

World History–Part 2

Course No. 2109310

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World History–Part 2

Course No. 2109310

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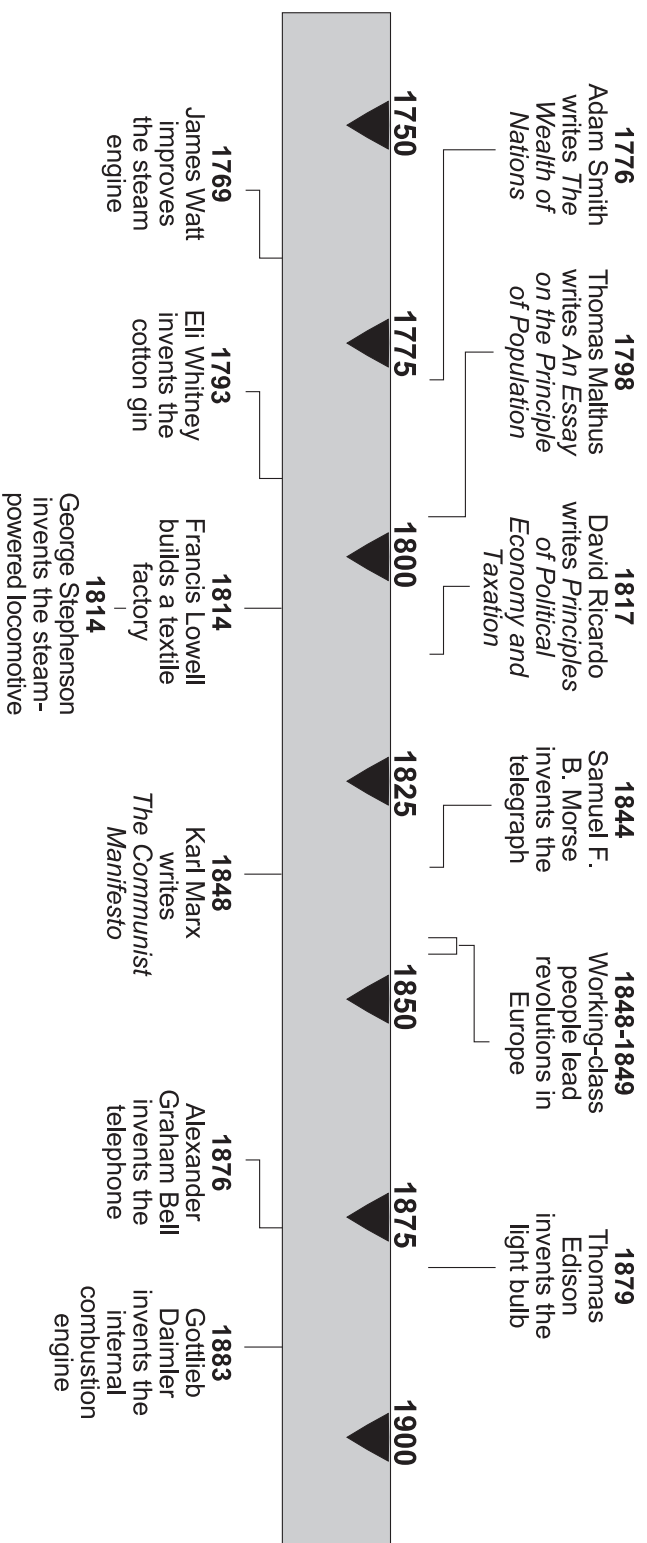
Unit 1: The Industrial Revolution (1750-1900)

This unit emphasizes the effects of the Industrial Revolution on Great Britain; its impact on political, economic, and social institutions; and how inventions and technological advancements affected the people of the time.

Unit Focus

- why the Industrial Revolution began in Great Britain
- changes in manufacturing, labor, agriculture, and communities caused by the Industrial Revolution
- working conditions in factories during the 19th and early 20th centuries
- Marx's philosophy of scientific socialism
- ways in which labor unions improved working conditions for factory workers

Unit 1 Timeline





Vocabulary

Use the vocabulary words and definitions below as a reference for this unit.

aristocrat a person of the upper class who had the most wealth and power

bourgeoisie wealthier city-dwellers such as lawyers, doctors, merchants, and the factory-owning middle class

capitalism an economic system in which land, factories, and other means of producing goods are privately owned and controlled by an individual or groups of individuals for a profit

communism a theory of government in which wealth and property are owned in common, and production and labor are shared equally among the people; in reality, the means of production and distribution are owned and controlled by the state

effective able to change something or make something happen

free enterprise the freedom to do business in a competitive market with little regulation or interference by government

immigrant a person who comes to live in a country in which he or she was not born



- imperialist (nation)** a country that has control over other countries or colonies
- industrialist** a person who owns, controls, or has an important position in the management of a business; factory owner
- industrialize** to set up or develop manufacturing plants and other businesses in an area or country
- laissez-faire** a French word meaning *let things alone* or *let the people do as they please*; a policy in which the government does not interfere in economic affairs
- manufacture** to make or process something by hand or by machine
- Marxism** a form of socialism in which workers own all land and all means of production (the final stage of socialism is communism)
- mercantilism** a government policy of controlling overseas markets
- production** the act of making or creating something
- proletariat** the urban working class
- reform** change made for the better
- sanitary** clean and germ-free



- socialism** a political and economic theory in which the means of production—factories, machines, and the land—are controlled by the government or society rather than individuals, and the profits are shared equally among all its citizens
- standard of living** a measure of the necessities and comforts available to a person or group
- strike** stopping of work or services by a group of people to protest certain conditions
- technology** the science that has to do with the mechanical or industrial arts
- textiles** woven materials
- union** a group of workers who join together to protect their interests and improve their working conditions
- ventilation** the circulation or exchange of air
- wage** payment for work done



The Industrial Revolution (1750-1900)

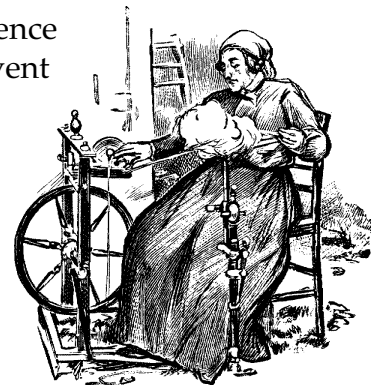
Changes in the Way People Work and Make Goods

We have studied the historical relationships between government and people. For example, during the French Revolution, many French people felt unfairly treated by their government. In response they rose up and overthrew their government. In 19th century Latin America, people fought to gain their independence from a foreign government that had gained control over them. In 19th century German Confederation, different states unified into a single larger country. Up to this point, the history you have studied has focused on *political* relationships.

In this unit, we will look at people and the *way they work*. When we think of where and how goods such as clothes or heavy machines are made, we imagine very large factories filled with big, noisy machines. Perhaps we think about cars being made on assembly lines, and each worker doing a single task on a car as it passes by. However, this is not the way that goods have always been made.

For thousands of years, there were no factories or fuel-powered machines. The men and women who made goods such as cloth or tools mainly used their hands. They may have used a spinning wheel to spin thread, but they powered the spinning wheel with their hands or feet—with their bodies. Craftsmen and other workers worked in small shops or even in their homes. However, during the *Industrial Revolution*, the way people produced goods changed, for the most part.

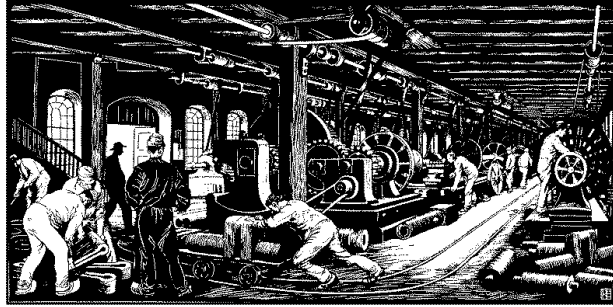
In the Industrial Revolution, people applied science and **technology** to their lives. They began to invent and build machines that did much of the work people once did. Rather than being *handmade*, many goods were now *machine-made*. Machine-made goods could be produced faster and at lower costs. Machines were also able to make some new goods which could not be made by hand. For example, machines made powerful weapons never seen before.



spinning wheel



The Industrial Revolution improved life for people who could *afford* the goods produced in the factories. These wealthier people usually did not work in the factories. Goods that made their daily lives easier were often readily available—there were few shortages. Countries also shipped their goods to foreign markets and so increased their wealth.



Factories were very cold in winter and very hot in summer. The work was often dangerous, and workers had no insurance and no rights.

The lives of those who worked in factories, however, often were not improved. The creation of the *factory system* drastically changed the way people worked. Men, women, and children worked long hours (up to 15 hours per day) in horrible working conditions. The factories usually had poor **ventilation**. Factories were very cold in winter and very hot in summer. Men, women, and children were paid very little for the work they did. The work was often dangerous, and workers had no insurance and no rights. Workers could be fired for little or no reason.

Two Groups, Two Interests

There were now two groups of people who had different interests. The **industrialists**—those people who owned or had an interest in factories—often did not want to pay workers a higher **wage** or improve working conditions. The *working class*—those who worked in the factories—wanted to be paid a higher *wage* and work in factories that did not damage their health. Governments often had to deal with the conflicting interests of these two groups.



industrialist

Factory workers throughout the 19th century grew more and more disgusted with the way in which they were treated. Even though the revolutions of 1848 were mostly failures, working-class people had sent a *message* to their governments. They were not going to put up with the poor treatment they were receiving. Workers began organizing themselves to put pressure on the *industrialists* and governments to improve their lives.



Practice

Answer the following using complete sentences.

1. Before the industrial revolution, where and how were most goods made? _____

2. How did the Industrial Revolution change the way people produced goods? _____

3. What were some disadvantages the Industrial Revolution created for workers? _____

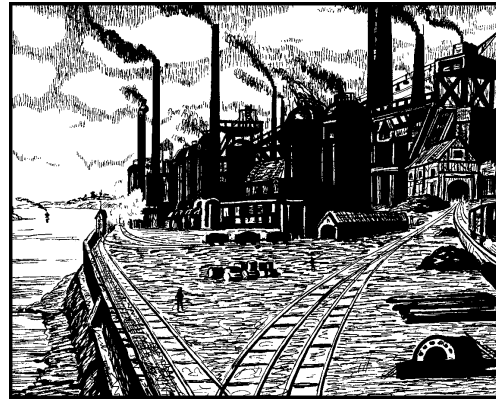
4. What two groups of people emerged from the Industrial Revolution and what were their different interests? _____



The Industrial Revolution Begins in Great Britain

The Industrial Revolution began in the mid-1700s in Great Britain. During the Industrial Revolution there was an increased output of goods made possible by machines and new inventions. Until the steam engine was invented, large machines were driven by water power. The need for fast-moving water to power machines meant that factories needed to be built near rivers or streams.

An early form of the steam engine was developed in 1705. In its earliest form, however, the steam engine could only pump water. This limited the engine's use. Coal miners used the steam-powered pump to remove water from mine shafts. In 1769 a Scottish engineer and inventor named James Watt made many improvements to the steam engine. Watt's steam engine could drive *manufacturing* machines such as spinning and weaving machines.



The need for fast-moving water to power machines meant that factories needed to be built near rivers.



James Watt

Watt's inventions changed the course of history. Machines driven by steam power began replacing machines run on waterpower. Before the steam engine, every factory that used waterpower had to be near rushing water. Now industrialists began building factories powered by steam engines all over Great Britain. The Industrial Revolution had begun. Factories could now produce goods quickly and cheaply. They soon replaced the small shop and home as the center of manufacturing.



The Technological Revolution In Great Britain			
Inventor	Year	Invention	Description
John Kay	1733	flying shuttle	Carried threads of yarn back and forth when the weaver pulled on a cord. Increased the productivity of weavers. Wider fabrics could be woven at a faster pace.
James Hargreaves	1764	spinning jenny	Increased the output of spinners; one spinner could work eight threads at one time.
Richard Arkwright	1769	water frame	Used waterpower to drive spinning wheels of a huge spinning machine.
James Watt	1769	improved steam engine	Used coal rather than waterpower to power machines in cotton mills.
Samuel Crompton	1779	spinning mule	Combined features of the spinning jenny and water frame, which made thread that was stronger, finer, and more consistent than earlier threads. This thread could be woven into muslin cloth.
Edmund Cartwright	1787	power loom	Run by waterpower, the power loom sped up weaving.
George Stephenson	1814	steam-powered locomotive	Traveled four miles per hour hauling coal; world's first railroad line—1821.
Sir Henry Bessemer	1856	Bessemer process	Improved process of making steel inexpensively from iron.

