietnam involvement
Congress repeals Tonkin Gulf Resolution	June 24, 1970	Washington, D.C.	In 81-10 vote, Senate repeals authorization of U.S. involvement
Laos invaded	February 1971	Laos	U.S. and South Vietnamese forces make incursion to "protect withdrawal of U.S. forces"
Pentagon Papers released	June 1971	New York	New York Times begins publication of secret war study
North Vietnamese troops invade South	March 1972	Vietnam	U.S. responds by widespread bombing of North, including bombing of Hanoi and mining of Haiphong Harbor
Largest bombing of North Vietnam	December 17, 1972	North Vietnam	American B-52s begin largest bombing of war, losing 15 B-52s
Cease-fire accord achieved	January 27, 1973	Paris	All fighting to stop and American prisoners of war to be released by North Vietnam
Nixon resigns presidency	August 1974	White House, Washington, D.C.	Under pressure from members of his own party, Nixon ceases fight over Watergate scandal
North Vietnamese forces take Saigon	April 30, 1975	Saigon, South Vietnam	Communist forces occupy South, renaming Saigon Ho Chi Minh City WAR IS OVER.

THE BEGINNINGS OF THE INDEPENDENCE MOVEMENT IN INDIA

By the early 1900's, merchants, soldiers, and officials had been in India, a colony of Britain, for more than 200 years. After the **Sepoy Mutiny** of 1857, the British assumed control of India (up to 1857 the colony was run by the British East India Company) and installed a viceroy (literally, 'vice-king') to administer its affairs.

The British government boasted of the many improvements it had brought to India —bridges, canals, irrigation projects, and railroads. Many Indians, however, were not impressed. Their tax money had paid for most of those improvements. At the same time, many upper-class Indians (high-caste) were educated in British schools. There they discovered such European political ideas as nationalism, socialism, and democracy. Soon Western-educated Indian leaders began to apply these ideas to their native land.

In 1885, a group of Indian nationalists formed the **Indian National Congress**. Most but not all of its members were Hindus. In 1906, Muslims formed their own nationalist group, the **Muslim League**. Muslims made up a quarter of the Indian population and lived side by side with Hindus in many places.

The Congress Party Wanted Self-Rule

At first, the Indian National Congress — later called the **Congress Party** — spoke of “unswerving loyalty to the British Crown.” The party was concerned mainly with winning equal opportunities for Indians in the civil service. Gradually, however, the demands of the Congress party broadened. Its supporters wanted Indians to have greater control of their own government.

After 1900, radicals within the Congress party called for an end to cooperation with Britain, “Every Englishman knows they are a mere handful in this country,” a party leader told his colleagues in 1905, “and it is the business of every one of them to fool you into believing that you are weak and they are strong... . You must realize that the future rests entirely in your own hands....

Yet, while the British may have been a “mere handful” in India, the number of Congress party supporters was not much larger. The vast majority of Indians were uneducated and had neither the time nor the inclination to engage in politics; they struggled to survive. India's rigid caste system also separated people, and only members of high castes had the opportunity to obtain schooling. In a land of 325 million people, there were only 8,000 university graduates. These educated lawyers, doctors, teachers, and journalists formed the nucleus of the Congress party. Often, they were as out of touch with ordinary villagers as were the British [**COMPARE THIS TO THE PEASANT-BASED IDEOLOGY OF MAO ZEDONG**].

Gandhi led the Independence Movement

The person who breathed life into Indian nationalism and brought it to the common people was **Mohandas Karamchand Gandhi** (1869-1948). As a young man from a well-to-do background, Gandhi studied law in Britain. Then he went to South Africa, where Indians (known as “coloureds”) filled many positions in the British colonial government. Like black Africans, Indians in South Africa suffered from harsh racial laws. His sense of injustice aroused, Gandhi took a stand against these laws. In South Africa he developed the religious and political ideas that made him one of the most influential leaders of the twentieth century.

While very conscious of his Hindu roots, Gandhi belonged to no specific religious group; he borrowed freely from all of the major world religions, including Christianity and Islam. His philosophy of action was based upon these four general principles:

1. Live simply, never seeking material rewards.
2. Be tolerant of the religious beliefs of others.
3. Spend life in the service of others.
4. Battle injustice in all its forms but never by resorting to violence.

Gandhi practiced what he preached. He lived an almost monastic existence, fasting regularly, practicing celibacy (he did not pay much attention to his wife or four children) and giving up all but the most essential possessions.

But Gandhi he did not retreat from the world. In 1914, at the age of 45, Gandhi returned to India, where he became a leader in the Indian independence movement. Gandhi did not limit his campaigns to fighting British injustice. He also worked to end the injustice of his fellow Indians toward the **untouchables**, the lowest group in Hindu society. Gandhi treated the untouchables as equals. He called them *harijans* meaning “people of God.”

Gandhi built his philosophy around peace and love. Everywhere he went “this great soul in a beggar’s garb,” as one admirer called him, won the hearts of the Indian people. Soon they were calling him the **Mahatma** (“Great Soul”)

When World War I broke out in 1914, Gandhi and millions of other Indians put aside their discontent with Britain. Indian soldiers helped Great Britain defeat Germany. Gandhi maintained his principles of **nonviolence**, refusing to resort to violence. He served as an ambulance driver and received a medal for bravery.

In return for India’s assistance in the war effort British government promised to begin reforms in India that would eventually lead to self-government.

Tensions Rose after World War I

In 1918, Indian troops returned home from the war. They expected Britain to fulfill its promise. However, British reforms fell far short of Indian hopes. As a result, acts of anti-British terrorism

erupted in parts of India. The British struck back with the **Rowlatt Act** in March 1919, a law that gave the government the right to jail protesters without trial for as long as two years.

The Amritsar Massacre

To protest the **Rowlatt Act** Gandhi called for days of fasting and prayer in the spring of 1919. In March and April, Hindus and Muslims gathered in the city of **Amritsar**, the capital city of the province of Punjab (in India's northwest). Gandhi organized the protests and called for **swaraj**, self-rule

The British officials in India grew concerned about the size of the protests and the level of cooperation between Hindus and Muslims. On April 10, two leaders of the movement — one Muslim, one Hindu — were arrested and jailed. When supporters protested the action, British troops fired into the crowd, killing several Indians. An enraged mob took revenge, burning British banks and killing several British people.

To restore order, the local commander, General Reginald Dyer, assembled a force of 90 troops. On April 13, over 10,000 celebrators poured into a public park in Amritsar to celebrate the Punjabi harvest festival. A small number of nationalist agitators were also there, in defiance of Dyer's ban on public demonstrations.

Dyer and his troops arrived in the park and began to shoot without giving warning. In a ten-minute assault, Dyer's troops killed approximately 400 men, women, and children and injured 1,200 (these numbers are still debated).

The British government ordered an inquiry. When questioned, Dyer expressed no remorse. He admitted that his troops could have fired into the air to disperse the people, but he instead ordered soldiers to shoot to kill. Dyer stated:

I was going to punish them.... My idea from the military point of view was to make a wide impression.

Tensions after the Amritsar Massacre

After the massacre, Gandhi wrote, "Cooperation in any shape or form with this satanic government is sinful." In December, Britain tried to soothe tensions by passing the **Government of India Act**. This law set up a dual system of administration in which the British governor-general shared power with an Indian legislature. Although the law gave Indians more voice in domestic affairs, the British kept control over foreign policy and security matters. Gandhi and many other nationalist leaders felt that the new law was a token offer. They rejected the British reforms.

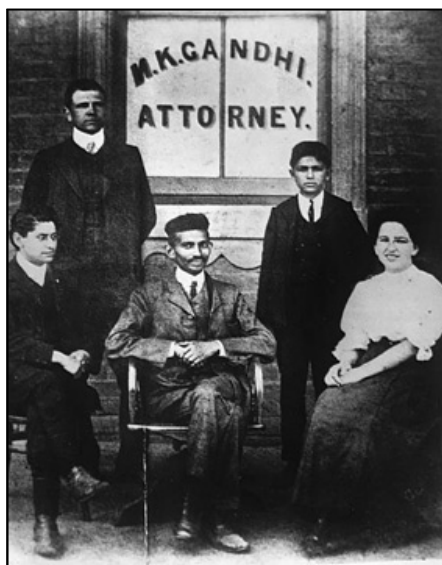
It was clear to Gandhi that native Indians could never defeat the British by military force. Instead, he called on Indians to use **nonviolent moral force**. He called his policy *satyagraha*, meaning "hold fast to the truth." In English, it is called **passive resistance** or **civil disobedience**. Gandhi argued that Indians did not need guns or weapons to bring about self-rule. He reasoned

that Great Britain could not govern India if Indians peacefully refused to cooperate. Therefore, he urged Indians to **boycott** (refuse to buy) British goods and to refuse to pay British taxes, obey British laws, or use British courts.

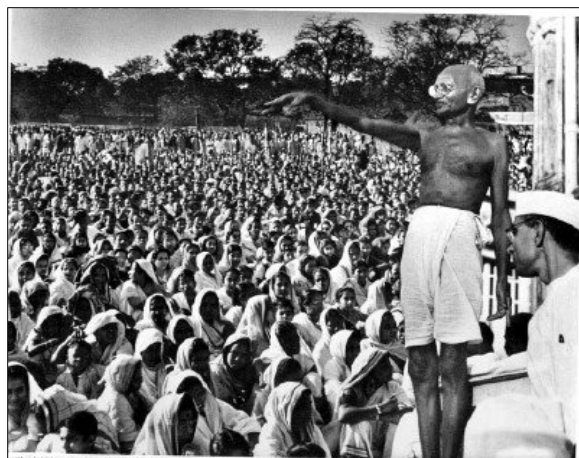
For example, Gandhi urged all Indians to boycott British cloth and make their own (as the American colonists did during their struggle for independence). Gandhi himself devoted two hours each day to spinning his own yarn on a simple handwheel. He wore nothing but a dhoti (a simple wrap) made of homespun cloth. Sales of British cloth dropped sharply.

Civil disobedience does not require money, physical strength, or skill with weapons. It is simple in its philosophy. Millions flocked to Gandhi's movement.

Throughout 1920, there were dozens of strikes, demonstrations, and protests. Thousands of Indians were arrested by the British, who struggled to keep trains running factories open, and jails from bursting. Despite Gandhi's pleas to avoid violence, protests often led to riots. Sometimes, hundreds were killed or wounded. Alarmed by the violence, Gandhi called off civil disobedience in February, 1922. One month later, he was arrested and sentenced to six years in prison.



Gandhi arrived in South Africa in 1893 and opened a law practice



Gandhi addressing a crowd in India



For Gandhi, the spinning wheel was a symbol of India's ability to throw off British rule. Indians boycotted British cloth, and Gandhi spent two hours every day spinning yarn.