Other factors beside new inventions and power-driven machines were important in creating the Industrial Revolution. As you will see below, Great Britain was a country that had all the ingredients for an Industrial Revolution.

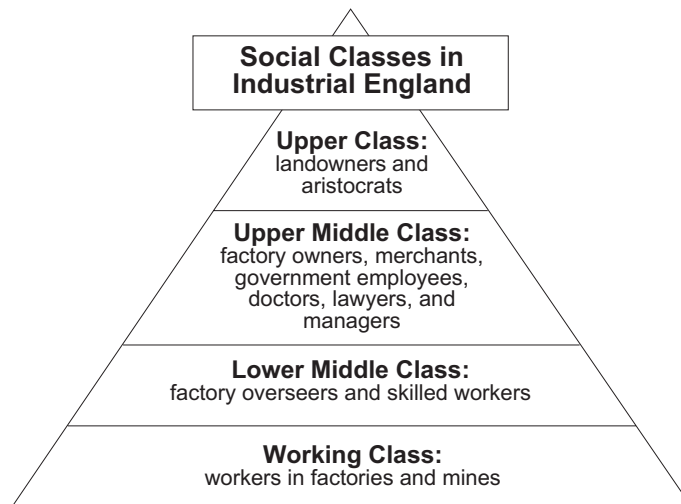
- Great Britain had many natural resources, especially coal. Coal is needed to produce power, which in turn powers machines.
- Great Britain had a large labor force, or many workers, to work in the factories.
- Great Britain had people with the money and knowledge to build and run factories.



- Great Britain, with its overseas empire, had ready markets in which to sell factory-made goods.
- The British government realized the profit that could be made from manufacturing goods; therefore, it passed laws to help and protect industry.

Social and Economic Changes

Until the Industrial Revolution, most members of society were peasants who worked on farms. Landowners and **aristocrats** had the most wealth and power. They occupied the top positions in society. The Industrial Revolution changed the entire structure of society.



After the Industrial Revolution, a new middle class emerged. This new class included some factory workers and merchants (industrialists) who became wealthier than some landowners and *aristocrats*. In order to be more like the upper class, many in the middle class used their new wealth to purchase large estates and live in high style. Social distinctions still divided these two wealthy classes of people. Landowners and aristocrats looked down on those who made their fortunes in the “vulgar business world.” It was not until the late 1800s that rich factory owners and merchants were considered the social equals of the landowning aristocrats. The landowners, or aristocrats, who had a powerful voice in running government were eventually joined by the new industrialists, or the capitalist class. These industrialists enjoyed the new lifestyle gained from the profits they made from goods **manufactured** in their factories.



A larger middle class emerged, including an upper and lower middle class.

The new wealth acquired by the upper middle class brought political influence. These new capitalists worked hard to stop government interference in business. They wanted their businesses and profits to grow. Gradually, a larger middle class emerged. It was neither rich nor poor. It included an upper and lower middle class.

The working class (factory workers) saw few improvements in their living and working conditions. They averaged 14 hours a day at their jobs, six days a week. They worked under horrible working conditions and lived in crowded city slums.

Laissez-faire and Free Enterprise

The capitalists influenced governments to pass laws making it easier for them to become wealthier. They persuaded governments to adopt a policy of **laissez-faire**. *Laissez-faire* is a French term meaning *let things alone* or *let people do as they please*. Laissez-faire is closely linked to **free enterprise**, an economic system in which people are free to conduct business with a minimum of government interference. Industrialists did not want governments to interfere with industrialism. Without government interference, industrialists would be free to use their wealth to control industry and its workers.

Laissez-faire also meant that a very simple rule would guide the economy. This rule was the *law of supply and demand*. The law of supply and demand states that the less there is of a particular good people want, the *more* money people will pay for it. Similarly, the more there is of a particular good, the *less* money people will be willing to pay for it. This law also applies to the value of workers' labor. If more workers were available for a job, the *less* the capitalist would need to pay them in wages. If fewer workers were available, the *more* wages a factory owner would have to pay for work done.

Laissez-faire was defended by Adam Smith, a Scottish economist and philosopher. In 1776, in his book *The Wealth of Nations*, Smith claimed that a free market would promote a growing economy. More goods would be produced at lower prices and would be affordable by everyone. Government, he claimed, should not interfere in the economy.

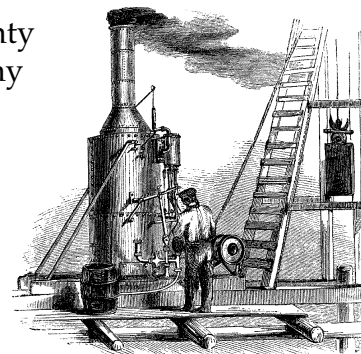


Thomas Malthus and David Ricardo, English economists, also believed in limiting government intervention in the economy. In 1798 Malthus wrote *An Essay on the Principle of Population*, in which he argued that population tended to increase more rapidly than the food supply. Therefore, without wars, famine, or disease to kill off extra people, most of the population was destined to be poor and miserable.

In 1817 David Ricardo explored the same ideas as Malthus in his book *Principles of Political Economy and Taxation*. He argued that there would always be a permanent class of poor people. In a market economy, he stated, if there were many workers and plentiful resources, then labor and resources would be cheap. If there were few workers and scarce resources, then labor and resources would be expensive. Wages for workers would be forced down as population increased. Laissez-faire thinkers were against efforts to help poor workers. Improving working conditions and making minimum wages laws would upset the free market system by lowering profits and the creation of wealth in society. In his *Iron Law of Wages*, Ricardo stated that when wages were high, families had more children. More children increased the supply of labor, which led to lower wages and higher unemployment. Malthus and Ricardo believed that the working class could not escape poverty.

Supply and Demand in Action

Fortunately for the industrialists, there were plenty of people who needed work in the factories. Many peasants used the recently built railroad and steamboat system in Great Britain to travel from their villages and towns to the big cities in search of work in the factories. With this plentiful *supply* of workers, factory owners were able to pay low wages.



steam engine

The industrialists also used the supply and demand rule to make large profits on the goods they produced. They sent most of their goods to overseas markets where goods were scarce. The scarcity of goods in these markets meant the industrialists could *demand* high prices. In addition, by sending many goods out of Great Britain, industrialists kept the *supply* of goods in the home markets scarce. Therefore, the price of most goods in Great Britain remained high.



Practice

Match each definition with the correct term. Write the letter on the line provided.

- | | | |
|-------|---|--------------------|
| _____ | 1. the circulation or exchange of air | A. aristocrat |
| _____ | 2. payment for work done | B. free enterprise |
| _____ | 3. to make or process something by hand or by machine | C. industrialize |
| _____ | 4. to set up or develop manufacturing plants and other businesses in an area or country | D. laissez-faire |
| _____ | 5. the science that has to do with the mechanical or industrial arts | E. manufacture |
| _____ | 6. a person of the upper class who had the most wealth and power | F. technology |
| _____ | 7. a French word meaning <i>let things alone</i> or <i>let the people do as they please</i> ; a policy in which the government does not interfere in economic affairs | G. ventilation |
| _____ | 8. the freedom to do business in a competitive market with little regulation or interference by government | H. wage |



Practice

Answer the following using complete sentences.

1. What kind of work did the peasant class do? _____

2. Which new class emerged during the Industrial Revolution? _____

3. Who made up the upper middle class? _____

4. How did the upper middle class compete with the upper class?

5. What social class was at the bottom in industrial England? _____

6. What is the policy of laissez-faire? _____

7. How did the policy of laissez-faire increase the power of capitalists?



8. What is the law of supply and demand? _____

9. How did industrialists keep the price of goods in Great Britain high?

10. What did laissez-faire economists believe was the fate of the working class? _____

11. Why did the economist Adam Smith defend the economic policy known as laissez-faire? _____

12. Why did Malthus and Ricardo believe that there would always be a permanent class of poor people? _____

13. Why were laissez-faire economists like Malthus and Ricardo against efforts to help the poor? _____



Results of the Industrial Revolution

Soon after the Industrial Revolution began in Europe, it spread to other parts of Europe and the United States. In 1789 Samuel Slater, a **textile** (cloth) worker from Great Britain, copied from memory the idea for building a spinning machine and opened a cotton mill in the United States. The American Eli Whitney's



Eli Whitney



Alexander Graham Bell

invention of the cotton gin, in 1793, aided the growth of the textile industry by making it easier to separate seeds from raw cotton, which increased the supply of cotton fibers. In 1814 Francis Lowell built a textile factory in a town in Massachusetts which was later renamed for him. He employed young women as mill workers to operate the textile machines.

This was one of the ways women began to enter into factory **production**.

By the mid-1800s, Germany, France, and the United States were rapidly becoming **industrialized**. The most important invention that helped these nations industrialize was the railroad. Throughout the 19th century, new inventions and new sources of power began to change industrialized countries into the modern nations we know today.



Samuel F. B. Morse

- Electricity became an important source of power in the 1840s.
- Samuel F. B. Morse invented the telegraph and in 1844 sent his famous message, "What hath God wrought!"
- A trans-Atlantic telegraph cable on the floor of the Atlantic Ocean connected the United States with Europe.
- Alexander Graham Bell invented the telephone in 1876.
- Thomas Edison invented the phonograph in 1877, the light bulb in 1879, and the motion picture camera in 1889.
- The internal combustion engine was invented by Gottlieb Daimler in 1883.



Thomas Edison



Most industrialized nations have experienced many changes caused by their own industrial revolutions. These changes can be grouped as economic, social, and political.

Changes Caused by the Industrial Revolution

Economic Changes

1. Machines replaced people in methods of production.
2. The *factory* replaced the *home* as the center of production.
3. The **standard of living** grew higher as more goods were produced.
4. Factory jobs tended to bore workers. Workers did the same thing every day and often *lost or never developed a sense of pride* in their work.
5. Workers grew dependent on owners. Owners could hire and fire workers for any reason.
6. Working *conditions* and *wages* were horrible.
7. Workers formed labor **unions**, an association of workers that pushed for benefits and **reform**. This was not an easy thing to do because labor *unions* were usually outlawed by the government. Many riots took place between **striking** union workers and the police.
8. Workers carried out *strikes* against owners. Workers refused to work until the owners met their *demands*. Strikes often turned into bloody battles.
9. *Trade* between countries increased.

Social Changes

1. The *standard of living* in the industrial countries grew higher and higher. Examples include Great Britain, the United States, and Germany.



2. Many farm workers moved to cities to get jobs in factories. Consequently, cities grew at a fast pace. In the United States, for example, many rural people (those who lived in the countryside) from the South moved to cities in the North. In addition, millions of **immigrants** came to the United States in search of jobs.
3. As cities grew, problems increased. Some problems included overcrowding, lack of housing, poor **sanitary** conditions, disease, and poverty. Today, these sections in urban areas are called *slums*.
4. *Women* and *children* entered the work force.

Political Changes

1. The land-owning class (*aristocrats*) was joined by the industrial class (*capitalists*) as the leaders of governments.
2. A *laissez-faire* policy took the place of **mercantilism**. Laissez-faire meant free trade without interference from the government. Mercantilism, or the government policy of controlling overseas markets, meant that nations were strengthened by government control of its economic interests.
3. The *right to vote* for both men and women was expanded.
4. The *industrialized* or *developed* countries quickly became the strongest powers of the world. Countries were either thought of as *developed* or *underdeveloped*. By the end of the 19th century, the United States replaced Great Britain as the leading industrial nation in the world. In the 20th century, the Industrial Revolution would spread to almost every part of the world.
5. New types of economic systems developed. For example, **capitalism** expanded in the United States; **socialism** in Great Britain and France; and **communism** in the Soviet Union.
6. As the Industrial Revolution expanded, industrial nations sought new markets for their goods in other parts of the world. Capitalist nations became **imperialist** nations, extending their rule over other countries or territories, causing problems which led directly to World War I.



Practice

Use the list below to write the correct term for each definition on the line provided.

capitalism	mercantilism	standard of living
communism	production	strike
immigrant	reform	textiles
imperialist (nation)	sanitary	union
industrialist	socialism	

- _____ 1. a group of workers who join together to protect their interests and improve their working conditions
- _____ 2. the act of making or creating something
- _____ 3. a person who owns, controls, or has an important position in the management of a business; factory owner
- _____ 4. clean and germ-free
- _____ 5. a country that has control over other countries or colonies
- _____ 6. change made for the better
- _____ 7. an economic system in which land, factories, and other means of producing goods are privately owned and controlled by an individual or groups of individuals for a profit
- _____ 8. a person who comes to live in a country in which he or she was not born
- _____ 9. woven materials



- _____ 10. a theory of government in which wealth and property are owned in common, and production and labor are shared equally among the people; in reality, the means of production and distribution are owned and controlled by the state
- _____ 11. stopping of work or services by a group of people to protest certain conditions
- _____ 12. a political and economic theory in which the means of production—factories, machines, and the land—are controlled by the government or society rather than individuals, and the profits are shared equally among all its citizens
- _____ 13. a measure of the necessities and comforts available to a person or group
- _____ 14. a government policy of controlling overseas markets



Practice

Write **economic, social, or political** to correctly describe each of the **changes** caused by the **Industrial Revolution** on the line provided.

- _____ 1. Machines replaced people as the method of preparation.
- _____ 2. Working conditions and salaries were horrible.
- _____ 3. A policy of laissez-faire replaced mercantilism.
- _____ 4. The standard of living in the industrialized countries grew higher and higher.
- _____ 5. Women and children entered the work force.
- _____ 6. The right to vote for both men and women was expanded.
- _____ 7. Workers formed labor unions to gain reforms.
- _____ 8. Cities grew at a fast pace.
- _____ 9. Trade between countries increased.
- _____ 10. Industrial nations became imperialist nations and sought new markets for their goods.



Rise of the Labor Unions

Most factory workers in Europe and the United States were poorly treated. These workers had few rights and little hope of improving their situations. If a single worker did voice a complaint, he or she would be fired. A few people believed that if workers united into *labor unions*, they would eventually gain political, social, and economic reforms. A union acted as the spokesperson for all workers in a particular trade. Workers joined together in voluntary associations in order to seek better working conditions and higher salaries. Since labor unions were usually illegal, organizing them proved very difficult. Often, a person who tried to organize a labor union was arrested. Members of unions were often the target of violent acts by industrialists. Members of labor unions who went on strike often found themselves the target of a violent and bloody response by the police.

During the second half of the 19th century and the first half of the 20th century, workers struggled to get the right to form unions. They wanted the right to engage in collective bargaining. Collective bargaining is the right to meet with employers to negotiate improvements in the workplace and higher pay. As a result of their efforts, workers gained many benefits. Minimum wages, child labor laws, health benefits, and an eight-hour workday are just a few of the changes that unions helped their workers gain. It must be understood that in earning these benefits, workers often



took tremendous risks. Union people were jailed, beaten, or sometimes murdered during their efforts to organize strikes. If factory owners refused union demands, members could strike, or refuse to work. When their workers went on strike and refused to work, factory owners often lost money. Consequently, strikes were the most **effective** tool that unions had when factory owners would not resolve workers' problems.

Labor unions influenced governments to pass laws improving working conditions and the overall standard of living for workers throughout the 19th and early 20th centuries. Today, unions enjoy a status never imagined by their early leaders. As a result, the average union worker enjoys clean, healthy, and safe working conditions. Workers today can also earn fair wages for their work.



Practice

Answer the following using complete sentences.

1. Why did workers need to organize in order to gain reforms? _____

2. Why was forming labor unions very difficult? _____

3. What usually happened to people who tried to form labor unions?

4. What were three of the benefits earned by workers as a result of labor union activity? _____

5. What was the most effective tool used by labor unions to get the factory owners to listen to the workers? _____

6. What were governments forced to do by the unions to help the working class? _____



Socialism

In 1848 a social philosopher and revolutionary thinker in Germany named Karl Marx wrote a book called *The Communist Manifesto*. In *The Communist Manifesto*, Marx described the problems created by the Industrial Revolution. Marx called his philosophy *scientific socialism*. He believed that history, like the world of nature, operated according to scientific laws. He saw human history as a struggle between the middle class (or *haves*) called the **bourgeoisie** and the workers (the *have nots*) called the **proletariat**. He believed that the Industrial Revolution created wealth for a few (the *haves*) but poverty for the many (the *have nots*). The few wealthy were the capitalists, or those who owned factories, land, and resources. The many who lived in poverty were the urban working class, or *proletariat*, who earned low wages for hard and sometimes dangerous work.

Marx believed that, in time, a very few industrialists or capitalists would own and control all the means of producing goods. The working class, or proletariat, performed the backbreaking labor of producing these goods under terrible conditions. Marx predicted that eventually the proletariat would rise up and seize control of the factories and mills from the capitalists and produce what society needed.



Karl Marx

"The proletarians have nothing to lose but their chains. They have a world to win. Workingmen of all countries, unite." Karl Marx

The proletariat would create a society in which everyone worked for the good of all. Eventually there would be no classes in society. Everyone would work and earn equally, and people would live in true freedom in the new *Communist state*. All the means of production—land, mines, factories, and businesses would be owned by the people. Private property would no longer exist. This radical type of socialism was called **Marxism**.

Marx and many other Socialists believed that government policy should benefit the masses of workers. Socialists believed that the capitalists, or those Marx called the *factory-owning bourgeoisie*, controlled the means of production and used the government to increase their wealth.

Between 1848 and 1849 revolts shook Europe. These revolts were not successful. European leaders eventually put down these revolutions. However, these revolutions inspired Marx, and, at the turn of the century, Marxism influenced many revolutions. During the 1900s, Communist revolutions were successful in Russia, China, Vietnam, and Cuba.



Practice

Answer the following using complete sentences.

1. Who wrote *The Communist Manifesto*? _____

2. Who did the early Socialists think should control the government?

Why? _____

3. How do Socialists see the human history? _____

4. Under Marx's plan for revolution, what would the workers do?

5. What kind of society would workers create after they took over control of the state? _____



Socialism and Politics

Towards the end of 19th century, more and more workers in France and Germany turned to Marxism. French and German Socialists were in favor of revolution as a way of bringing down their capitalist systems. British workers, however, had more say in their government than did French and German workers, and so the British did not seek revolution to overthrow their government. The Liberal and the Conservative political parties in Great Britain needed the votes of the workers to gain control of the British government. Therefore, members of the British House of Commons had to listen and respond to British workers in order to gain their votes.

In Great Britain, the working class was first represented by the Liberal Party. In 1924 the working class broke from the Liberal Party and formed the Labor Party. The Labor Party was one of the two major political parties in Great Britain. As a result of the Labor Party's popularity, Britain developed some Socialist policies. The British government's policies blended socialism and *capitalism*.

The working class in the United States was also less revolutionary than the working classes in France and Germany. This was true because the Democratic and the Republican parties needed the workers' support. To win the support of the working class, both American political parties promised reforms for workers.

This system is called *industrial democracy*. As a result, Socialist ideas never became popular in the United States. This is not to say that the labor struggle in the United States was uneventful. In fact, there were many violent and bloody strikes in the United States at the end of the 19th century and after.

Historically in the United States, the Democratic Party has been the party of the working class. Recently, the Republican Party has been working hard to gain the support of working-class people.



The working class in the United States was less revolutionary than the working classes in France and Germany.



Practice

Answer the following using complete sentences.

1. In what two countries was Marxism becoming more and more accepted towards the end of the 19th century? _____

2. Why didn't strong Socialist revolutionary ideas take hold in Great Britain and the United States? _____

3. Which political party in Great Britain had the support of the working class? _____

4. In the United States, which political party has historically been the party of the working people? _____

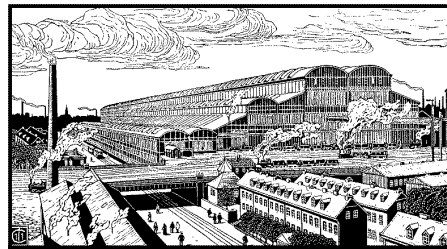


The Labor Struggle

Let us examine the workers' struggle to organize labor unions in the United States. The story that follows is one example of the difficult labor struggles workers faced in the early 20th century. The answers to two questions helps us to better understand this turbulent period. *What conditions triggered the workers' strike? What were the results of the strike?*

The Lawrence Textile Story: Workers against Industrialists

Like many towns in New England, Lawrence, Massachusetts, was a place where *textiles* were made. Lawrence was the home of one of the largest textile companies in the United States. Most of the men, women, and children who lived in Lawrence worked in the textile factories.



factory

Adult workers earned about 16 cents an hour. Children earned about 12 cents an hour. Workers spent about 56 hours a week on the job. Even if every person in a family worked, the family could barely pay its bills each month. Workers in Lawrence usually ate bread, molasses, and beans. The homes of the workers were poorly made. Rats, bedbugs, and roaches were a common sight in their homes. Their homes provided little protection against the cold winters and hot summers. There were usually no bathrooms in the homes of workers. Many families had to share one toilet. About one-third of all workers died before they were 25 years old.

In 1912 the state of Massachusetts passed a law permitting workers to work 54 hours instead of 56 hours a week. However, the owners of the factories did not want to decrease production of textiles. What the workers had produced in 56 hours would now have to be produced in 54 hours. This angered the workers—they would now have to work harder and faster, yet earn less money for their labor.

The Workers Go on Strike. In response to the same low wages for harder work, the workers went on strike. Instead of going to work, the workers *picketed*. That is, each morning the workers marched with signs. Written on the signs were demands for better working conditions, higher wages, and extra money for overtime. Workers organized relief efforts. Soup kitchens for the hungry and shelters for the homeless were set up. Some doctors gave free medical services to the sick.



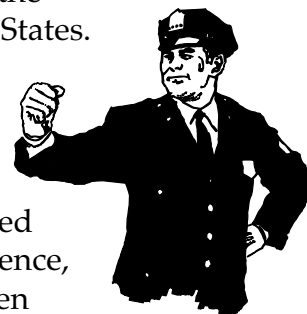
The Owners React to the Strike. Company owners asked the governor of Massachusetts for help. The governor sent the state police to Lawrence to force the workers to end their strike. Violence was met with violence. During the freezing days of January, the police sprayed water on the strikers. The strikers threw chunks of ice at the police. Strikers were shot, beaten, and jailed. Leaders of the strike were arrested on false charges. The governor declared a state of emergency in Lawrence, and all meetings were outlawed. The police were ordered to shoot to kill any striker who was on the streets during certain times of the day.

The Union Replies to the Owners and Governor. The strike lasted a very long time. Workers were growing tired; they were cold and hungry. The union then came up with an idea. During February, about 200 children were sent to New York City. In their ragged clothing, these children looked like they were starving. Many newspapers around the country showed pictures of these children. As a result, the strikers gained much sympathy from people across the country.

More Blood Is Spilled. The town of Lawrence was getting bad publicity in the newspapers. The factory owners and the government in Lawrence were beginning to lose the war. Authorities in Lawrence said that no more children would be allowed to leave Lawrence. The union, however, was not about to stop its publicity campaign. On a cold morning in late February, 150 children and their mothers stood by the railroad tracks awaiting the train to New York City. Suddenly, about 100 police showed up. Swinging clubs, the police closed in on the women and children. When it was all over, the snow was covered with blood.

This event was the turning point of the strike. President William Howard Taft asked for an investigation into factory conditions across the United States. By the end of March 1912, the strikers had won their demands for higher wages, payment for overtime, and better working conditions.

Hard Times Return to Lawrence. Two years after the Lawrence strike, bad economic times hit the United States. Many workers in the Lawrence textile factories lost their jobs. The factory owners once again increased the speed of the machines to produce more. This time, however, the workers were too tired to strike. Many of the workers quit the union which had helped them during the 1912 strike. Nevertheless, the Lawrence, Massachusetts, textile strike of 1912 proved that when workers organize, they can often achieve good results.