India: From Independence to the Present Day

India's first prime minister was **Jawaharlal Nehru** (1948-1964). British-educated, Nehru had been by Gandhi's side and was a member of the Congress Party, but was more worldly and political than Gandhi.

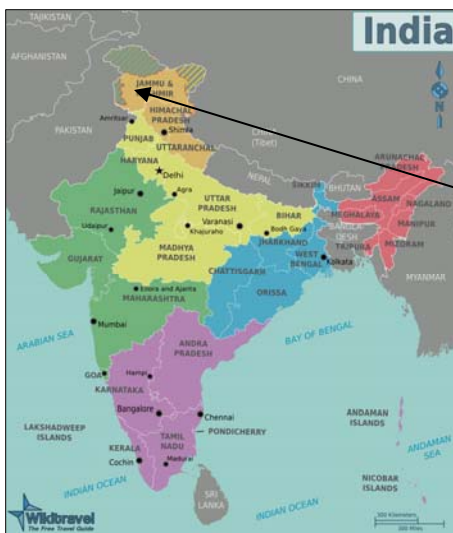
Nehru faced enormous problems. Independence did not quiet religious tensions or the conflict with its neighbors. China attacked India in 1962 over a border dispute. India's military performed badly. India also fought another war with Pakistan in 1965 and, as noted above, assisted East Pakistan in its drive for independence.

Nonetheless, Nehru was a popular leader. Governing India was not easy; with so many linguistic and cultural groups, it was hard to achieve unity. Nehru implemented **Democratic Socialism**, which featured a **"mixed economy."** Railroads, infrastructure, and key heavy industries were owned by the government, while small businesses and agriculture were left in private hands. The gap between rich and poor was tremendous, and only a few urban areas had any sort of a middle class.

Nehru was a key player in the **Non-Aligned Movement**, which was established in 1955. The Non-Aligned nations (many of them newly independent) attempted to steer a middle course between the West and the Soviet Bloc. However, India's relations with the U.S. were cool and it accepted aid and assistance from the Soviet Union.

Turmoil Under the Leadership of Indira Gandhi

Nehru died in 1964 and was succeeded by a Congress Party elder. After two years, upon the death of that prime minister (1966), Nehru's daughter, **Indira Gandhi** (no relation to Mohandas Gandhi), became prime minister. She was a tough and calculating politician, and began India's nuclear weapons development program. India detonated what it called a "peaceful nuclear device" in 1974. She also pushed for widespread birth control programs.



India is composed of 28 states and 9 territories. India's claim to Jammu and Kashmir is not recognized by Pakistan. The Kashmir region has led to three wars.

After corruption charges surfaced and the government was thrown into turmoil in 1975, Gandhi declared a **state of emergency**, suspending the parliament and allowing her to rule by decree. When she called elections in 1977, the Congress Party was beaten.

Gandhi ran again in 1980 and served a second term as prime minister. During this term of office, Gandhi tried to deal with the new nationalist groups that had become active in India at the end of British rule. Besides Muslims and Hindus, India's population includes Buddhists, Jainists, Christians, Parsis, and Sikhs.

The Sikhs (an offshoot of Hinduism) are strongly nationalistic and want more independence for their state, the Punjab. In the spring of 1984, radical Sikhs turned to violence to back up their demands. Gandhi sent an army to the Punjab to control the situation. At her orders, the Indian soldiers stormed the Sikh's Golden Temple at Amritsar.

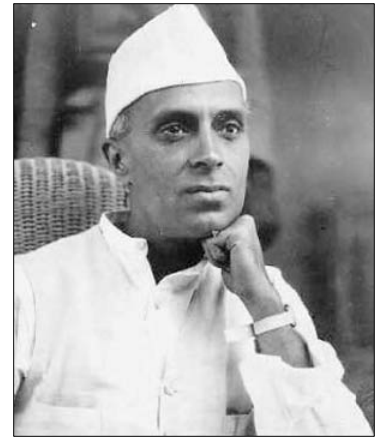
The Sikhs took revenge by ordering her assassination in October, 1984. The killing was carried out by members of her Sikh bodyguard corps. Outraged, Hindus formed mobs and began a random slaughter of Sikhs.

Later Leadership

Indira Gandhi had been grooming her oldest son for political office. After he was killed in a stunt plane crash, she turned to her second son, **Rajiv Gandhi**. At the time, Rajiv Gandhi was a pilot for Air India and had married an Italian woman. But he agreed to enter "the family business."

Rajiv Gandhi succeeded his mother and was prime minister for five years, until 1989. He managed for a while to calm the violence. Nonetheless, he could not remove the roots of the problem-extreme nationalism and intolerance of cultural and religious differences. Sikh separatists continued to agitate for self rule.

Other problems reasserted themselves. Because of India's large population, economic growth slowed. A massive and inefficient bureaucracy controlled many aspects of economic activity, leading many to joke that India was "the license raj." Gandhi has also sent troops to help enforce a fragile peace in the island nation of Sri Lanka (formerly Ceylon) to the south.



Jawaharlal Nehru, India's first prime minister (1948-1964)



Nehru's daughter, Indira Gandhi, was prime minister from 1964 to 1977. During the time, she declared emergency law from 1975-1977. She was beaten in 1977, but returned to power in 1980 and was assassinated by Sikh extremists in 1984.



While the Tamils are Hindu (the majority of people in Sri Lanka are Buddhist), Gandhi worried that India's Tamil people might demand their own state.

In 1991, Rajiv Gandhi again sought the premiership. At a rally, a woman affiliated with the Sri Lankan Hindu splinter group, the Tamil Tigers wearing a vest loaded with explosives came up to Gandhi and detonated her weapons. He was killed instantly.

Rajiv Gandhi's widow, Sonia is now the head of the Congress Party. She declined the opportunity to become prime minister (she was born in Italy and converted to Hinduism). Her son, Rahul (educated at Harvard) serves in the Indian parliament.

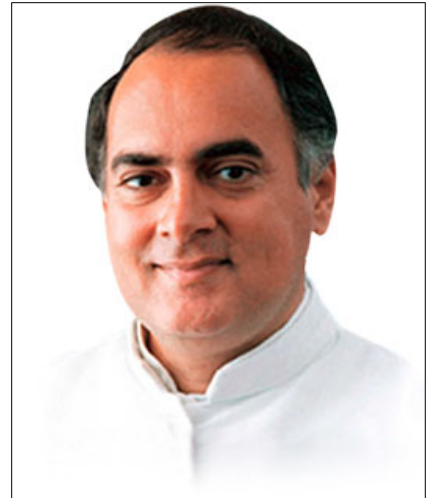
India in the Present Day

The Congress Party continued in power until 1996. In 1997, a far-right Hindu nationalist party won parliamentary elections. This party stayed in power until 2004, when the Congress Party swept the elections. Bypassing Sonia Gandhi, the party chose a Sikh, **Manmohan Singh** (from Amritsar). He won reelection in 2009

Today, India has a vibrant, (mostly) free-market economy. Its rate of growth is one of the fastest in the world. Many countries and companies from all over the world are investing in India. India's technology sector is one of the most vibrant in the world. Most of the old regulations that limited foreign investment and bogged down business development have been abolished.

Tensions with Pakistan remain high. In 1998, both India and Pakistan tested H-Bombs. Control of the Kashmir region remains unsettled. India, which had a very cool relationship with the U.S. for decades (in part because of the U.S. support for Pakistan and India's closeness with the USSR), now enjoys excellent relations with the U.S. The first official state dinner President Obama held was for Prime Minister Singh.

According to the CIA's *World Factbook*, the economy of India has grown by more than 7% each year since 1997. Nonetheless, widespread poverty and inflation pose challenges to future economic growth.



Rajiv Gandhi, son of Indira, was prime minister from 1984 to 1991. He was assassinated in 1991 by a Tamil nationalist from Sri Lanka. India had assisted the Buddhist (Tamil) majority in the Sri Lankan Civil War. His successor, from 1991-1998, was not effective.



A Hindu nationalist party held power from 1998 to 2004. Then Manmohan Singh, India's first Sikh prime minister, was elected and implemented free-market reforms.

DECOLONIZATION IN AFRICA: CASE STUDIES

Independence from Britain

1957: GHANA

- First leader: Kwame Nkrumah
- Expensive infrastructure projects bankrupted the country
- Near-total reliance on one crop (cocoa)
- Nkrumah more interested in "Pan-Africanism" than day-to-day affairs
- Deposed in 1966

1960: NIGERIA

- Many different tribes (three major)
- Federal system meant one vote for each state, regardless of size or population
- Civil war with breakaway region of Biafra (declared independence) crippled the nation
- Many military coups and leaders and a culture of corruption hamper development
- Oil wealth not evenly distributed

1963: KENYA

- First leader: Jomo Kenyatta
- Independence came, in part, due to Mau Mau Rebellion in 1950s
- One-party rule and culture of corruption
- Ethnic conflicts continue
- But Kenya has done better than many other African nations

Independence from France

1956: Morocco

- Had experience with self-government
- Long history of Christian/Jewish/Muslim coexistence
- But repressive rule by post-independence kings; little democratic structure
- Faces Islamist pressures

1960: Ivory Coast

- First leader: Félix Houphouët-Boigny
- New nation had pro-western, anticommunist stance; good relations with Europe
- But after death of first leader, a long period of coups and civil war

1962: Algeria

- France had considered Algeria part of its own territory
- Brutal war of independence 1954-1962; atrocities on both sides
- Very high unemployment and lack of industry
- 1990s – Islamist parties voted in

Independence
from Belgium

1960: Congo (renamed Zaire in 1971; now Democratic Republic of the Congo)

- First leader: Patrice Lumumba (deposed and killed by Belgians and CIA)
- 'Strongman' leader: Mobutu Sese Seko (1965 – 1997)
- Terrible exploitation by Belgians; human rights abuses and economic ravaging
- Belgium pulled out leaving Congo with virtually nothing
- Civil war with breakaway province weakened the new nation
- Mobutu was anticommunist and close to U.S. and Europe
- Massive amounts of aid stolen by Mobutu
- Nation had awful human rights record
- Mobutu overthrown in 1997, but unrest to this day; continuing civil war

Independence
from Portugal

1975 Angola

- Portugal did not want to give up Angola
- Cost of keeping Angola almost bankrupted Portugal; it withdrew in 1975
- Strife between communist (Soviet Union and Cuba) and pro-West (U.S. and South Africa) factions
- 27-year civil war was a "proxy war" in the Cold War era
- Desperately poor and underdeveloped nation
- Remains in terrible shape

Questions:

1. What are some common characteristics of the nations that emerged from colonial rule?
2. What steps taken by European nations strengthened and/or weakened the new African nations?
3. Did the Europeans act in good faith when they agreed to grant independence to their colonies in Africa? Explain your answer.
4. How would you characterize the health of the new nations today?