Practice

Use the list below to write the correct term for each description on the line provided.

aristocrat	Great Britain	law of supply and demand
bourgeoisie	industrialist	Karl Marx
factory system	labor union	proletariat
free enterprise	laissez-faire	steam engine

- _____ 1. let things alone, or let people do as they please
- _____ 2. people are free to conduct business with a minimum of government interference
- _____ 3. scarcity of goods results in higher prices
- _____ 4. important invention for the Industrial Revolution
- _____ 5. a country that had the necessary resources to begin an Industrial Revolution
- _____ 6. Socialist writer of the *The Communist Manifesto*
- _____ 7. working class
- _____ 8. it increased production and often created horrible working conditions
- _____ 9. organization of workers
- _____ 10. factory owner
- _____ 11. a person of the upper class who had the most wealth and power
- _____ 12. factory-owning middle class



Review

During the Industrial Revolution, people applied science and *technology* to their lives. They invented power-driven machines to do the work people once did, and machines began to replace people in the production of goods. Goods could now be produced more quickly and cheaply in large factories. This change in the way goods were manufactured created much wealth for the factory owners, or *industrialists*.

The men, women, and children who worked in the factories did not fare so well. They worked long hours in poor and dangerous conditions and made little money. The *factory system* created two groups with two different interests. The industrialists wanted to pay the workers low wages in order to keep their own profits high. The workers, on the other hand, wanted higher wages and better working conditions. The economists Adam Smith, David Ricardo, and Thomas Malthus believed in the policy of *laissez-faire*. They believed that the government should not interfere with the workings of the economy.

To improve their salaries and working conditions, workers began organizing labor unions. Workers began to see that they would have more power if they united in their demands. At first, governments outlawed labor unions. The workers often risked their lives and welfare to continue organizing. Eventually their risks paid off, and they gained improved working conditions and higher wages.

The Industrial Revolution began in Great Britain for a number of reasons. Great Britain had a large supply of coal, which powered many of the new machines. It had the people with money and knowledge to build and run factories, as well as enough workers, or a labor force, to work in the factories. Great Britain also could sell its good in its overseas markets. Other countries, including Germany, the United States, and France, followed Great Britain and became industrialized, or *developed*, nations.

The German thinker Karl Marx was the most important Socialist writer to emerge from the Industrial Revolution. He (and other Socialists) responded to the terrible conditions brought on by the Industrial Revolution. He wrote of a day when the proletariat, or working class, would rise up against the industrialists, or capitalists, and make government work for the workers. Eventually, he claimed, there would be no classes in society and everyone would work for the good of all.



Practice

Match each definition with the correct term. Write the letter on the line provided.

- | | |
|--|-----------------------|
| _____ 1. a political and economic theory in which the means of production—factories, machines, and the land—are controlled by the government or society rather than individuals | A. communism |
| _____ 2. the act of making or creating something | B. effective |
| _____ 3. a measure of the necessities and comforts available to a person or group | C. immigrant |
| _____ 4. woven materials | D. laissez-faire |
| _____ 5. to make or process something by hand or by machine | E. manufacture |
| _____ 6. a theory of government in which wealth and property are owned in common, and production and labor are shared equally among the people; in reality, the means of production and distribution are owned and controlled by the state | F. production |
| _____ 7. a person who comes to live in a country in which he or she was not born | G. socialism |
| _____ 8. payment for work done | H. standard of living |
| _____ 9. able to change something or make something happen | I. textiles |
| _____ 10. a French word meaning <i>let things alone</i> or <i>let the people do as they please</i> ; a policy in which the government does not interfere in economic affairs | J. wage |



Practice

Match each definition with the correct term. Write the letter on the line provided.

- | | | |
|-------|--|-------------------------|
| _____ | 1. to set up or develop manufacturing plants and other businesses in an area or country | A. capitalism |
| _____ | 2. the science that has to do with the mechanical or industrial arts | B. free enterprise |
| _____ | 3. a group of workers joined together to protect their interests and improve their working conditions | C. imperialist (nation) |
| _____ | 4. the circulation or exchange of air | D. industrialize |
| _____ | 5. clean and germ-free | E. mercantilism |
| _____ | 6. an economic system in which land, factories, and other means of producing goods are privately owned and controlled by an individual or groups of individuals for a profit | F. proletariat |
| _____ | 7. the freedom to do business in a competitive market with little regulation or interference by government | G. reform |
| _____ | 8. a government policy of controlling overseas markets | H. sanitary |
| _____ | 9. the urban working class | I. strike |
| _____ | 10. change made for the better | J. technology |
| _____ | 11. stopping of work to protest certain conditions | K. union |
| _____ | 12. a country that has control over other countries | L. ventilation |

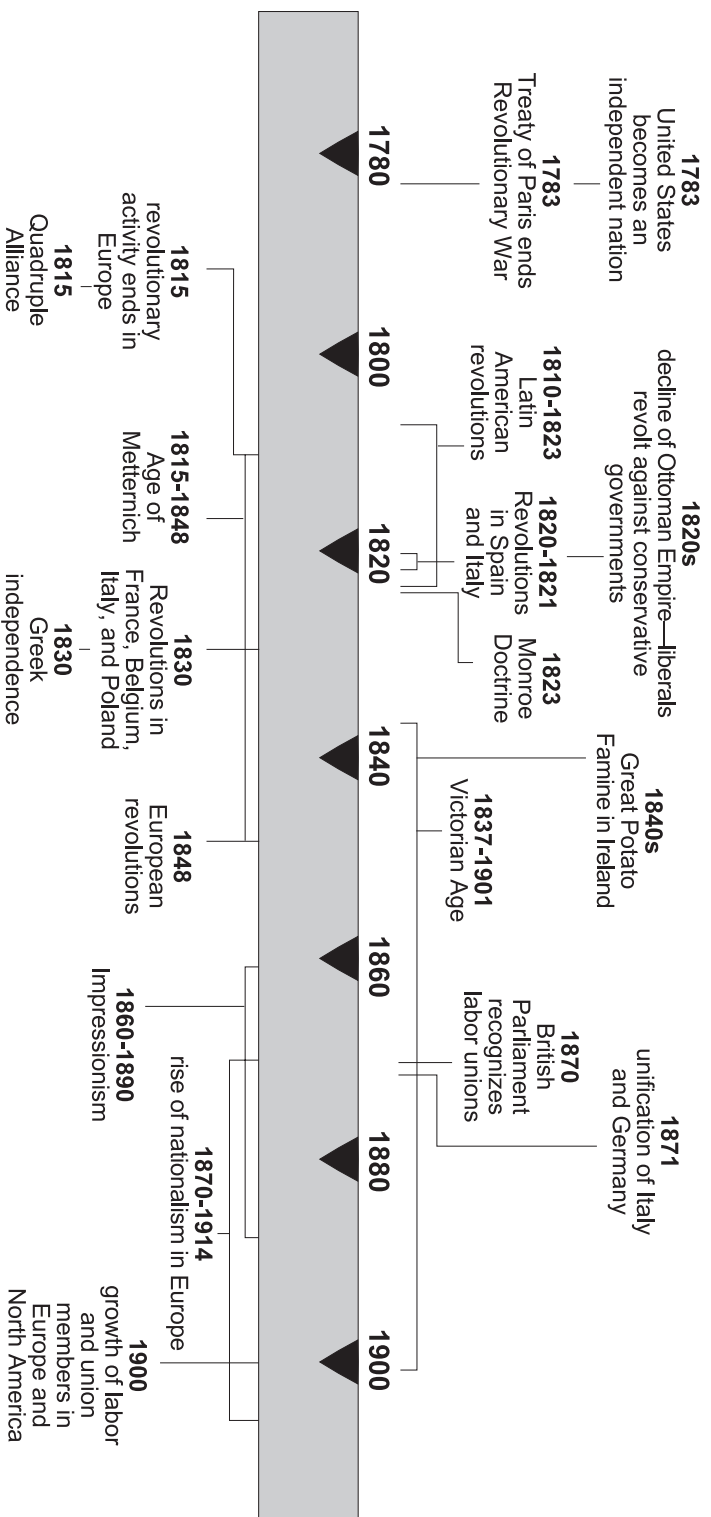
Unit 2: Major Events and Achievements of the 19th Century (1800s)

This unit emphasizes the important political, economic, and social developments of the 19th century and the major achievements in the arts and sciences.

Unit Focus

- how ideas from the French Revolution and the Napoleonic Era affected Latin America and Europe in the 19th century
- advances made in art, literature, science, and music during the 19th century
- reasons why immigrants came to the United States in the 19th century

Unit 2 Timeline





Vocabulary

Use the vocabulary words and definitions below as a reference for this unit.

emigrant one who leaves one's own country to live in another country

emigrate to leave one's own country to live in another country

emigration the legal process of leaving one's country to settle in another country

immigrant a person who comes to live in a country in which he or she was not born

immigrate to arrive in a foreign country to settle permanently

immigration the legal process of settling in a foreign country

independent free from control or rule of another or others; separate

industrialization the process of developing systems to manufacture goods by machine

nationalism strong support for the survival, success, and self-rule of one's country and culture



Major Events and Achievements of the 19th Century (1800s)

Independence Movements

The United States officially became an **independent** nation in 1783 when Great Britain agreed to the Treaty of Paris following the American Revolution (1763-1776). As the 19th century began, the United States was still unsure of its future. Strong and intelligent leadership, and a belief by all Americans in democracy, helped make the United States a powerful nation in the years to follow.



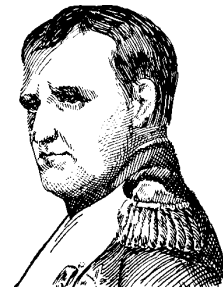
Independence Movements in Latin America, 1828



The revolutionary spirit reached Latin America as well. Latin American people wanted independence from Spain, Portugal, and France. After long and hard-fought struggles, the people of Latin America achieved independence. Great Britain and the United States supported Latin American independence. In 1823 the American President James Monroe issued the Monroe Doctrine, opposing any attempt by European powers to regain its former colonies in Latin America.

Revolutionary Activity and the Napoleonic Era

The French Revolution entered a new phase in 1799 when Napoleon Bonaparte took charge of the French government. Under Napoleon, France became the most powerful country in the world. Of major importance during the *Napoleonic Era* was that Napoleon spread the ideas of the French Revolution to other countries. In doing so, he was able to overthrow many of the monarchies around Europe.



Napoleon Bonaparte

Revolutionary activity in Europe lasted until 1815. At this time, Napoleon was defeated by a group of countries called the *Quadruple Alliance*. The alliance included Great Britain, Prussia, Russia, and Austria. With the defeat of Napoleon, the French Revolution came to an end.