AIM:

**WHY HAS LATIN AMERICA
STRUGGLED TO BUILD AND
SUSTAIN DEMOCRATIC
GOVERNMENTS?**

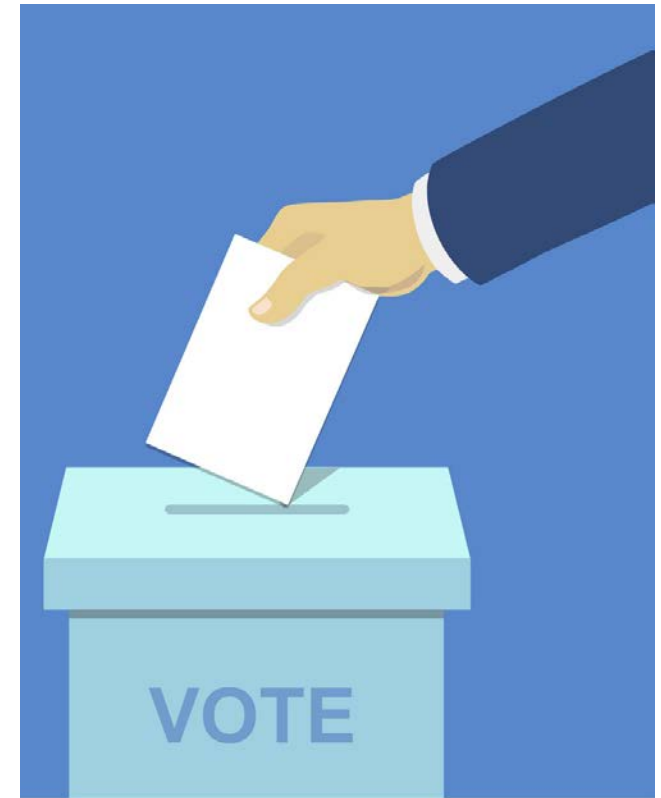
1. Let's Define "Latin America"

- 20 nations and territories SOUTH of the United States.
- Located in Central America, South America, and the Caribbean Sea.
- Portuguese- and Spanish-speaking.
- Former colonies of Portugal (Brazil) and Spain.



2. Let's Define “Democratic Government”

- A government in which the supreme power is vested in the people and exercised by them directly or indirectly through a system of representation usually involving periodically held free elections.
- Indirect rule by the people through a REPUBLIC – the people vote for people who will represent them in a parliamentary body (a congress).
- Free and fair elections with multiple parties.



3. What is Needed to have a Democratic Form of Government?

- A body of citizens capable and willing to participate in elections [no fear of retribution or harassment].
- Generally, a population that is literate – able to understand and read about the issues of the nation.
- A stable economy – first and foremost, people need to eat/have shelter/have a basic minimum life.
- Opportunities for advancement / a strong middle class.
- A CULTURE OF RIGHTS AND RESPONSIBILITIES.
- RULE OF LAW.
- A sense of national identity (“the good of the nation”).

**SEE CHART IN
TEXTBOOK
ON PAGE 985**

4. Why has Latin America Struggled to Build and Maintain Democratic Governments?

- Legacy of colonial rule (often brutal or heavy-handed).
- Legacy of social stratification (peninsulares, creoles, mestizos, native peoples, and slaves).
- Early failures of democracy (after the liberators).
- Too much reliance on single crops (Brazil – coffee and cane).
- Lack of industrial development (more jobs).
- Large gaps between the richest and poorest members of society (uneven land-holding).
- Militaries that are too autonomous and not controlled by the civilian leadership.
- Lack of sustained experience in democracy.

5. Example # 1: Brazil

- Heavy-handed rule by Portugal from late 1400s to independence in early 1800s.
- Became a monarchy after independence.
- Small social and political elite.
- Slavery allowed until late 1800s.
- Almost exclusive reliance on coffee and sugar exports; little or no industrial development.
- Weak executive and legislative branches.
- Early 1930s: First dictatorship 1930 – 1945 and 1950 – 1954.

- Brief period of modernization and liberalization in late 1950s.
- Opposition by the wealthy to land reform (redistribution of large estates).
- 1964: Military *coup d'état* (overthrow) with support of wealthy landowners.
- 1960s – 1980s: Economic growth, though still major gap between wealthy and poor.
- Few political freedoms during time of military rule.
- Mid-1980s: Military stepped down amid deep financial crisis.

1980s – Present

A. First civilian presidents were weak.

B. Cardoso: free-market president; made some economic gains.

2002 – a Turn to the Left

- Worker's Party won national elections.
- But continuing political turmoil due to weak economic conditions, and government turned moderate.
- Next president removed in political maneuvers by enemies.

Current Situation

- High unemployment and wealth gap – 2008 worldwide recession hit Latin America hard.
- Environmental devastation / deforestation.
- Continuing political scandals interfere with democratic processes.

6. Example # 2: Argentina

- Independence in early 1800s and democratic governments in late 1800s.
- Wealthy country due to export-oriented economy (grains and beef).
- Universal male suffrage and secret ballots.
- Neutrality in World War I and World War II..
- Military involvement in government during WWII and after.
- 1946 – Juan Perón wins election and establishes a dictatorship.
- Creates large welfare state; popular with the working classes.
- Limited freedom of the press and right to protest.

- 1976 – 1983 – to battle leftists. Military government launches brutal “dirty war.”
- Killings, “disappearances,” jailings, no civil liberties.
- 1982 – military government goes to war with Britain over Falkland Islands.
- Disastrous military defeat; military government is discredited and steps down.
- 1983 – first civilian president since before WWII.
- Early 2000s – economic instability and huge foreign debt destabilize governments. Much chaos.
- Present: No military government, but civilian governments are weak; economic challenges remain.

7. Example # 3 – Chile: the Terror Within

- Democratic in early part of the 20th century.
- 1970: Socialist Salvador Allende elected president.
- Allende promoted land reform and social spending.
- Large businesses (mining) and U.S.-owned companies in Chile were alarmed.
- U.S. government grew increasingly concerned.
- 1973: With support from the CIA, General Augusto Pinochet launched military coup d'état.
- Allende killed during the coup.

- 1973 – 1990: Brutal repression and political/ military crackdown on any dissent.
- Thousands imprisoned and killed.
- No attempts to address social concerns; gap between rich and poor.
- Pinochet was strongly anticommunist.
- Much U.S. investment.
- 1990: In face of increasing international pressure, Pinochet stepped down.
- Pinochet faced charges of terror and murder, but died before a sentence could be determined.
- Chile again a democratic nation.

8. Example # 4: Mexico and One-Party Rule

- Mexico was politically stable – but economically distressed – in early 20th century.
- 1930s: Oil industry nationalized (taken away from foreign and private owners).
- Generally, one-party rule.
- 1946 – The ruling party becomes the Institutional Revolutionary Party (PRI) .
- Mexico remained poor; under-investment in social services; huge gap between rich and poor.
- Enormous foreign debt.
- 2000: Voters ended one-party rule with election of center-right president.
- Political and economic problems remain.

9. The Problems in Central America

- Many years of military-backed “strongman” rule in many countries.
- Weak tradition of democracy.
- Unstable political structures.
- Highly stratified societies – gap between rich and poor (especially in land-holdings).

Guatemala

- Dominated by U.S. fruit interests for much of 20th century.
- 1950s – reformist president overthrown in CIA-backed coup.
- 1950s – 1990s: brutal civil war and mass killings.

Nicaragua

- Rule by one family from 1930s to 1970s.
- Marxists elected in 1979.
- U.S. horrified and began to give aid to opponents (*contrarevoluciones*) [“contras”].
- Early 1980s: U.S. funded aid to contras by selling weapons to Iran!
- 1990s: Return to democratic rule, but democracy remains weak.

El Salvador

- Brutal civil war in 1980s through 1992
- Right-wing death squads operated freely.

Panama

- Revolution against Columbia conceived and supported by the U.S. in early 1900s.
- U.S. build CANAL across Panama; U.S.-owned and operated.
- U.S. supported military strongmen as presidents and leaders.
- Panama's strongman ignores U.S. urging of transition to civilian leadership.
- Late 1989: U.S. invades Panama and deposes leader.
- 1999: Canal returned to Panama.

Iran's Religious Revolution (1979) and the Creation of an Islamic Republic

Persian culture and intellectual life reached a peak during the rule of the Safavid Dynasty, which was in power from the early 1500s to the early 1700s. Shah (king) Abbas built the city of Isfahan and initiated contacts with Western nations. He also promoted the arts and sciences.

After the Safavids, another dynasty ruled Iran, but the true rulers of the country the 1800s were Great Britain and Russia. In 1908, the British discovered oil in southern Iran and created a company (Anglo-Persian Oil Company) to manage the operations. The British exploited the Persian nation, paying it only small royalties and refusing to disclose finances.

In 1921, an army officer, Reza Kahn, seized power. He deposed the ruling shah in 1925 and called himself **Reza Shah Pahlavi**.

Iran seemed an unlikely place for an Islamic revolution. Under the government of **Shah Mohammad Reza Pahlavi** (ruled 1941-1979), Iran had undertaken what many saw as a quite successful modernization effort. The country had great wealth in oil, a powerful military, a well-educated elite, and a solid alliance with the United States.

Furthermore, the shah's so-called White Revolution intended to promote the country's modernization, had redistributed land to many of the Iran's impoverished peasantry, granted women the right to vote, invested substantially in rural health care and education, initiated a number of industrial projects, and offered workers a share in the profits of those industries. But beneath the surface of apparent success, discontent and resentment were brewing. By the 1970s, across the Islamic world, disappointments abounded with the social and economic results of political independence and secular development, while hostility to continuing Western cultural, military and political intrusion grew.

Traditional merchants felt threatened by an explosion of imported Western goods and by competition from large-scale businesses. Religious leaders, the **ulama**, were offended by secular education programs that bypassed Islamic schools and by state control of religious institutions. Educated professionals found Iran's reliance on the West disturbing. Rural migrants to the country's growing cities, especially Tehran, faced rising costs and uncertain employment.

A repressive and often brutal government allowed little outlet for such grievances. Thus, opposition to the shah's regime came to center on the country's many mosques, where Iran's **Shi'ite** religious leaders invoked memories of earlier persecution and martyrdom as they mobilized that opposition and called for the shah's removal.

The emerging leader of that movement was the high-ranking Shia cleric **Ayatollah Ruholla Khomeini** (1902-1989), who in 1979 returned from long exile in Paris to great acclaim. By then, massive urban demonstrations, strikes, and **defections** [renouncing loyalty] from the military had eroded support for the shah, who **abdicated** [gave up] the throne and left the country in early 1979.

What followed was also a cultural revolution, but one that moved in precisely the opposite direction from that of secular revolutions (such as in France and Russia) — toward, rather than away — religion in public life.

The new government defined itself as an Islamic republic, with an elected parliament and a constitution, but in practice it represented the rule of Islamic clerics, in which conservative ulama, headed by Khomeini, exercised dominant power. The **Council of Guardians**, composed of leading religious scholars, was empowered to interpret the constitution, to supervise elections, and to review legislation, all of which was designed to ensure compatibility with religion. Opposition to the new regime was harshly crushed, with 1,800 executions in 1981 alone for those regarded as “waging war against God.”

Khomeini believed that the purpose of government was to apply the law of Allah as expressed in **sharia** [Islamic law]. Thus all judges now had to be well-versed in Islamic law, and those lacking that qualification were dismissed. The secular law codes under which the shah’s government had operated were discarded in favor of those based solely on Islamic precedents.

Islamization likewise profoundly affected education and culture. In June 1980 the new government closed 200 universities and colleges for two years while textbooks, curricula, and faculty were “purified” of un-Islamic influences. Elementary and secondary schools, largely secular under the shah, now gave priority to religious instruction and the teaching of Arabic, and 40,000 teachers lost their jobs because they were not religious enough.

Pre-Islamic Persian literature and history were now out of favor, while the history of Islam and Iran’s revolution predominated in schools and the mass media. Western words that had become part of the everyday vocabulary were purged from the Persian language (Farsi) language, replaced by their Arabic equivalents.

By 1983, all women were required to wear the head and neck scarf known as the **hijab** [the term also refers, in general, to modest dress] and simple clothing that covered arms and legs. Groups of roving guards and “revolutionary guards” patrolled the streets and enforced dress codes. Women who did not meet the standards were sometimes imprisoned and punished by lashing (whipping).

Sexual segregation was imposed in schools, parks, beaches, and public transportation. The legal age of marriage for girls, set at 18 under the shah, was reduced to 9 with parental consent and then 13 (later changed to 15) without it. Married women could no longer file for divorce or attend school.

Yet, despite such restrictions, many women supported the revolution and over the next several decades found far greater opportunities for employment and higher education than ever before. By the year 2000, 60% of all university students were women. In addition, the right of women to vote was not taken away.

After Khomeini died in 1989, some elements of the revolution eased up a bit. In 1997, a reformist president was elected, and hopes for greater liberalization grew. But in 2005, a hard-line conservative and former student revolutionary, **Mahmoud Ahmadinejad**, was elected president. New crackdowns on liquor, illegal music, and clothing were initiated.

In 2009, Ahmadinejad was reelected, but there was widespread election fraud and voter intimidation. People took to the streets to protest and wore green to express their discontent with the regime. This “Green Movement” was not successful in removing Ahmadinejad from power, but it showed the religious establishment that after 30 years, people wanted greater freedoms and political liberty. In particular, over two-thirds of the people in Iran today were born after the 1979 revolution. These young people know only what they have grown up with, and are willing to express their dissatisfaction.

In 2015, the United States and Iran signed an agreement to limit Iran's nuclear weapons research program [in exchange for an unfreezing of assets]. Iran has pledged not to build an atomic bomb, but the United States, Israel, and the Arab world remain deeply suspicious. Shortly after taking office, President Donald Trump removed the U.S. from the nuclear deal.

The Iranian Hostage Crisis, 1979 - 1981

In late 1979, the United States allowed the former Shah, who was dying of cancer, to come to the United States for medical treatment. In response, university students in Tehran stormed the U.S. Embassy and took 66 hostages. They demanded that the Shah be returned to Iran in order to stand trial. Some hostages were released (African-Americans and women) because they were “oppressed minorities,” according to the students. The remaining 52 were held in various parts of Tehran and moved about constantly. The U.S. and Iran were at a deadlock regarding conditions for freeing the hostages.

The U.S., still traumatized by the collapse of South Vietnam in 1975 and battered by inflation and high unemployment at home, saw images of handcuffed and blindfolded hostages paraded through the streets of Tehran by students denouncing “The Great Satan” (the U.S.) and shouting “Death to America!”

In April 1980, the U.S. attempted a commando raid to rescue the hostages, but the helicopters to be used were caught in a sandstorm in the Iranian desert. Then, a crash of two helicopters while on the ground killed eight U.S. servicemen. The raid was called off. President Carter did not campaign in the 1980 election. His opponent was the conservative Republican **Ronald Reagan**, a former film actor and governor of California. Reagan won a landslide, signaling the shift to conservatism in American politics.

On January 20, 1981, just minutes after the new president, Ronald Reagan, was sworn in, Iran released the hostages after 444 days in captivity. The hostage-takers wanted to deny the fruits of victory to President Jimmy Carter, who was seen as personally responsible for admitting the Shah to the U.S.

In return for the safe passage of the hostages, the U.S. unfroze almost \$8 billion in Iranian assets in U.S. banks and pledged that it would not intervene in Iranian affairs. As of 2019, the U.S. and Iran still do not have diplomatic relations.



Iranian students burning an American Flag



A U.S. hostage being paraded before TV cameras by his Iranian captors. Such images caused a furor in the U.S.

A Timeline of Arab-Israeli Relations

1880s

Jews fleeing persecution in Eastern Europe to Palestine, then a region of the Ottoman Empire. Emigration to Palestine will continue through the 1930s.

1917

British government issues the **Balfour Declaration**, which states the British government's support for a Jewish nation in Palestine, provided "that nothing shall be done which may prejudice the civil and religious rights of existing non-Jewish communities in Palestine... ."

1922

The League of Nations gives Britain a **mandate** (administrative responsibility) for Palestine.

1929

The **Jewish Agency** is formed and assumes the functions of a government-in-waiting.

1947

After WWII, the newly created **United Nations** recommends a **partition plan** that would create a Jewish state and a Palestinian state. The Jewish Agency accepts the plan; Arab leaders reject the plan.

1948

Jewish settlers proclaim the state of Israel (May). British troops leave. Fighting breaks out with Arab neighbors, ending in October 1949. **David ben-Gurion** becomes first prime minister.

Some 700,000 Palestinians flee or are driven from what had been British-mandate Palestine. Israel annexes large tracts of land. Jordan and Egypt hold onto the West Bank and Gaza Strip respectively. Control of Jerusalem is split between Israel in the west and Jordan in the east.

1956

Egypt nationalizes Suez Canal. Britain and France, working with Israel, invades and occupies the Canal Zone, but withdraws under U.S. pressure.

1964

Palestine Liberation Organization (PLO) founded. Charter calls for destruction of Israel. The largest faction, Fatah, is headed by **Yasir Arafat**.

June 1967

Reacting to Arab armies' mobilization and the rhetoric of Egyptian President **Gamal Nasser**, Israel seizes Egyptian, Syrian and Jordanian territory in a pre-emptive attack that became known as the **Six-Day War**. The Sinai Peninsula and Gaza Strip are captured from Egypt, the Golan Heights from Syria and the West Bank and East Jerusalem from Jordan. Israel's successes doubled the size of the territory it controlled. **United Nations Resolution 242** (November) calls for return to pre-war boundaries. **November**: Arab League members proclaim "The Three No's": no recognition of Israel; no negotiations with Israel; and no peace with Israel.

1968-1970

War of Attrition: Israel fights Egypt and PLO guerrillas in low-intensity warfare. 1969 – American-born **Golda Meir** becomes prime minister of Israel.

1970

Nasser dies. He is replaced by **Anwar el-Sadat**.

October 1973

Yom Kippur War: Egypt and Syria attack Israeli forces in Sinai and Golan Heights on Jewish fast of Yom Kippur. They make initial gains and Israel fears for its existence. Meir appeals to the U.S. for arms supplies. As U.S. military hardware streams into Israel, tide of war turns and Israel crosses Suez Canal and is poised to march to Cairo.

Organization of Petroleum Exporting Countries, led by Saudi Arabia, places **oil embargo** on United States in retaliation for its support of Israel.

1977

Egyptian President Anwar el-Sadat flies to Israel and addresses Parliament. He calls for negotiations.

1978

Camp David Accords: Egypt (**President Anwar el-Sadat**), Israel (**Prime Minister Menachem Begin**) and the United States sign (**President Jimmy Carter**) meet at U.S. presidential retreat, Camp David. Under agreement, signed in 1979, Israel begins to withdraw from Sinai Desert and Egypt established full diplomatic relations with Israel.

1982

First Lebanon War: Israel invades Lebanon to clear out terrorists threatening Israel. The PLO, under Arafat, is driven from Beirut, its headquarters, and resettles in Tunisia. Christian right-wing militias working with Israel kills civilians in two Palestinian refugee camps. Phased withdrawal takes two years, but Israel maintains a "security zone" in southern Lebanon.

December 1987

The Palestinian **intifada** (uprising) against Israeli rule starts in West Bank and Gaza. Young Palestinian demonstrators hurl stones at Israeli troops in the occupied territories and the military responds with curfews, arrests and deportations. More than 20,000 people are killed or injured.

1987

Hamas, a Palestinian resistance group with the specific aim of eliminating Israel and driving Jews from the Middle East, is formed.

1991

Madrid Peace Conference opens including delegations from Israel, Syria, Jordan, Lebanon and the Palestinians. Jordanian-Israeli and Syria-Israeli peace negotiation tracks are opened.

January 1993

Secret Israeli-PLO talks begin in **Oslo**, Norway.

September 1993

PLO Chairman Yasir Arafat and Israeli **Prime Minister Yitzhak Rabin** sign Declaration of Principles in Washington (in presence of President Bill Clinton) on the basis of the Oslo talks. Israel recognises the PLO and gives them limited autonomy in return for peace and an end to Palestinian claims on Israeli territory.

1994

Israel and the PLO reach agreement in Cairo on the initial implementation of the Oslo Accords, including a Israeli military withdrawal from about 60% of the Gaza Strip (Jewish settlements and their environs are excluded) and the West Bank town of Jericho. The Cairo agreement envisages further withdrawals from yet to be agreed areas of the occupied territories. A five-year period begins in which a permanent resolution is to be negotiated on Jerusalem, settlements, Palestinian refugees and sovereignty. Arafat returns from exile in Tunisia and becomes first president of **Palestinian Authority**. Israel-Jordan peace treaty is signed.

1995

September: Arafat and Rabin sign agreement (known as Oslo II) in Washington to expand Palestinian self-rule in the West Bank and Gaza and allow Palestinian elections.

November: Prime Minister Yitzhak Rabin assassinated by an orthodox Jewish student who is opposed to Israeli withdrawals from the occupied West Bank.

November 1995 - March 1996

Israeli Prime Minister Shimon Peres attempts to reach a peace deal with Syria, Considerable progress is made. After attacks by **Hamas**, a hard-line Palestinian group pledged to the

destruction of Israel and funded (in part) by Syria result in the death of 57 Israelis, negotiations with Syria are suspended. Peres loses general election and a right-wing government is elected and resumes building settlements in the West Bank and Gaza Strip.