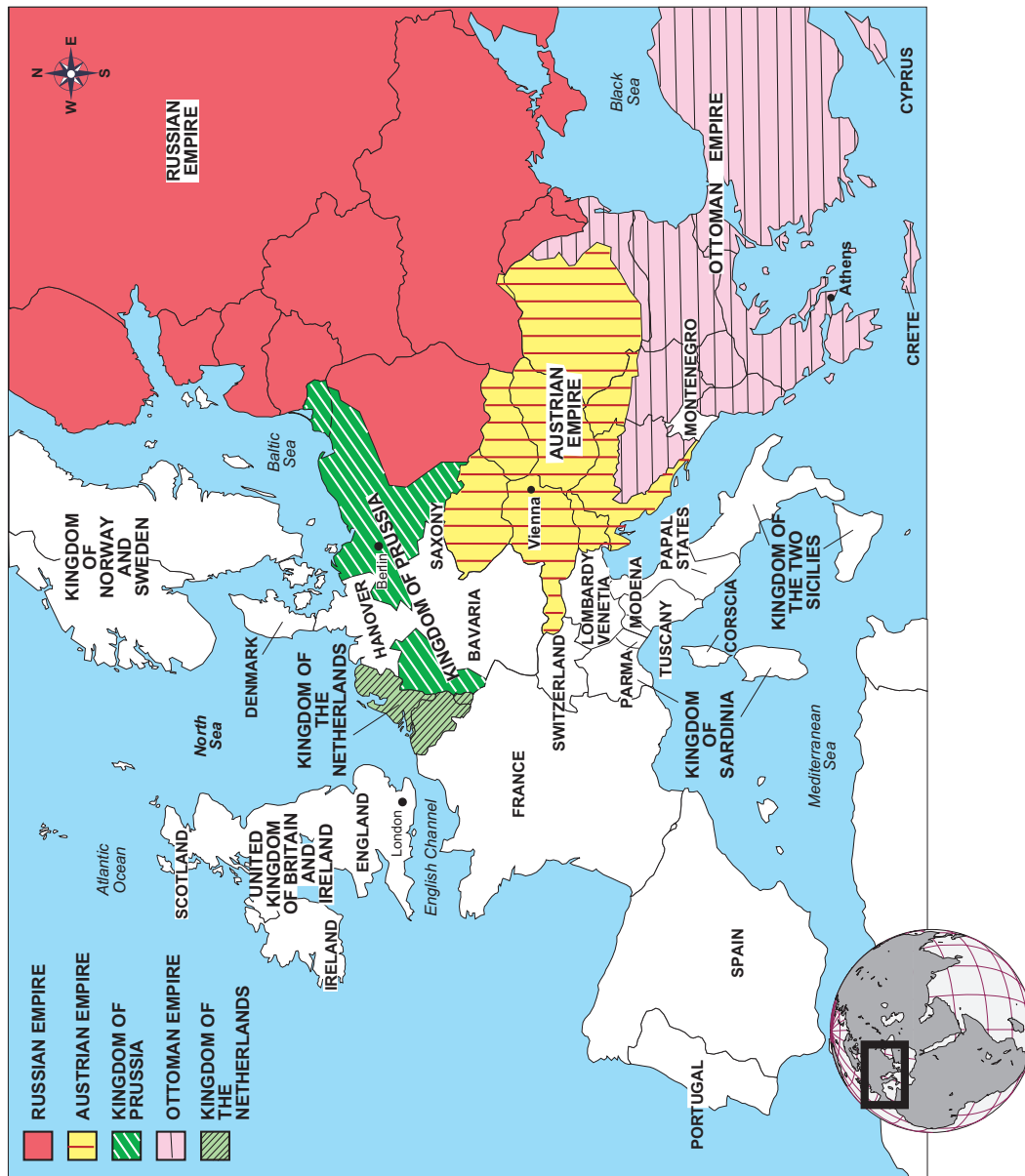
Metternich and the Reactionary Era

The year was 1815. The Quadruple Alliance met in Vienna to reorganize Europe after Napoleon and France were defeated. Europeans were tired of war. The Quadruple Alliance wanted to protect Europe from revolutionary movements. To accomplish this goal, the alliance returned to their thrones many of the monarchs Napoleon had overthrown. Nobles and clergy were once again placed in positions of power. Many civil rights of the people were taken away. Governments in Europe began to look as they had before the Napoleonic Era. Prince Clemens von Metternich, the foreign minister of Austria, led this reactionary movement.

The Congress of Vienna created a balance of power in Europe. This meant that no one nation would be allowed to become more powerful than any other. The *great powers* of Europe also agreed to establish order and to help stop any revolutionary activity anywhere in Europe.



The Metternich system, or the use of force and fear to control people, eventually failed. The reason why the Metternich system did not work was simple: people cannot turn back the progress of time. The sense of **nationalism** encouraged by the French Revolution could not be held back forever.



Europe in 1815



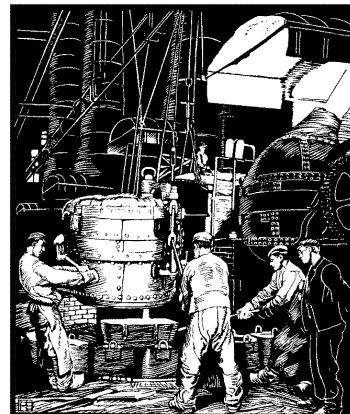
The Rise of Nationalism

People generally like to live among other people with whom they share a common culture. Culture ties people together. These ties, along with feelings of patriotism towards one's nation, can lead to feelings of nationalism. During the 19th century, forces of *nationalism* led to the independence of Egypt and Greece. The rise of nationalism also led to independence movements in Ireland, Holland, and Belgium. Most importantly, the Northern German Confederation and the Southern German states were unified into Germany, and the different *independent* states of Italy were unified into one nation-state. Finally, the Austrian and the Ottoman Empires began to fall apart. This was due to the nationalistic feelings of the various people living within those empires.

The Industrial Revolution

The Industrial Revolution of the 18th and 19th centuries first began in Great Britain. Other nations including France, Germany, and the United States followed Great Britain in becoming industrialized (or *developed*) nations. The Industrial Revolution changed the way of life for most of the Western world. Two new groups of people, the working class and the capitalists (middle class), began to battle for control of government in their nations.

In both Europe and the United States, working-class people fought hard to organize labor unions. The labor struggle often led to bloody and violent reaction from governments. Eventually workers were given the right to organize labor unions. Labor unions did win many rights for workers. These rights included the minimum wage, eight- or nine-hour workdays, the right to collective bargaining, and the right to strike.



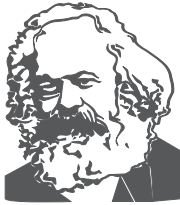
working-class people

Socialism

The Industrial Revolution also led to the beginning of the Socialist movement in many European countries. Revolutionary Socialists like Karl Marx believed that the Industrial Revolution had caused most of the workers' problems. The Industrial Revolution had brought an end to the



life of the traditional skilled craftsman. Workers depended on wages and could no longer control the pace of their work. Living and working conditions were poor. Low wages, long hours, the use of child labor, and unfit housing were some of the harsher results of **industrialization**.



Karl Marx

Revolutionary or radical Socialists like Karl Marx believed that both government and society had to change in order to give power to the working class, or proletariat, and end the special privileges of the rich. Marx believed that eventually workers would rise up and overthrow the capitalist system. Workers would then create a classless society in which the government would exist to improve the life of the workers.

Emigration from Europe and Asia

During the 19th century, millions of Europeans and Asians left their countries to begin a new life in the United States. They left for *economic, social, and political* reasons. These new **immigrants** to the United States hoped to begin a life in the *land of opportunity*. Many *immigrants* who came or **immigrated** to America believed that the streets were *lined with gold*. Many were promised jobs or farmland.

Immigrants came to America from all over Europe, and they came for many reasons. Many Irish people **emigrated** from Ireland due to the Great Potato Famine in Ireland during the 1840s. Russians *emigrated* from Russia during the end of the 19th century for religious and political reasons. Many **emigrants** from Germany came to seek political freedom.

The United States became the land of hope for millions of immigrants from around the world. Through **emigration**, people leaving their homelands, and **immigration**, people arriving in a new homeland, the United States grew. Many people referred to the United States as a nation of immigrants, often called a giant *melting pot*.

Major Achievements of the 19th Century

The chart on the following page will give you an idea about some great achievements during the 19th century in the fields of art, literature, science, and music. It is by no means a complete record of the achievements of that period.



Major Achievements of the 19th Century

	Name	Country	Birth-Death	Achievements
Art	Edouard Manet	France	1832-1883	Impressionist painters—used light and color in new ways; looked at a scene and painted it according to how they felt at that moment.
	Edgar Degas	France	1834-1917	
	Paul Cezanne	France	1839-1906	
	Claude Monet	France	1840-1926	
	Pierre Auguste Renoir	France	1841-1919	
	Vincent van Gogh	Holland	1853-1890	
Sculpture	Auguste Rodin	France	1840-1917	Used great care in making his statues come alive; most famous sculpture is <i>The Thinker</i> .
Music	Ludwig von Beethoven	Germany	1770-1827	Great symphonies—e.g., <i>Fifth Symphony</i> . Wrote great operas—e.g., <i>Aida</i> ; <i>Rigoletto</i> . Wrote strong and powerful compositions drawing on German nationalism. Wrote lively operettas—e.g., <i>The Pirates of Penzance</i> . Used Russian folk music in his compositions—e.g., <i>The Nutcracker</i> .
	Giuseppe Verdi	Italy	1813-1901	
	Richard Wagner	Germany	1813-1883	
	Gilbert and Sullivan	England	1836-1911; 1842-1900	
	Peter Tschaikovsky	Russia	1840-1893	
Literature	Elizabeth Browning	England	1806-1861	Wrote romantic poetry called <i>sonnets</i> . Wrote about social conditions in <i>Great Expectations</i> and <i>Oliver Twist</i> . Wrote about subjects which had never been openly discussed in <i>A Doll's House</i> . Wrote on themes in Russian history in <i>War and Peace</i> , which told the story of Napoleon's invasion of Russia. Wrote about social injustice in "I Accuse," which told the story of the Dreyfus case. Wrote about social morality in <i>Red Badge of Courage</i> , which told the story of a young man fighting in the Civil War. Wrote about socialism in <i>Das Kapital</i> , <i>Communist Manifesto</i> .
	Charles Dickens	England	1812-1870	
	Henrik Ibsen	Norway	1828-1906	
	Leo Tolstoy	Russia	1828-1910	
	Emile Zola	France	1840-1902	
	Stephen Crane	U.S.	1871-1900	
Medicine	W. T. G. Morton	U.S.	1819-1868	Discovered anesthetics, which made surgery safer and less painful. Proved that microscopic organisms cause disease. Discovered a sterilization method for hands, wounds, and medical instruments. Discovered the germs of 11 diseases including cholera and tuberculosis. Discovered smallpox vaccine.
	Louis Pasteur	France	1822-1895	
	Joseph Lister	England	1827-1912	
	Robert Koch	Germany	1843-1910	
	Edward Jenner	England	1749-1823	
Biology	Charles Darwin	England	1809-1882	Wrote <i>Origin of Species</i> about the theory of natural selection to explain evolution. Laid foundations of the science of genetics.
	Gregor Mendel	Austria	1822-1884	
Psychology	Ivan Pavlov	Russia	1849-1936	Proved that people respond to stimuli. Laid foundations of almost all basic concepts of psychoanalysis.
	Sigmund Freud	Austria	1856-1936	
Inventors	Samuel Morse	U.S.	1791-1872	Made the first electric telegraph. Invented the telephone. Invented the first useful electric light. Invented the first wireless telegraph.
	Alexander Graham Bell	U.S.	1847-1922	
	Thomas A. Edison	U.S.	1847-1931	
	Guglielmo Marconi	Italy	1874-1937	



Practice

Use the list below to complete the following statements.

emigrant	immigrant
emigrate	immigrate
emigration	immigration

1. After the revolution, José decided to _____ from his native country, Bolivia.
2. He wanted to _____ to the United States.
3. José is known as an _____ in Bolivia.
4. In Bolivia José had to go through a lengthy _____ process.
5. In the United States José had to go through the government process of _____ .
6. In his new home in the United States, José is an _____ until he qualifies as a United States citizen.



Practice

Complete the following **outline** using pages 41-45.

Major Events of the 19th Century

I. Independence movements

A. United States at the beginning of the 19th century

1. Unsure of its future
2. Strong and intelligent leadership
3. Belief in _____

B. Latin American independence

1. Independence from _____ ,
_____, and _____
2. Long and hard-fought struggles
3. The _____ and
_____ supported
Latin American independence
4. The _____ opposed any
attempt by European powers to regain its former
colonies in Latin America

II. Revolutionary activity and the Napoleonic Era

A. French Revolution

1. 1799—Napoleon takes charge of _____
government



2. France becomes most _____ country in the world
3. Napoleon _____ the ideas of the French Revolution
4. Overthrew _____ in Europe

B. End of the French Revolution

1. Revolutionary activity lasted until _____ when _____ was defeated
2. Napoleon defeated by _____ which included
 - a. _____
 - b. _____
 - c. _____
 - d. _____

III. Metternich and the Reactionary Era

A. Europe in 1815

1. France crushed
2. Quadruple Alliance met in _____
 - a. _____ returned to their thrones
 - b. Movement led by _____



B. Results

1. Nobles and _____ placed in positions of power
2. _____ taken away from the people
3. The Congress of Vienna created a _____ of _____
4. Europeans nations agreed to stop _____

C. Metternich system fails

IV. The rise of nationalism

A. Feelings of nationalism

1. Common _____
2. Bonds tie people _____

B. Effects of nationalism

1. 19th century independence movements
 - a. Egypt
 - b. _____
 - c. _____
 - d. Holland
 - e. _____



2. Unification

a. _____

b. Italy

3. Decay

a. _____

b. Ottoman Empire

V. The Industrial Revolution

A. Changed way of life

B. Rise of two new classes of people

1. _____

2. _____

C. Began in _____

D. Labor unions

1. Difficult to organize

2. Violent and bloody reaction to labor unions from the

E. Workers win rights

1. Minimum wages

2. _____

3. _____

4. _____



VI. Socialism

A. Movement led by _____

B. Blamed the _____

for the problems the working-class people

1. End of traditional skilled craftsmen

2. No control over the pace of their work

3. Living and working conditions were _____

4. Low _____, long _____,
child labor, and unfit housing

C. Marxist beliefs

1. Give power to the _____ class

2. End privileges of the _____

3. Workers will rise up against the _____

4. Government would exist to improve the life of
the _____

VII. Emigration from Europe and Asia

A. Millions of people came to America

1. Reason for leaving Europe

a. Economic

b. _____

c. _____



2. America is seen as the _____

3. Many immigrants believed the streets were

B. Groups of people who immigrated to the United States

1. Irish people came after the _____

2. Russian people came for _____ and
political reasons

3. Germans came to seek _____
freedom

4. United States referred to as a giant _____



Practice

Choose **two fields** from the chart “Major Achievements of the 19th Century” (page 46) which are of interest to you. Find and study examples of the **works** of at least **three people** in each of the two fields you have chosen. Complete the chart below, including the **title of resource** (e.g., title of book, article, or Internet Web site) and **page number** or **Web address**.

Research on 19 th Century Achievements				
Field	Name	Country	Achievement	Resource/Page No.
Field: _____				
Field: _____				

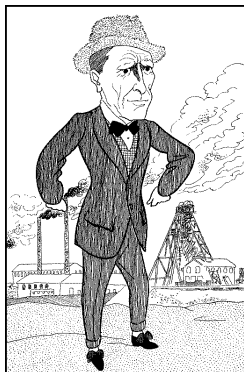


Review

Many nations gained their *independence* during the 19th century. Many Latin American countries fought successful revolutions to gain independence from Spain, Portugal, and France. Some of these revolutions were supported by both the United States (which had just gained its own independence in 1783) and Great Britain.

The 19th century was greatly influenced by the *Napoleonic Era*. Napoleon had spread the revolution that had begun in France to other European nations. When Napoleon was defeated in 1815, the Quadruple Alliance, led by Metternich, returned many monarchs to their thrones. Eventually, most monarchs were overthrown by their people or other nations.

The rise of *nationalism* resulted in many European and Middle Eastern countries gaining independence. Nationalism also led to the fall of the Austrian and Ottoman Empires.



cartoon portraying a capitalist

The *Industrial Revolution* led to two groups of people: the capitalists or middle class (who owned the factories and controlled industry) and the working class (who worked in the factories). These two groups battled to protect their different interests. The workers eventually formed labor unions and won many reforms. Socialism gained support in response to the Industrial Revolution. Revolutionary, or radical, Socialists like Karl Marx believed in a *classless society*. Marx believed that the proletariat would eventually overthrow the capitalist system. The 19th century also saw millions of European immigrants come to the United States for religious and political freedom, as well as economic opportunity.



Practice

Match each definition with the correct term. Write the letter on the line provided.

- | | |
|---|----------------------|
| _____ 1. free from control or rule of another or others; separate | A. emigrant |
| _____ 2. to leave one's own country to live in another country | B. emigrate |
| _____ 3. to arrive in a foreign country to settle permanently | C. emigration |
| _____ 4. strong support for the survival, success, and self-rule of one's own country and culture | D. immigrant |
| _____ 5. one who leaves one's own country to live in another country | E. immigrate |
| _____ 6. a person who comes to live in a country in which he or she was not born | F. immigration |
| _____ 7. the process of developing systems to manufacture goods by machine | G. independent |
| _____ 8. the legal process of settling in a foreign country | H. industrialization |
| _____ 9. the legal process of leaving one's country to settle in another country | I. nationalism |

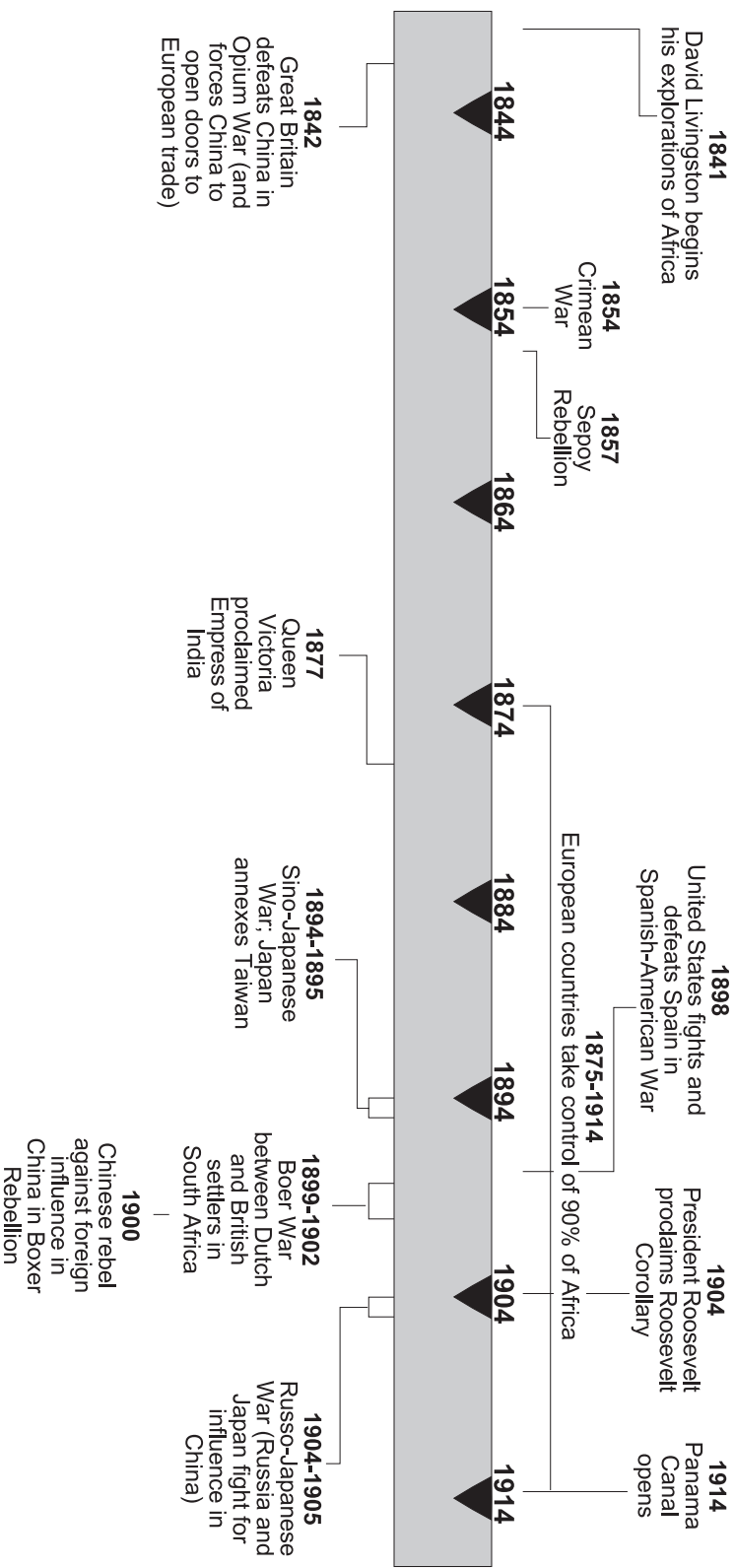
Unit 3: The Age of Imperialism (1800-1914)

This unit emphasizes political, economic, and social motives for imperialism.

Unit Focus

- cause/effect relationships between the Industrial Revolution and imperialism
- how foreign powers acquired trading rights in China
- how Japan grew into a modern, industrialized nation
- how European nations gained economic control of Africa
- examples of economic imperialism in Ottoman Empire, the Middle East, India, the Pacific Rim, Southeast Asia, and Latin America

Unit 3 Timeline





Vocabulary

Use the vocabulary words and definitions below as a reference for this unit.

- acquisition** the gaining or acquiring of a possession through one's actions or efforts
- alliance** an agreement between countries, groups, or people to work together in doing something
- ammunition** bullets, shells, grenades, bombs, and other materials that can be fired from guns or exploded in some way
- annex** to increase a nation's borders or land by taking control of a foreign territory, state, or nation
- Boxer Rebellion** a revolution started by a secret Chinese society called the *Boxers* to chase Western nations out of China
- buffer zone** region that lies between two rival countries, cutting down the threat of conflict
- capital** wealth (money or property) that is owned by a company or person and used to produce more wealth
- capitalist** person whose money and property are used to carry on business; owner of production and manufacturing resources
- cash crop** a crop grown by a farmer for sale, not personal use



- caste** an unchangeable social group into which a person is born
- colonize** to establish a settlement in a new land and maintain political control
- colony** a region or country controlled by another country
- discriminate** to treat differently from others because of unfair prejudices
- ethnic group** large group of people who share the same language and cultural background
- extraterritoriality** rights of foreigners to be protected by the laws of their own nation
- feudalism** a system in which people owed loyalty to the wealthy landowners in exchange for protection
- imperialism** the practice of establishing colonies; extending the rule of one country over other countries or colonies
- industrialized nation** a country in which more goods are produced by machine than by hand
- intervention** to interfere in another nation's affairs to force or prevent an action
- migrate** to go from one country, region, or place to settle in another
- mission** a special job or task



monopoly	the control of a product, service, or industry by one company
nationalism	strong support for the survival, success, and self-rule of one's own country and culture
Open Door Policy	American position that made it possible for all countries to trade in China
oppressors	people who control or rule by cruel or unjust means
Panama Canal	the manmade waterway that is a shortcut from the Atlantic Ocean to the Pacific Ocean
protectorate	country with its own government but under the control of an outside power
raw materials	natural resources used in the production of goods
reserves	something that is set aside for future use
revolt	an uprising against authority
Roosevelt Corollary	President Theodore Roosevelt's announcement that no nation but the United States could interfere in Latin American affairs; amendment to the <i>Monroe Doctrine</i>
sepoy	Indian soldier who served in an army set up by the French or English East India Company



spheres of influence geographic areas controlled by a country and used for its own benefit

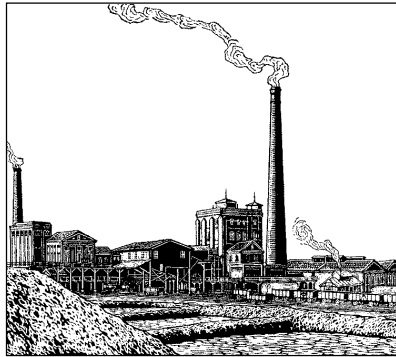
westernization non-Western nations shifting towards European or Western culture and practices



The Age of Imperialism (1800-1914)

Industrialized Nations

In the study of the Industrial Revolution, we learned about the revolutionary change in the way Great Britain, the United States, and other countries manufactured goods. Producing large numbers of goods in big factories presented new problems for **industrialized nations**. These nations needed to find more and more **raw materials** for their factories. They needed coal, for example, to run their factories. In addition, they needed materials such as tungsten to make steel products. Unable to find these *raw materials* at home, industrialized nations went searching to other territories and countries.



Industrialized nations needed more raw materials for their factories.

Not only did industrialized nations need to seek new territories for raw materials, they also needed to find new markets in which to sell their goods once they were manufactured. In order to fulfill their need for raw materials, industrial nations began the practice of **imperialism**: a policy of gaining control over underdeveloped countries for the purpose of getting access to rich, raw materials and markets for manufactured goods.

Until the 1870s, European nations and the United States had little interest in *imperialism*. After 1870 these countries began to *carve up* the map of the world into **spheres of influence**. A *sphere of influence* is a region in the world where a powerful nation has special economic and political privileges. In these regions, foreigners did pretty much as they pleased. While the driving force to build overseas empires was economic, other factors played a role, as well.

Nationalism

Nationalism, an intense loyalty to one's country and its culture, began to grow among European nations between 1870 and 1914. Nationalists believed that **colonies** and spheres of influence added to the strength and power of their nation. Western nations began a race to increase their empires overseas. Western nations saw this race to gain colonies as a matter of honor; they would not sit back and watch as territorial conquests



went to rival nations. This race led to both rivalries and **alliances** among nations. These rivalries and *alliances* led to the outbreak of many small wars and, finally, to World War I in 1914.

Missionary Motives

Europeans also believed that they had the *moral* duty to bring a belief in Christianity to the natives of other lands. Missionaries also educated natives in other Western ways, such as medical, hygienic, and sanitary practices.



People were considered backward if their religion or culture was different from that of the West.