1999

Right-wing government of Israel collapses, and left-wing Labor Party, under **Ehud Barak**, is elected. Israel initiates talks with Syria.

2000

A peace summit at Camp David in the United States, under sponsorship of President Bill Clinton and attended by PLO President Yasir Arafat and Israeli Prime Minister Ehud Barak, ends without agreement after two weeks of intensive negotiations. PLO is offered 98% of Palestinian lands, but Arafat rejects deal. Palestinians and Israeli accused each other of intransigence, but promised to continue working towards a permanent peace agreement.

Ariel Sharon, the leader of the right-wing Israeli opposition, visits the Temple Mount, known to Muslims as the Haram al-Sharif (Noble Sanctuary). Against a background of the failure of the peace process, the visit sparks off a spiral of violence, **the Second Intifada**, that leaves more than 300 dead by the end of the year.

2001

Right-wing Ariel Sharon sweeps to power in Israel's prime ministerial election. Sharon uses his victory speech to call for a government of national unity to bring peace to the Middle East.

"Road map" for peace drafted by the **Middle East Quartet** — The United States, the European Union, the United Nations and Russia.

2004

Arafat dies. **Mahmoud Abbas**, a moderate **Fatah** leader, becomes Palestinian president after landslide elections.

Sept 2005

Israel pulls troops and settlers out of Gaza Strip after 38 years.

2006

Islamist **Hamas** wins parliamentary elections and takes control of **Gaza Strip**. Hamas is listed by European Union and the United States as a terrorist group, prompting Western sanctions and factional fighting with Abbas's **Fatah**, which controls the West Bank.

2008

Israel enters Gaza Strip to find and destroy workshops that are making and firing missiles into Northern Israel. The workshops are operated by the Iranian-backed **Hizbullah** group.

AIM:

**WHY DID THE U.S. LAUNCH A
WAR IN THE PERSIAN GULF
WAR OF 1991?**

I. Background

- “Mesopotamia” is an ancient land.
- Part of the Ottoman Empire from early 1500s to end of World War I.
- Britain had “mandate” over Iraq after WWI.
- Independent in early 1920s. OIL DISCOVERED.
- Turbulence and instability for most of 20th century.
- 1979 – strongman SADDAM HUSSEIN comes to power.
- 1980 – 1988: war between Iran and Iraq.



Iraq touches key countries in the Middle East.

Borders several oil-producing nations.

Is an oil-producing nation.

Saudi Arabia and Turkey are U.S. allies.

II. Saddam Hussein's Brutal Rule

- Suppression of internal dissent and political activity.
- One-party state with Saddam Hussein as dictator.
- Iraq has ambitions to build nuclear weapons.
- But U.S. helps Iraq in its war against Iran.

Enduring Issues:

Violations of
Human Rights

Conflict

III. 1990 – The Fateful Year

- August: Claiming a territorial dispute, Iraq invades neighboring Kuwait and quickly conquers it.
- U.S. and United Nations demand immediate withdrawal.

IV. The U.S. Gears Up for War

- August – December 1990: U.S. attempts to negotiate a settlement, but Iraq does not leave Kuwait.
- U.N. authorizes use of force.
- U.S. and 50 other nations form a coalition (grouping) to provide military force.
- Coalition troops pour into Iraq – over 500,000 total.

Enduring
Issues:

Security

Conflict

V. January 1991: War Begins

- Massive air attacks by U.S. and allies on Iraq.

- Coalition forces pound Iraq from the air.
- Iraq fires missiles at Israel, hoping to widen the war.

VI. A Swift and Decisive Invasion of Iraq

- February, 1991: Coalition forces sweep into Iraq and in 100 hours seize territory and liberate Kuwait.
- Untold numbers of Iraqis are killed.
- Oil wells set on fire by retreating Iraqi forces.
- Ground war is over in four days.
- But many coalition forces exposed to chemicals from oil well fires and possible chemical weapons.

Enduring Issues:

Power

Conflict

Security

VII. Aftermath

- Coalition forces withdraw from Iraq – no intent to keep territory.
- Saddam Hussein remains in power.
- U.N. sanctions govern Iraq's ability to sell oil.
- U.S. says it has “kicked the Vietnam Syndrome” by decisively winning a war.

AIM:

To what extent was the Soviet Union's war in Afghanistan a "Vietnam-style conflict"?

Do now: Write down two things you recall about the Vietnam War

I. Background



- Landlocked nation
- Borders six countries
- Mostly mountainous
- Many ethnic groups
- People known as fierce and independent

II. “The Great Game:” Britain, Russia and Afghanistan



A cartoon showing Afghanistan between the Russian Bear and the British Lion

- For most of the 1800s, Afghanistan was the object of “The Great Game” between the Great Powers of Europe.
- Strategic location between Iran and China and India.
- But not conquered by any power.

III. Afghanistan in the Twentieth Century



Young women in Afghanistan in the 1960s

- Relative stability until the 1970s under a monarchy.
- Some foreign investment.
- 1973 – Overthrow of the monarchy and new government has close ties to the Soviet Union.
- 1978 – Coup by communists brings a pro-Soviet government into power.

IV. The Fateful Year: 1979



Soviet forces in Afghanistan would eventually total 100,000.

- Pro-Soviet communist government comes under pressure and begins to weaken.
- Soviet Union provides massive aid.
- Soviet Union, fearing Iranian-style Islamist revolution, decides to invade.
- Soviet Union invades by land and air and seizes the capital, Kabul.
- World is shocked.

V. The Resistance Forms: the Mujahideen



- Resistance fighters, **Mujahideen** (“those engaged in jihad”) quickly form militias to battle Soviet troops and the pro-Soviet government.
- Mujahideen get money and arms from U.S., Pakistan, and Saudi Arabia.
- In the first sixth months of the conflict, Soviets send 80,000 troops.

VI. A Bitter War: 1979 - 1989

- Mujahideen are fierce fighters.
- Soviets unable to deliver “knockout blow.”
- Soviet troops become demoralized – leads to poor discipline and drug use.
- U.S. continues to supply Mujahideen with weapons.
- 1989 – withdrawal of last Soviet troops.
- Soviet version of Vietnam??

VII. The Legacy of the War in Afghanistan

- Al-Qaeda (“the cause”) is formed – terrorist group.
- Many Mujahideen, including Osama bin Laden, join Al-Qaeda.
- Formation of the Taliban by radical Afghan students – strict Muslim law.
- Soviet Union weakened and humbled – the limits of military power.
- Taliban comes to power in Afghanistan in 1996.
- Continued instability in Afghanistan.
- Defeat is a factor in the fall of the Soviet Union in 1991.

The People's Republic of China — 1976 to the Present

The Emergence of Deng Xiaoping

Mao Zedong died in 1976, leaving behind a China that was in economic and social chaos after a decade of the Cultural Revolution. Though it was “officially” ended in the late 1960s, many universities failed to reopen, industry operated at only a fraction of capacity, and agriculture remained very inefficient.

After Mao died, no clear leader emerged until 1978, when **Deng Xiaoping** became General Secretary of the Communist Party. He was born in 1904 into a middle-class family and later studied in France. Deng was a veteran of the Long March (1934-5).

His willingness to consider non-Marxist ideas led him to be purged from the Communist Party during the 1930s. He was later reinstated and occupied a number of positions after the Communists took power in 1949.

In the 1950s, Deng expressed skepticism of Mao's central planning, which had led to chaos and famine. In a meeting in 1961, Deng noted:

"I don't care if it's a white cat or a black cat. It's a good cat as long as it catches mice."

This was interpreted as Deng's emphasis that economic development should take precedence over ideology.

Like many other high-ranking Party officials, Deng was purged during the Cultural Revolution (1966-69). Deng's family was also targeted. In 1968, Deng's son, Deng Pufang, a student at Beijing University, was thrown out of a third-story window by Red Guards. He survived (but was paraplegic) and today is China's leading advocate of rights for the handicapped.

Deng was called out of his exile at a tractor factory by Zhou Enlai in 1973. Zhou Enlai died in early 1976, and Mao died in September, 1976. Mao's handpicked successor (two earlier 'heirs' had been purged and were killed) was not very forceful, and Mao's widow and three close associates (“the **Gang of Four**”) tried to exert control. They, too, were purged (and sentenced to death).

In 1978, Deng took over (although Mao's successor still held the formal leadership titles). In 1979, Deng visited the United States, and formal diplomatic relations (which had been cut in 1949) were restored. The United States continued to have diplomatic relations with, and give military support to, the **Republic of China** (on the island of Taiwan), which was still under the rule of the **KMT**.

The “Four Modernizations”

Deng and his moderate allies led China on a course of more open political and economic relations with the world after the early 1980s. Deng's policy was one of promoting China's economic growth, even at the compromise of some principles of communist economics.

He was one of the architects of the “**Four Modernizations**” program, which set a course of improving (1) agriculture; (2) industry; (3) science and technology (4) and the military.

The goal of this national program was to have China achieve the status of a world economic power by 2000.

“We will unswervingly follow a policy of opening to the outside world and actively increase exchanges with foreign countries on the basis of equality and mutual benefit. At the same time, we will keep clear heads, firmly resist corrosion by decadent ideas from abroad and never permit the bourgeois way of life to spread to our country.”

(Deng’s Opening Speech at the Twelfth National Congress of the Communist Party of China, 1982)

The “Second Revolution”

China created a number of “special economic zones,” where foreign companies and nations could invest. The collective farms — which had proved disastrous and led to famine — were dismantled and land was divided up for use by families, who paid their rent in crops.

Managers of state-owned businesses were given more in decision-making and urged to maximize profits. American and European companies began to open factories in China, where production costs were far lower. Many Chinese opened small stores and businesses, following Deng’s comment that

“To get rich is glorious.”

Food production and foreign investment skyrocketed — but so did crime, corruption, pollution, and the gap between rich and poor.

To curb population growth, China implemented a **one-child policy**, with heavy fines for a couple having a second child.

As of 2011, China is the world’s second-largest economy. Its military — always large — is now sophisticated (China exploded its first atomic bomb in 1964). The Chinese Navy is increasingly assertive in the waters off Taiwan and in the South China Sea.

In 1984, Britain agreed to cede **Hong Kong** (gained during the **Opium War** of 1842) back to China in 1997. Today, Hong Kong is a “special administrative unit” of China, with more democracy and openness than the rest of China, and China has promised that Hong Kong can continue to make its own laws until the year 2047.

China is the world’s largest market (over 1 billion people), and many American companies sell products in China and have products made there. China sends more graduate students (especially in science and engineering) to the U.S. than any other nation.