“The White Man’s Burden”

The people of the advanced Western nations believed that they had a *duty* to bring the *Western* ideas and technology to people in undeveloped parts of the world. This belief was commonly known as “the white man’s burden,” a phrase from a poem by Rudyard Kipling. People were considered backward if their religion or culture was different from that of the West. Each industrialized nation believed its civilization and culture to be the best and most suited to be brought to the non-industrialized people of the world. (This belief is called *extreme nationalism*.)

The Relationship between Industrialism and Imperialism

Industrialism led to imperialism, or the race to build overseas empires. Listed below are some the reasons that industrial nations began practicing imperialism.

- **Capitalists** wanted to invest their surplus **capital**, or profits, to build new factories overseas.
- After *capitalists* built their factories in foreign lands, they needed protection. To protect overseas empires, governments built naval and military bases. (The Industrial Revolution produced many advances in weapons.)
- To run overseas factories, capitalists needed a labor force. Imperialists used the natives in their overseas empires as a cheap labor force.



Practice

Use the list below to write the correct term for each definition on the line provided.

alliance	capitalist	nationalism
colony	imperialism	raw materials
capital	industrialized nation	spheres of influence

- _____ 1. a country in which more goods are produced by machine than by hand
- _____ 2. wealth (money or property) that is owned by a company or person and used to produce more wealth
- _____ 3. strong support for the survival, success, and self-rule of one's own country and culture
- _____ 4. natural resources used in the production of goods
- _____ 5. geographic areas controlled by a country and used for its own benefit
- _____ 6. an agreement between countries, groups, or people to work together in doing something
- _____ 7. a region or country controlled by another country
- _____ 8. person whose money and property are used to carry on business; owner of production and manufacturing resources
- _____ 9. a country's policy of extending its rule over other countries or territories



Practice

Answer the following using complete sentences.

1. What needs of the Industrial Revolution caused the United States and the European nations to seek new territories? _____

2. What is meant by the term *sphere of influence*? _____

3. What factor was the driving force to build overseas empires?

4. How did the following beliefs encourage imperialism?

Nationalism: _____

Missionary motives: _____

“The white man’s burden”: _____



The Opium War in China

Europeans had traded with the Chinese people ever since Marco Polo traveled to China in the 13th century. In the 1700s, British merchants developed a profitable trade by bringing in the habit-forming drug opium from India and selling it in China. Many Chinese people became addicted to opium and committed crimes to support their habit. In response, the Chinese government tried to stop the opium trade. As a result of this conflict, war broke out between Great Britain and China. The *Opium War*, as it was called, lasted from 1839 to 1842.



Many Chinese people became addicted to opium.

Great Britain's superior military force defeated the Chinese. In 1842, in a treaty that ended the Opium War, the Chinese were forced to open the door to European trade on a large scale. The Chinese government was too weak and too corrupt to prevent European nations from taking advantage of the Chinese people. The government was also forced to give the island of Hong Kong to the British and open many of its cities to foreign trade. British citizens in these cities were governed by British law, not Chinese laws. The exemption of foreigners from the laws of the nation where they live or do business is called **extraterritoriality**. Great Britain could not hold its privileged trade **monopoly** in China for long, however. Other European nations, Japan, and the United States demanded and received similar trade treaties with the weak Chinese government.

Foreign Influence Expands in China

During the 1850s, the Chinese people rebelled against foreigners. Using their modern weapons, the foreigners easily put down the Chinese rebels. The foreigners then took advantage of the weakened Chinese government by *carving up* China into spheres of influence. Each country was to control the trade in its sphere. Russia, Germany, Britain, and France gained spheres; the United States, however, did not gain its own sphere.



India and Southeast Asia, 1900

The United States feared that it would lose trade rights and benefits in China. In 1899 President William McKinley argued that there should be an **Open Door Policy** in China. The *Open Door Policy* would mean that any country could trade in any part of China. European countries agreed to the Open Door Policy. This policy increased competition for trade between imperialistic nations.

Nationalism Increases in China

Even though European countries controlled most of China's largest cities, China was still a free country. However, the Chinese people resented the presence of foreigners in their country and formed secret societies that pledged to rid the country of *foreign devils*. In 1899 the most famous of those secret groups was the Harmonious Fists, better known as the *Boxers*. Westerners watching them train in martial arts dubbed them the Boxers. In 1900 the Boxers rebelled against the Europeans and Americans. The Boxers surrounded the European sections of cities for months. They carried out widespread attacks on foreigners in every part of China. An



army made up of troops from eight countries (Great Britain, France, Germany, Austria, Italy, Russia, Japan and the United States) responded to the **Boxer Rebellion** and defeated the Chinese Boxers. After the defeat of the Chinese Boxer Rebellion, the victorious foreign governments forced the Chinese government to pay a large fine and give up what little power it still had. Nevertheless, the *Boxer Rebellion* was the beginning of a movement that led to the modern Chinese state.

Imperialism in Japan

In 1853-1854 the United States sent Navy Commander Matthew Perry to Japan. Perry's **mission** was to demand that Japan open its ports to trade. Even though the Japanese did not want foreign trade, they were too weak to refuse Perry. By 1860 Japan, like China, had granted permission to trade and extraterritorial rights to many foreign nations. The Western nations had arrived in Japan.

Westernization in Japan

Japanese rulers believed that their country needed to modernize their social and political systems in order to survive the arrival of the West. To accomplish this goal, Japanese leaders began the **westernization** of Japan. During this time, Japan began to change from a feudal society (ruled by warlords) to a society ruled directly by the emperor. This change was called the *Meiji Restoration*. The emperor began a series of reforms, which by 1877 resulted in the complete destruction of **feudalism**. By the 1880s, Japan had ended its old ways and given its people freedoms and the right to choose their occupations and attend schools. Japan realized that unless it caught up with Western nations in technology and wealth, it would never be safe from foreign control. The government invited foreign experts to Japan to help modernize its country. By 1900 Japan was rapidly becoming the first nation in Asia to industrialize.

Although Japan was growing in strength and power, its leaders felt threatened by the foreign imperialist expansion in Asia. Japan knew that it would need to expand and build an empire to meet its economic needs. Japan quickly became an imperialistic country. The government sent its army to China. As a result of the Sino-Japanese War (1894-1895), Japan **annexed** Taiwan and secured a sphere of influence over Korea. By 1900 Japan was a strong military nation and in 1910 it *annexed* Korea.



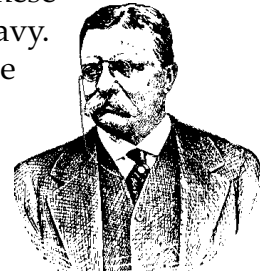
Japan began to end its old ways.



Russo-Japanese War

The Japanese began to use their military to gain valuable territory. They wanted to gain land in China and Korea. The Russians, however, also had interest in those countries. Japan and Russia began arguing over their spheres of influence in China and Korea. When, in 1904, Russia refused to withdraw its army from Manchuria, China, the Japanese navy attacked the Russian navy at Port Arthur. The Russo-Japanese War had begun.

During the Russo-Japanese War (1904-1905), the Japanese nearly destroyed the Russian's entire Pacific Ocean navy. The Russians were forced to ask for a peace treaty. The American President Theodore Roosevelt helped the two countries come to an agreement. Japan was given much Russian territory in China and Korea, as well as Port Arthur. Port Arthur was a particularly valuable harbor in Manchuria that gave Japan easy access to the Asian mainland. The Japanese victory over Russia was the first time in modern history that an Asian country had defeated a European country.



President Theodore Roosevelt helped the Japanese and Russians come to an agreement.



Practice

Use the list below to write the correct term for each definition on the line provided.

annex	mission
Boxer Rebellion	monopoly
extraterritoriality	Open Door Policy
feudalism	westernization

- _____ 1. a system in which people owed loyalty to the wealthy landowners in exchange for protection
- _____ 2. rights of foreigners to be protected by the laws of their own nation
- _____ 3. to increase a nation's borders or land by taking control of a foreign territory, state, or nation
- _____ 4. the control of a product, service, or industry by one company
- _____ 5. American position that made it possible for all countries to trade in China
- _____ 6. non-Western nations shifting towards European or Western culture and practices
- _____ 7. a special job or task
- _____ 8. a revolution started by a secret Chinese society called the *Boxers* to chase Western nations out of China



Practice

Use pages 63-70 and the list below to complete the following statements.

Asian	industrialized	spheres of influence
Boxers	Open Door Policy	trade
corrupt	opium	United States
emperor	Russian	weak
European	Russo-Japanese	westernization
feudal		

1. In the 1830s the British traded _____ for Chinese products.
2. The Chinese government was too _____ and too _____ to prevent other nations from taking advantage of their people.
3. After the rebellions of the 1850s, foreigners carved up China into _____ .
4. President McKinley said that there should be an _____ in China, which meant that any country could _____ in any part of China.
5. In 1900 the Chinese secret society known as the _____ rebelled against the Europeans and Americans.
6. The _____ of Japan began when Commander Perry of the _____ demanded that Japan open its port to trade.



7. After Perry opened Japan to foreign trade, Japan changed from a _____ society ruled by warlords to a modern society ruled by an _____ .
8. By 1900 Japan needed raw materials because it was rapidly becoming an _____ country.
9. The Japanese navy attacked the _____ navy at Port Arthur. The _____ War had begun.
10. The Japanese victory over Russia was the first time an _____ country defeated a _____ country.



Imperialism in Africa

Before the 1800s, Europeans knew very little about the continent of Africa beyond its coastal areas. In the mid-1800s several explorers traveled to the lands of Central Africa. In 1841 David Livingstone, a Scottish doctor and missionary, went to Africa. He sent back to Europe detailed reports of his adventures and discoveries. When Livingstone lost contact with Europe in the late 1860s, a newspaper known as the *New York Herald* hired a journalist named Henry Stanley to track him down. Their famous meeting in 1871 is remembered for Stanley's greeting, "Dr. Livingstone, I presume?"

Well-publicized reports about these explorers and others reawakened European interest in Africa. Business leaders, missionaries, and imperialist leaders in Europe became interested in exploring Africa. Europeans believed that if a culture was different from their own, it was backwards. Europeans viewed Africa, with its rich tradition of tribal customs, as a backward continent that needed to be civilized and saved by modern technology and Christianity. The entire value systems of the many different African tribes were completely misunderstood by Europeans. And, of course, many Europeans wanted to exploit the African continent for profit.



Europeans viewed Africa, despite its rich tradition of tribal customs, as a backward continent because it was different from their own.

From 1875 to 1914, European countries took control of almost 90 percent of Africa. Great Britain, France, Germany, Italy, Portugal, and Spain carved up Africa into spheres of influence. Europeans forced tribal members and villagers to harvest rubber and other crops and to mine metal for them. They also took advantage of Africa's riches, including diamonds and gold. European countries were also in Africa to satisfy their hunger for land. They believed that the more land they had, the more powerful they were. More and more Europeans came to settle in Africa. Against modern weapons, the native populations were powerless to prevent the takeover of their land.



Europeans Carve Up Africa

Britain

Great Britain took over the Cape Colony in South Africa from the Dutch in 1815. Cape Town, a port in this colony, became a supply base for British ships traveling to India. In 1875 the British Prime Minister Benjamin Disraeli purchased control of the Suez Canal from Egypt. Control of the canal and eventually of Egypt meant that British ships could eliminate the long voyage around Africa and reach India and the Far East more quickly. The new trade route connected the Mediterranean and the Red Sea. It became known as the *lifeline of the British Empire*.

Cecil Rhodes, a British empire builder in Africa, encouraged his country to establish an unbroken north-south line of British territory to be linked by a Cape-to-Cairo railroad. By 1914 the British achieved this goal. The British Empire in Africa included South Africa, Rhodesia (now Zimbabwe), British East Africa (now Kenya), Uganda, Egypt, and the Sudan. After World War I, the British acquired German East Africa (now Tanzania).

France

The French presence in Africa began in the early 1800s. By 1830 the French defeated the Muslim tribes in North Africa and gained control of Algeria. By the 1880s, the French had the largest European empire in Africa. Their empire extended from the Mediterranean in the north, to the west coast on the Atlantic Ocean and eastward to the Sudan. Their land holdings in Africa were as large as the continental United States. French expansion in Africa eventually led to clashes with other European nations. Italy, Britain, and Germany challenged France over control of African territory.