In summary, the Communist Party abandoned communism, and allowed people to gain material wealth, but did not allow increased democracy or freedom of expression.

The Tienanmen Square Massacre in 1989

By 1989, Deng was facing unforeseen consequences of his more open policies. The economic growth benefited many, but corruption was widespread and the government kept a tight grip on the media and all publishing. Dissidents were jailed, exiled, or thrown into psychiatric hospitals.

In April 1989, college students began to gather in Tienanmen (“Gate of Heaven”) Square in Beijing. They issued calls for greater democracy, denounced corruption in government and business, and urged dialogue between the government and the people.

The number of students, and their supporters, grew. The Communist Party grew concerned. Some party officials urged moderation, while others saw the student movement as a direct challenge to the government’s authority.

Deng sided with the hardliners and sent 250,000 army troops to surround the square. Most protesters left the area, but a tense two-week standoff between the remaining 3,000 people and the army followed.

The government realized that the longer the standoff went on, the more people would question the government’s handling of the uprising. On June 4, 1989, Deng ordered the troops to break up the demonstration.

No one knows exactly how many people were killed. Over 10,000 people were arrested. Many pro-democracy advocates fled the country or went into hiding. China insisted the violence was the work of a small conspiracy, but the television images of a man blocking the path of tanks, and the students’ “Goddess of Democracy” statue were seen around the world.

Deng was criticized by Western governments and hated by many at home, but he retained a full grip on the leadership. Free-market reforms accelerated in the 1990s. In 1995, Deng withdrew from public life, and died in 1997.

China Under Jiang Zemin and Hu Jintao

After Deng’s death, **Jiang Zemin**, who had headed the military commission and the People’s Congress became General Secretary of the Communist Party and then president.

During Jiang’s presidency, China’s economy flourished, and China became a member of the World trade Organization. He invented the term “socialist market economy” and stated that despite the capitalist turn, the Communist Party still represented the people.

In 1996, China held military exercises that simulated an invasion of Taiwan. In response, the U.S. sent several aircraft carriers to the Straits of Taiwan. The issue of mainland-Taiwan unification remains unsolved.

In 1997, The British colony of Hong Kong was transferred to China. This ended over 150 years of British rule there. Today, Hong Kong is semi-autonomous, with its own government, but is considered a special administrative unit of China. People there worry that China will eventually shut down the government and replace it with direct rule from Beijing.

Jiang retired in 2004 and was succeeded by **Hu Jintao**. China's economy continued to grow at a double-digit pace. The 2008 Olympics allowed China to show the world its progress. Today, China is building an extensive network of high-speed railroads. In 1998, it became the third nation to put a human in space. China is giving huge amounts of foreign aid to nations in Africa and Asia, and is friendly with nations that are not on good terms with the U.S. (such as Iran and North Korea).

China Today

China has the world's second-largest economy. It has a fast-growing military with increasingly sophisticated technology. While there is an enormous gap between China's wealthy and the poor, China is undoubtedly on a firmer economic footing than it was at the beginning of the modernization program.

In 2012, Hu Jintao retired and was replaced by **Xi Jinping**. Xi holds all of the important offices (Communist Party and military) and, while China has grown tremendously, Xi has shown authoritarian tendencies. He ended the two-term tradition of earlier post-Mao leaders and has not indicated when he might step down.

The Collapse of Communist Regimes in Eastern Europe – 1989

Even before the collapse of the Soviet Union in 1989, discontent in Eastern Europe had reached a boiling point, and the countries behind the “iron curtain” demanded change.

A New Pope Brings Change and Hope

The “beginning of the end” might be traced back to the election of the first non-Italian pope in over 400 years in 1978. Cardinal Karol Wojtyla had seen the brutalities of WWII and was not only a priest, but also a playwright and poet. When he was elected pope (and took the name of **John Paul II** – John Paul I, elected earlier that year, died 33 days into his papacy!).

Pope John Paul II’s first trip abroad was to his native Poland, in the spring of 1979. As John Gaddis, an American professor who studies the Cold War noted:

When John Paul II kissed the ground at the Warsaw airport on June 2, 1979, he began the process by which communism in Poland—and ultimately everywhere—would come to an end.

At an enormous rally in Warsaw, the new pope told his countrymen: “Do not be afraid; Let your spirit descend, and renew the face of the earth.” The pope energized Poles, and his message was interpreted as a criticism of communism.

The Solidarity Union in Poland – 1980-1990

In August 1980, workers at the giant Lenin Shipyard in the port city of Gdansk, Poland, went on strike. They locked themselves inside the shipyard and formed a union, called **Solidarity**. They demanded that the government recognize the union. The leader was a shipyard electrician named **Lech Walesa** (“Walensa”).

After a standoff, the military leader (and communist chief) of Poland, **Gen. Jaruzelski** (“Yaruzelski”) recognized Solidarity and allowed it to function as an independent union. By mid-1981, it had 10 million members.

Fearful that the Soviet Union would invade (as it has done in Hungary in 1956 and Czechoslovakia in 1968), Jaruzelski declared **martial law** in December 1981. Walesa and other union leaders were rounded up, and the union was declared illegal. Nonetheless, it continued to operate in secret.

In 1983, after being imprisoned for two years, Walesa was awarded the Nobel Peace Prize. Fearful that he would not be able to return to Poland, Walesa did not accept the prize in person.

The government lifted martial law in 1983, but the Polish economy limped along, and Solidarity remained outlawed. By 1988, the country was in serious trouble, and the

government opened talks with Solidarity. In 1989, Solidarity was legalized. After parliamentary elections, non-Communists were invited to join the government. *Also in 1989, the world watched in horror as the communist government of China crushed the pro-democracy movement in Tienanmen Square.*

In 1990, Jaruzelski's powers were diminished. A free election brought Lech Walesa to the presidency. Jaruzelski retired, and was not prosecuted by the government.

Revolutions of 1989

NATION	ACTIONS	RESULT
Hungary	May 1989 – Hungary opened the fence on its border with Austria, leading thousands to flee. The Communist Party passed reform legislation and then ceased to exist.	Hungary is a stable, democratic country with a thriving economy.
East Germany	People began to go to West Germany through the now-free Hungary-Austria border. The hard-line Communist government tried to crack down. Troops refused orders to crack down. November – millions gather near Berlin Wall, and the wall is torn down.	East and West Germany reunited 1990. Former East Germany remains poorer and less developed than western part of the country. Berlin is again the capital of a unified Germany.
Czechoslovakia	November – December: Huge demonstrations call for democracy. The Communist Party voluntary steps down.	The “Velvet Revolution” created a non-communist state with no violence. The nation eventually underwent a ‘friendly divorce’ and became the Czech Republic and Slovakia

Bulgaria	Once the most staunch of the Eastern European satellite nations, protests in late 1989 led to a transfer of power from the now-weak Communist party to democratic forces	Bulgaria is a developing country, though its economy is smaller than that of other Eastern European nations.
Romania	The country was under the iron grip of Stalin-like leader, Nicolae Ceausescu (“chow-chess-ku”) and his feared secret police. He had been in power since 1965. December – a revolt in the second-largest city spread to Bucharest, the capital. Troops battled with protestors, leading to many deaths.	Ceausescu and his hated and feared wife, Elena, were captured, and after a two-hour trial, were executed. Pictures were shown on TV. <i>This was the most violent of the 1989 revolutions.</i>

MIKHAIL GORBACHEV AND THE END OF THE SOVIET UNION

In March 1985, **Mikhail Gorbachev** was chosen as general secretary of the Communist Party and began working on a series of arms control initiatives. In 1987, Gorbachev attempted to invigorate the stagnant Soviet economy, which had been sluggish for years due to obsolescent manufacturing technology, inefficient production methods, and over-commitment to the military industry.

Glasnost and Perestroika

By initiating the reforms known as **glasnost** (the Russian word for publicity but is more commonly translated as openness) and **perestroika** (restructuring). Gorbachev's reforms aimed to reduce the power of government bureaucracy, limit corruption, relax government controls over the economy, and revitalize the spirit of democracy within the Communist Party. In doing this, Gorbachev intended to reinvigorate the Communist Party and strengthen the Soviet Union.

The reforms produced other results, however. One was a series of vigorous protest movements both within Russia and among the leaders of the Central Asian and Eastern European nations that were Soviet **satellite states**. The new economic programs angered conservatives, who feared for the communist system, and they were they drastic enough for liberals, who wanted an immediate opening to the capitalist world. Economic dislocations were frequent, further fanning the discontent of the populace.

Even as the tide of reform grew within the country, change remained slow, and reformers grew restless. The leaders of the various Soviet republics fought for a greater share of power, which forced Gorbachev to draft a treaty of alliance that would alter the power structure within the central government. Gorbachev was warned of a possible coup attempt by hard-line Communist officials who opposed the measure because they feared the loss of their jobs and political power. However, he proceeded with his plans to vacation in the Crimea before meeting with the leaders of the republics, including **Boris Yeltsin**, the president of Russia.

A Failed Coup Spurs the Demise of the Soviet Union

Widespread uncertainty about the future of the Soviet Union was heightened in 1991 by the failed Soviet coup against Gorbachev. On August 18, 1991, Mikhail Gorbachev, the leader of the Soviet Union, was placed under house arrest when eight high-ranking government officials tried to take control of the Kremlin to allow the Soviet Communist Party to implement necessary procedures to block any changes to the government. The "State Committee of Emergency" composed of eight high-level officials (including the head of the KGB and the defense minister) placed Gorbachev under house arrest.

The coup leaders ordered thousands of troops into Moscow to keep the peace. People pleaded with soldiers and blocked tanks. Soldiers failed to arrest Yeltsin, who proceeded to lead a resistance movement.

The Rise of Boris Yeltsin

When tanks entered the city, Yeltsin mobilized the citizens, climbed atop a tank in front of 20,000 protesters, and declared the coup unconstitutional. He then ordered a general strike and proclaimed himself the "Guardian of Democracy." When the troops threw their support behind Yeltsin, the members of the so-called Gang of Eight realized that their efforts had failed. They tried to arrange a meeting with Gorbachev, but he refused to talk with them.

The attempted coup lasted three days. By the end of August, Yeltsin issued a decree that suspended the activities of the Communist Party, and the government seized all party records.

Within the next few months, negotiations continued over the transfer of power from the Soviet Union to the republics. On December 21, 1991, the collapse of the Soviet Union was complete.

Four days later, on Christmas Day 1991, Gorbachev, the last leader of the Soviet Union, resigned from office, and the former Soviet Union formed a new 11-member **Commonwealth of Independent States**. The Western governments supported Yeltsin, who became the leading political figure in the new CIS.

In 1991, the changes begun with the creation of the congresses culminated when the post of president of the Russian Federation was created to head the executive branch of government and to be nominated by popular vote. Receiving 61% of the vote, Yeltsin won the presidency in May 1991 to become Russia's first democratically elected leader.

Yeltsin encountered numerous obstacles in his campaign to reform Russian society and the economy, notably from hard-liners, former communists, and nationalists. His economic **“shock therapy”** involved privatization of government industries (with insiders often getting the lion's share of stock), removal of artificial price controls, and an end of state subsidies to money-losing government enterprises.

Despite crushing an October 1993 insurrection by Soviet-era parliamentarians, who seized the parliament building, Yeltsin continued to face resistance from a legislature whose hard-line majority reflected a growing public anxiety over the disorganization, lawlessness, and financial insecurity of Western-style reforms.

Nevertheless, he was reelected to a second term in 1996, defeating nine challengers. Largely perceived as a weak ruler by a society historically cynical about politics in general, Yeltsin remained unable to fill the void left by the demise of the Communist Party and the central authority it once enforced. His declining health caused considerable speculation about his ability to control Russia's volatile political and economic situation, and he announced in September 1997 that he would not seek another term in the elections of 2000. He then surprised Russia and the world on December 31, 1999 by announcing that he would step down from the presidency that day.

In his farewell speech, Yeltsin apologized for not achieving all of his goals for Russia: “I want to ask you for forgiveness, because many of our hopes have not come true, because what we thought would be easy turned out to be painfully difficult. I ask you to forgive me for not fulfilling some hopes of those people who believed that we would be able to jump from the gray, stagnating, totalitarian past into a bright, rich and civilized future in one go.”

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The Putin Years, 2000-???

Yeltsin designated Prime Minister **Vladimir Putin** (a former KGB operative) as his chosen successor to serve as acting president until March 2000 national elections.

While Putin did not win March 2000 presidential elections by as large a margin as analysts had predicted, he easily defeated his closest challenger, the leader of the Communist Party.

Putin has been in power [for a brief period he served as prime minister while his hand-picked associate was president] since 2000.

Putin is an authoritarian leader and has cut back protections for free speech and a free press. He has strengthened the role of the Orthodox Church in Russian life, and he has voiced his fondness for the days when the Soviet Union was a mighty and feared world power. He is considered by many to be a latter-day "czar" who craves autocratic power.

How long he will remain in office is anyone's guess.



The Chechen capital, Grozny, after being bombed

THE HISTORY OF THE MODERN MIDDLE EAST

The Early Zionist Movement

Zionism is a Jewish nationalist movement that dates from the 19th century. The foremost goal of Zionism, the creation of a Jewish homeland, was achieved with the founding of the state of Israel in 1948.

In the mid-1800s, Jewish intellectuals, after suffering and failing to gain complete acceptance into the European social structures where they lived, began to support the idea that Jews should settle in the region near Jerusalem (the name comes from Mount Zion, one of the hills surrounding Jerusalem)

Jews in Russia had particularly hard lives. Official anti-Semitism, encouraged by czars and carried out by local officials, had resulted in the crowding of Jews into the “pale of settlement” and exclusion from national life. Jews lived in their own communities (called “shtetls” in Yiddish) and spoke Yiddish, a dialect derived from German. In the mid-19th century, the Russian government all but sanctioned pogroms, bloody grass-roots revolts aimed at Jews. That violence resulted in many Jews escaping to Western Europe and the United States.

The wave of migration began in 1881 as thousands of Jewish immigrants began to pour out of Russia into “the Holy Land” (then part of the Ottoman Empire), which they hoped would become a national homeland. Most of them settled in the cities of Jaffa, Haifa, and the areas surrounding Jerusalem, although some settlers became farmers, determined to make the region agriculturally self-sufficient. Baron Edmund de Rothschild, a member of one of Europe’s richest families, invested huge amounts of money in the agricultural communities, purchasing land, organizing training, and instituting factories to process the agricultural products. In 1900, he transferred the settlements he had founded to the Jewish Colonization Society. In 1909, a new city Tel Aviv (the “Hill of Spring” in Hebrew) was founded. Eleazar Ben-Yehuda, a scholar, set out to transform biblical Hebrew into a modern language that would be used by all Jews.

Herzl and “The Jewish State”

Theodor Herzl was a thoroughly assimilated Jew in Austria. A journalist, he watched with disbelief the anti-Semitism that gripped France in the wake of the Dreyfuss case (a Jewish army officer, Alfred Dreyfuss, was wrongly convicted of espionage and sent to the infamous “Devil’s Island” prison). Herzl realized that the Jews of the world needed their own homeland. In his book *Der Judenstat* (“The Jewish State”), he wrote, “If you will it, it is no dream.” In August 1897, he convened the first Zionist Congress in Switzerland (striving to make the meeting as sophisticated and respectable as possible, Herzl made all attendees wear white-tie evening clothes). The constitution written at the first Congress stated, “Zionism strives to create for the Jewish people a home in Palestine secured by public law.” In 1903, after years of negotiations with the British government, Herzl convinced the United Kingdom of the legitimacy of a Jewish state, and Britain offered 6,000 square miles in the African colony of Uganda. Uganda was certainly not “The Promised Land” but some Zionists believed the British offer was the Jews’ best opportunity. However, negotiations with Britain ended at Herzl’s early death at the age of 44 in 1904 (when Israel was founded, his remains were moved there and he was reburied with state honors).

The Interwar Years

The death of Herzl and the onset of World War I contributed to a temporary halt in the Zionist movement. But with the end of the war (and the dissolution of the Ottoman Empire), new opportunities arose.

Lord Rothschild pressed Britain’s foreign minister, **Arthur Balfour**, to issue a commitment on the part of the British to assist the Zionist cause. On November 2, 1917, Balfour wrote to Rothschild. Known as **The Balfour Proclamation**, this letter conveyed Britain’s “sympathy with Jewish Zionist aspirations.” Balfour noted: “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.”

But, he added, it must be “clearly understood that nothing shall be done which may prejudice the civil and religious rights of existing non-Jewish communities in Palestine.”

Thus, Balfour was promising to promote the creation of a Jewish homeland, while insisting that any objections to such an effort would have equal weight.

After the war, the League of Nations adopted the substance of the Balfour Declaration (in 1922) by issuing the **Palestinian Mandate** to Britain. The areas of Palestine, Iraq, and Transjordan came under British control.

Between 1922 and 1939, the Jewish population in Palestine increased to 30% of the total population, or about 450,000 people. But balancing the demands of Zionists and native Arabs proved difficult. Many people in Palestine expected Britain to reward them with a state in return for their rebellion against the Ottoman Empire in World War I.

Tension increased through the 1930s with anti-British riots by both Jews and Arabs. In April 1936, Arab attacks and the murder of two Jewish settlers, coupled with the general strike called by the Arab Higher Committee, heralded a more coordinated Arab response. The general strike called for a cessation of the payment of taxes and essentially shut down all government functions. In addition, there was a ban on land sales to Jews and a call for the immediate halt of Jewish immigration. A state of emergency was declared by the British on June 12, 1936. The Arabs accepted the British offer of convening the **Peel Commission**, chaired by Lord Robert Peel, to investigate their grievances.

However, the partition of Palestine recommended by Peel in July 1937 was unacceptable to both Arabs and Jews and prompted a serious resurgence of Arab unrest in the form of full-scale guerrilla warfare. British soldiers and administrators in Palestine came under attack. To protect themselves, Jewish settlers formed **the Haganah** (self-defense force). With an infusion of troops, Britain managed to put down the Arab revolts. In early 1939, at a conference in London, Britain stated its goal of creating a Palestinian Arab state. But World War II broke out later that year, and the demands of both Arabs and Zionists were put on hold as Britain struggled for its survival.

In 1945, representatives of 8 Arab nations (and representatives from Palestine) formed the Arab League. The stated goal was to promote unification of the Arab world and diminish the role of the traditional colonial powers, France and Britain, in the Middle East. The Arab League understood the nationalist aspirations of Jews. In a founding document it noted:

The [League] declares its support of the cause of the Arabs of Palestine and its willingness to work for the achievement of their legitimate aim and the safeguarding of their just rights. The Committee also declares that it is second to none in regretting the woes which have been inflicted upon the Jews of Europe by European dictatorial states. *But the question of these Jews should not be confused with Zionism, for there can be no greater injustice and aggression than solving the problem of the Jews of Europe by another injustice, i.e., by inflicting injustice on the Arabs of Palestine of various religions and denominations.*

The Creation of Israel

After the war, with the full horror of the Holocaust dawning on the world, the Jews in Palestine stepped up their demands for independence. They turned to armed action (which they deemed “freedom-fighting” and the British considered terrorism). In addition to the Haganah, a militarist group known as the Irgun staged strikes against British infrastructure (including a bomb attack on the King David Hotel in Jerusalem, headquarters of the British governing authority).

The Jews of Palestine appealed to the United States, a new superpower with many Jewish voters in its large cities. Fundraising (and arms smuggling) among American Jews fortified and strengthened the Zionist cause.

The British, desiring to maintain good relations with the Arab nations (which had enormous reserves of oil) and angered by acts of Zionist terrorism in Palestine, wished to restrict Jewish

immigration to Palestine. The United States, however, favored an independent Jewish republic in Palestine. Finally, in 1947, the United Kingdom passed the problem on to the United Nations (UN). The UN Special Committee on Palestine (UNSCOP) recommended that Palestine be **partitioned** into Jewish and Arab territories with an international authority ruling Jerusalem.

The Zionists in Palestine accepted the offer. While it might have seemed less than ideal, the goal of a Jewish state was at hand. ***The Arab League immediately rejected the recommendation.*** The Arab nations felt that Jews did not have the fundamental right to live in Palestine (and, in particular, Jerusalem) based on their past history of oppression and biblical claim to the land. In addition, the territory that UNSCOP recommended for inclusion in a Jewish state included the valuable coast line and farm lands that the Arabs felt was out of proportion to the ratio of Jews and Arabs living in the region.

Nevertheless, the UN General Assembly approved the partition on November 29, 1947. The Palestinian Arabs, who accounted for 70% of the population and owned 92% of the land, were allocated only 47% of the country. Thirty-three countries, including the U.S. and the Soviet Union, voted in favor of the plan. Ten nations (including the newly independent India and Pakistan, along with the Arab states) voted against it. Britain and nine other nations abstained from voting.

The British soon pulled their occupying forces out of the region, and **David Ben-Gurion** (born David Grun in Poland, he renamed himself; Ben-Gurion means “Lion cub”), the leader of the largest Zionist bloc in Palestine, the Labor Party, proclaimed the State of Israel on May 14, 1948. The United States (President Truman overruled the State Department, which was pro-Arab and employed many people with ties to the oil companies) and the Soviet Union immediately recognized the new nation. The Arab League, on the other hand, had declared a *jihad*, or holy war, against the Jews in Palestine. Zionists had achieved their homeland, but that victory set the stage for decades of conflict between Israelis and Palestinians — a conflict that continues to this day.

Jerusalem

When the United Nations took up the Palestine question in 1947, it recommended that all of Jerusalem be internationalized. The Jewish Agency (the *de facto* government of Jewish Palestine), after much soul-searching, agreed to accept internationalization in the hope that in the short-run it would protect the city from bloodshed and the new state from conflict. The Arab states were as bitterly opposed to the internationalization of Jerusalem as they were to the rest of the partition plan. Prime Minister David Ben-Gurion subsequently declared that Israel would no longer accept the internationalization of Jerusalem.

In May 1948, Jordan invaded and occupied east Jerusalem, dividing the city for the first time in its history, and driving thousands of Jews — whose families had lived in the city for centuries — into exile. For the next 19 years, the city was split, with Israel establishing its capital in western Jerusalem and Jordan occupying the eastern section, which included the Old City and most religious shrines.

When Israel captured East Jerusalem in the Six-Day War and reunited the city, it noted:

The State of Israel will guarantee freedom of religion and conscience, of language, education and culture. It will safeguard the Holy Places of all religions. It will be loyal to the principles of the United Nations Charter. [Israel will] honor all the existing rights regarding the holy places and sacred buildings in Jerusalem, assure freedom of worship and free access...to all the holy sites under its control....

At the same time we see fit to state that Jewish Jerusalem is an organic, inseparable part of the State of Israel, just as it is an integral part of Jewish history and belief....Jerusalem is the heart of the State of Israel. We are proud of the fact that Jerusalem is also sacred to other religions, and will gladly provide access to their holy places and enable them to worship as and where they please, cooperating with the U.N. to guarantee this.

Rwanda: How the genocide happened

Between April and June 1994, an estimated 800,000 Rwandans were killed in the space of 100 days.

Most of the dead were Tutsis - and most of those who perpetrated the violence were Hutus.

Even for a country with such a turbulent history as Rwanda, the scale and speed of the slaughter left its people reeling.

The genocide was sparked by the death of the Rwandan President Juvenal Habyarimana, a Hutu, when his plane was shot down above Kigali airport on 6 April 1994.

A French judge has blamed current Rwandan President, Paul Kagame - at the time the leader of a Tutsi rebel group - and some of his close associates for carrying out the rocket attack.

Mr Kagame vehemently denies this and says it was the work of Hutu extremists, in order to provide a pretext to carry out their well-laid plans to exterminate the Tutsi community.

Whoever was responsible, within hours a campaign of violence spread from the capital throughout the country, and did not subside until three months later.

But the death of the president was by no means the only cause of Africa's largest genocide in modern times.

History of violence

Ethnic tension in Rwanda is nothing new. There have been always been disagreements between the majority Hutus and minority Tutsis, but the animosity between them has grown substantially since the colon

ial period.

1994: RWANDA'S GENOCIDE

- 6 April: President Habyarimana killed in plane explosion
- April - July: Some 800,000 Tutsis and moderate Hutus killed
- July: Tutsi-led rebel movement RPF captures the capital Kigali
- July: Two million Hutus flee to Zaire, now DR Congo

The two ethnic groups are actually very similar - they speak the same language, inhabit the same areas and follow the same traditions.

However, Tutsis are often taller and thinner than Hutus, with some saying their origins lie in Ethiopia.

During the genocide, the bodies of Tutsis were thrown into rivers, with their killers saying they were being sent back to Ethiopia.

When the Belgian colonists arrived in 1916, they produced identity cards classifying people according to their ethnicity.

The Belgians considered the Tutsis to be superior to the Hutus. Not surprisingly, the Tutsis welcomed this idea, and for the next 20 years they enjoyed better jobs and educational opportunities than their neighbours.

Resentment among the Hutus gradually built up, culminating in a series of riots in 1959. More than 20,000 Tutsis were killed, and many more fled to the neighbouring countries of Burundi, Tanzania and Uganda.

When Belgium relinquished power and granted Rwanda independence in 1962, the Hutus took their place. Over subsequent decades, the Tutsis were portrayed as the scapegoats for every crisis.

Building up to genocide

This was still the case in the years before the genocide. The economic situation worsened and the incumbent president, Juvenal Habyarimana, began losing popularity.

At the same time, Tutsi refugees in Uganda - supported by some moderate Hutus - were forming the Rwandan Patriotic Front (RPF), led by Mr Kagame. Their aim was to overthrow Habyarimana and secure their right to return to their homeland.

Habyarimana chose to exploit this threat as a way to bring dissident Hutus back to his side, and Tutsis inside Rwanda were accused of being RPF collaborators.

In August 1993, after several attacks and months of negotiation, a peace accord was signed between Habyarimana and the RPF, but it did little to stop the continued unrest.

When Habyarimana's plane was shot down at the beginning of April 1994, it was the final nail in the coffin.

Exactly who killed the president - and with him the president of Burundi and many chief members of staff - has not been established.

Whoever was behind the killing its effect was both instantaneous and catastrophic.

Mass murder

In Kigali, the presidential guard immediately initiated a campaign of retribution. Leaders of the political opposition were murdered, and almost immediately, the slaughter of Tutsis and moderate Hutus began.

Within hours, recruits were dispatched all over the country to carry out a wave of slaughter.

The early organisers included military officials, politicians and businessmen, but soon many others joined in the mayhem.

Encouraged by the presidential guard and radio propaganda, an unofficial militia group called the Interahamwe (meaning those who attack together) was mobilised. At its peak, this group was 30,000-strong.

Soldiers and police officers encouraged ordinary citizens to take part. In some cases, Hutu civilians were forced to murder their Tutsi neighbours by military personnel.

Participants were often given incentives, such as money or food, and some were even told they could appropriate the land of the Tutsis they killed.

On the ground at least, the Rwandans were largely left alone by the international community. UN troops withdrew after the murder of 10 soldiers.

The day after Habyarimana's death, the RPF renewed their assault on government forces, and numerous attempts by the UN to negotiate a ceasefire came to nothing.

Aftermath

Finally, in July, the RPF captured Kigali. The government collapsed and the RPF declared a ceasefire.

As soon as it became apparent that the RPF was victorious, an estimated two million Hutus fled to Zaire (now the Democratic Republic of Congo).

These refugees include many who have since been implicated in the massacres.

At first, a multi-ethnic government was set up, with a Hutu, Pasteur Bizimungu as president and Mr Kagame as his deputy.

But the pair later fell out and Bizimungu was jailed on charges of inciting ethnic violence, while Mr Kagame became president.

Although the killing in Rwanda was over, the presence of Hutu militias in the Democratic Republic of Congo has led to years of conflict there, causing up to five million deaths.

Story from BBC NEWS:

<http://news.bbc.co.uk/go/pr/fr/-/2/hi/africa/1288230.stm>

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1. Israel's Astounding Victory in the Six-Day War Causes Problems

- Approximately 600,000 Palestinians lived in the captured territories.
- Arab countries reject recognition of Israel, reject any peace plan, and reject idea of negotiation.
- Israel's defense forces would have to police the new territories as an occupying power.
- Many countries of the world express disapproval of Israel's actions.
- **PALESTINE LIBERATION ORGANIZATION (PLO)**, formed in 1964, steps up terror attacks against Israel.

2. Some Voices in Israel Raise Concerns about the Occupation

- Some liberals believe Israel should not be an occupying power.
- Some worry how Israel can be a democratic state when it controls 600,000 (estimate) Palestinians who have fewer rights than Israelis.
- Some worry Israel has gotten a “swell head” from its military victories and will be less likely to agree to negotiations.
- What to do about rapid growth of Palestinian population – are Palestinians second-class, or will they be integrated into Israeli society (diminishing the Jewish population)?
- 1975: U.N. says, “Zionism is Racism.”

3. A Remarkable Event after the 1973 Yom Kippur War

- 1977 - Four years after the Yom Kippur war, Egyptian President ANWAR SADAT reaches out to Israel and says he wants peace. He is invited to speak at Israel's parliament.
- Sadat says peace depends on Israel's withdrawal from lands it seized in 1967 war.
- 1978 - U.S. President JIMMY CARTER seizes the initiative and invites Sadat and Israeli Prime Minister MENACHEM BEGIN to the U.S. to begin peace talks at CAMP DAVID (the president's weekend retreat house in Maryland).
- 1978 – After 2 weeks of negotiations, the three parties announce a peace plan – the CAMP DAVID ACCORDS (agreements) to end 30 years of war.



SADAT



BEGIN



CARTER

THE CAMP DAVID ACCORDS - 1978



4. ...But, it's a "Cold Peace" ...

- Despite opening of diplomatic relations, Israel and Egypt remained wary of each other, **AND PALESTINIAN ISSUE IS NOT SOLVED BY THIS PEACE TREATY.**
- 1981 – Sadat assassinated in Egypt by Muslim extremists.
- 1970s – Some Israelis begin to create “settlements” in the West Bank of the territories, increasing Israel-Palestinian tensions.
- Attacks on Israel by PLO continue.
- 1982 – Israel invades Lebanon in attempt to clear out PLO. World condemns Israel.

5. The 1980s – a Time of Turmoil

- Lebanon War (1982) – Israel invades Lebanon and becomes enmeshed in Lebanon's complicated politics.
- Israel is accused of war crimes based on its actions in two refugee camps.
- No peace with most other Arab states.
- 1987 – Palestinians furious about the occupation begin an uprising, the INTIFADA, involving noncompliance with Israeli law, riots, and violence.
- World opinion is very critical of Israel.

6. 1993: A breakthrough – Oslo Peace Accords

- 1993: After negotiations in Oslo, Norway, the PLO and Israel come to an agreement to allow the Palestinians in the Gaza Strip and the West Bank.
- PLO recognizes Israel.
- BUT – final status of Jerusalem is not settled.
- 1995: Israeli Prime Minister Yitzchak Rabin is assassinated by a right-wing extremist.
- In 2000, another rounds of talks produces no agreement, as the PLO rejects Israeli proposals.

7. Twenty-First Century: Change and No Change

- Second uprising (intifada) erupts in 2000.
- Palestinian Authority set up to administer affairs in West Bank.
- Continued terrorist attacks.
- Continued building of settlements by Israel in West Bank and Jerusalem area.
- 2007 – Explicitly anti-Israel group, Hamas, takes control of Gaza Strip after Israeli withdrawal; vows not to negotiate.
- 2008 – Israel invades Gaza to root out terrorists.

- 2010 – present: Right-wing government of Benjamin Netanyahu makes little gains in solving issues.
- 2017 – President Donald Trump and Netanyahu form tight bond; many worry peace process is permanently stalled.
- 2019 – Netanyahu says Israel may annex West Bank and Golan Heights as permanent parts of Israel.

WHERE DO WE GO FROM HERE?