Germany

Germany did not become a united nation until 1871. Because of this, they did not enter the race for colonies in Africa until the turn of the century. By 1914 Germany acquired several African colonies. Germany's empire in Africa was not as large as France's or Great Britain's. Its territories were



widely spread throughout Africa. Although Germany's territories in Africa were not as large as Britain's and France's, many European countries worried about Germany's growing military strength.

Other European Empires in Africa

In 1876 King Leopold II of Belgium, along with wealthy Belgian investors, sent agents to the Congo in central Africa, to claim its rich natural resources. Spain and Portugal had the oldest colonies in Africa. Spain controlled Spanish Morocco and Rio de Oro on the Atlantic coast of Africa. Portugal had trading posts on the east and west coasts of Africa. By 1914 Italy controlled Eritrea, Italian Somaliland, and Libya.

The Berlin Conference

European countries raced to establish colonies in Africa. As a result, conflicts and rivalries led to tensions among these countries. Britain, France, and Germany had rival claims to African territories. To ease this crisis and avoid war, the European powers held an international conference in Berlin, Germany in 1884. No African leaders were invited to attend this conference. Conference leaders agreed to recognize King Leopold's claim to the Congo. They also agreed that no European power could claim any part of Africa unless it first had an established government there.

European Rivalries in Africa Continue

European colonists in Africa had strong nationalist feelings for their native countries. This loyalty led to many small wars involving European settlers from different countries. For example, France and Great Britain often fought battles for control of Northeast Africa (Egypt and Sudan). In South Africa, the Boers (Dutch settlers) and British settlers fought the Boer War, which lasted for three years (1899-1902). The British paid a high price in men's lives for this victory. The Boer War revealed to the world that the European imperialist hunger for land and resources was costing Europeans a higher price than they had expected.



Impact of Colonial Rule

The lives of native Africans were forever changed under European rule. African traditions and cultures were replaced with Western European values and culture. Native rulers would no longer be able to govern their people. Problems were created when European countries sent government officials to draw artificial borders that combined or divided rival **ethnic groups**. The imperialist countries of Europe established control over most of the African continent. Only Ethiopia and Liberia remained independent.

Men were forced to leave their native villages and families to support themselves by working on European-owned farms or mines, or on government building projects. For example, King Leopold II of Belgium established stations in the Congo to collect ivory and rubber. To enforce African labor, station employees took hostages. They destroyed villages and *flogged* (whipped severely), maimed, or killed local villagers. In the Congo and across the continent, millions of Africans died under colonial rule.

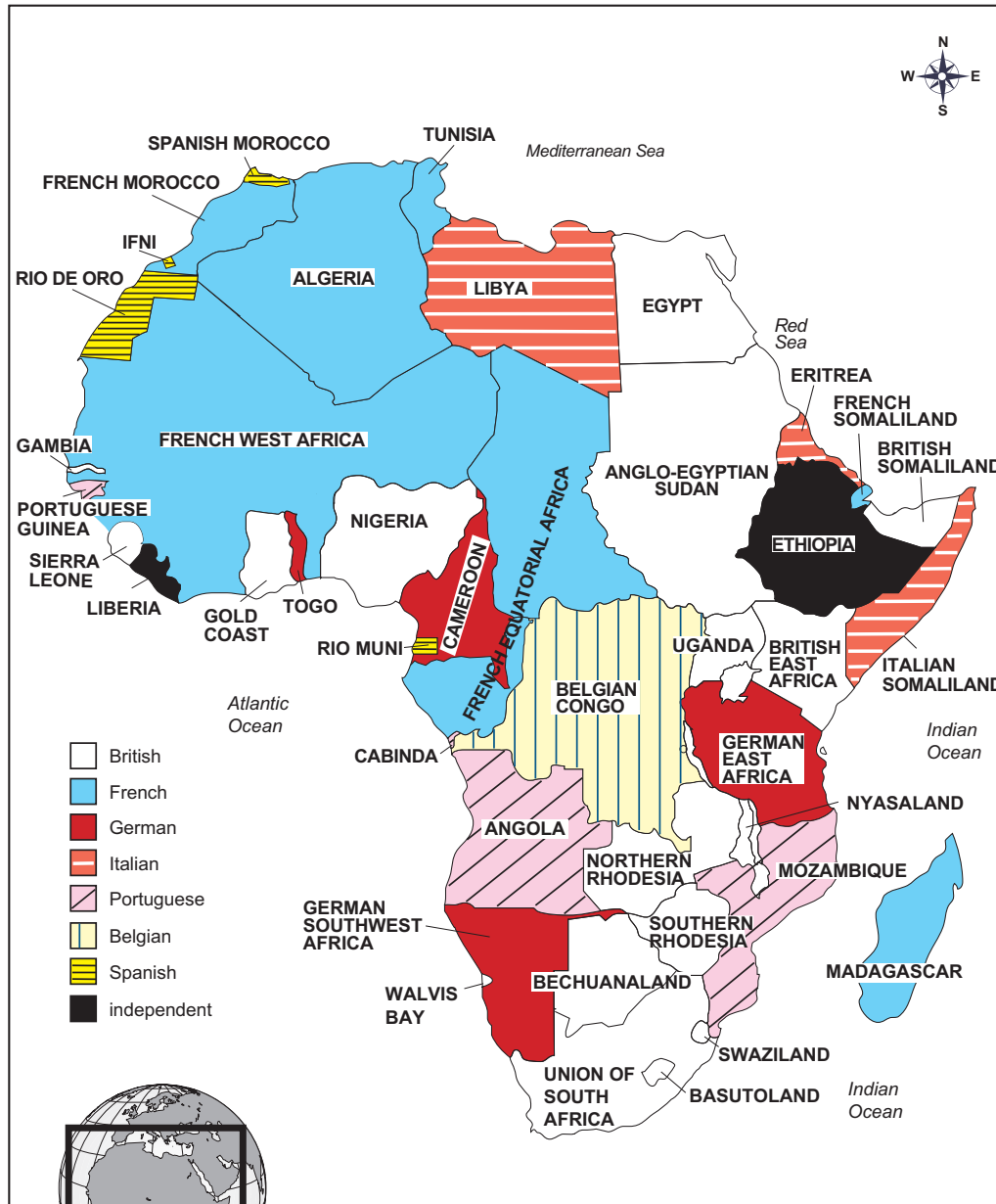


Native African headdress.

Many Africans died of newly introduced diseases, such as smallpox. Thousands of other Africans died fighting to rid their lands of foreign control. Famines occurred because European-owned farms grew mostly **cash crops**. There was not enough food grown to support the African population.

Although there were many negative effects of European colonial rule, in some instances, Europeans brought benefits to Africa. Improvement in sanitation and the building of hospitals, schools, and railroads benefited Africans. Europeans contributed to the improvement of literacy rates among Africans and an increased life span among the general population.

Despite these improvements, African resistance movements grew. Between 1881-1914, Africans throughout the continent resisted European control. Resistance to European imperialism would eventually lead to many African countries gaining their independence.



Africa under Foreign Rule, 1914



Practice

Answer the following using complete sentences.

1. From 1875-1914, how much of Africa was under European control?

2. How did Europeans view the African tribal system? _____

3. What were four things Europeans wanted from the African tribes? _____

4. Why were the natives unable to stop European settlers? _____

5. Why did European settlers from different countries begin fighting among themselves? _____



6. Who fought the Boer War? _____

Why was it fought? _____

7. How were the lives of native Africans changed under European rule? _____

8. Explain both the negative and positive effects of European colonial rule on native Africans. _____



Imperialism in the Ottoman Empire

In the 1600s, the mighty Ottoman Empire stretched over a vast territory that included much of the Balkan Peninsula, Turkey, North Africa, and the Fertile Crescent. The empire began to decline during the 1700s. The many ethnic groups within the empire caused unrest and tensions. When the Ottoman Empire began to crumble in the mid-1800s, European countries began to look at its territories in hopes of expansion. This once great empire became known as the *sick man of Europe*. Each European power feared that the collapse of the Ottoman Empire would enable another European nation to take over Ottoman lands. This would upset the balance of power in Europe.



The Ottoman Empire, late 1800s



Russia was the first European country to extend its influence within Ottoman territory. Russia wanted to control the Bosphorus and Dardanelles—straits connecting Russian's ports in the Black Sea with the Mediterranean. The Crimean War erupted in 1854 when Russia's aggressive moves caused Great Britain and France to side with the Ottomans to stop the threat of Russian expansion. The Crimean War ended in Russia's defeat.

Despite help from Great Britain and France, the Ottoman Empire continued to lose lands. When the Slavic people in the Balkans rebelled



village fight

against the Ottomans, the Russians came to their aid. The Ottomans eventually lost control of the Balkans. Romania, Montenegro, Bosnia, Herzegovina, and the lands that became known as *Bulgaria* became independent or were now under Russian influence. The Ottoman Empire also lost land in Africa as well. By the beginning of World War I, the Ottoman Empire was smaller than its former size.

Imperialism in the Middle East

While Great Britain opposed Russian imperialism, it saw nothing wrong with pursuing its own imperialist goals. Great Britain quickly gained control of many key territories in the Middle East. Great Britain's government understood the military and economic importance of the Middle East. The region was important because of its waterways; the Suez Canal; its valuable oil resources; and its strategic location at the crossroads of Europe, Asia, and Africa. Britain also had the military muscle to take control of the Middle East and its huge **reserves** of valuable oil that were so necessary for industrialization.



Egypt

Both Britain and France owned shares in the French company that had built the Suez Canal. In the 1870s, Great Britain obtained financial control of the canal. This canal became an important waterway for British ships trading with British colonies in Asia and Africa. It connected the Mediterranean with the Red Sea. By 1882 British troops were stationed in Egypt to protect Great Britain's investment in the canal. Eventually, in 1914, Egypt became a **protectorate** of Great Britain.



Persia

In the early 1800s, Europeans began to gain influence in Persia (present-day Iran). Both Russia and Britain wanted to bring Persia under their sphere of influence. Russia wanted to gain access to the Persian Gulf and the Indian Ocean. Britain wanted to use Afghanistan as a **buffer zone** between India and other European countries competing for influence there. Because of the threat of invasion, Persia was forced to sign treaties with Britain and Russia. This allowed both countries to control Persia's government.

By 1857 Persia was forced to give up all its claims to Afghanistan. Great Britain and Russia divided Persia into zones and created their own spheres of influence in each zone. When oil was discovered in Persia in 1908, Western businesses gained concessions from Persian rulers to develop Persia's oil fields. Tensions soon developed between the Persian people and weak and corrupt Persian rulers who wanted to sell concessions to Europeans.

European imperialists gained control of many Muslim lands. They created many spheres of influence. Great Britain's control of the Middle East was only one reason why it was the greatest of all imperialist countries before 1914. Britain had a large and strong navy, which could defend its territories around the world. The British Empire stretched from Asia to Africa to Australia to North America. But the British people generally thought of India as the *jewel in the crown* of the British Empire.

Imperialism in India

The British East India Company Controls India

British traders first became interested in India in the 1600s. The Moghul dynasty, which ruled India during the 1500s and 1600s, collapsed in the early 1700s, causing India to be divided into many weak but independent states. Taking advantage of the situation, the British East India Company, a powerful trading company, began building trading posts and forts in strategic locations in India. The French East India Company did the same. Soon a rivalry grew between France and Britain over the control of India. By 1757 the British East India Company was a leading power in India. The area ruled by the company grew over time. Eventually, the British East



India

India Company directly or indirectly governed all of India. In 1763 the British defeated France in the Seven Years' War and gained control of French territory in India and other French possessions.

The British East India Company restricted the Indian economy. Indian manufacturers were not allowed to compete with British manufactured goods. Instead, India became a major supplier of raw materials for British manufacturing. Its large population provided a market for British manufactured goods. British

manufacturers and workers depended upon India to purchase their textiles and machines. British merchants needed India's exports of tea and raw *jute*, a strong coarse fiber for making cloth.

The Sepoy Rebellion

The British government built schools, roads, railway systems, and hospitals. Many British customs and laws were made part of the Indian way of life. Many Indians believed that the British were trying to convert them to Christianity. Most Indians were Hindus and some were Muslim. Although the people of India had accepted the British system of democratic government, the people of India never changed their culture and **caste** system. Religion always remained the most important focus of Indian life. Indians began to resent the British.

In 1857, **sepoys**, or Indian soldiers under British command, rebelled against foreign rule and British influence. The immediate cause of the **revolt** was the British requirement that the soldiers use a rifle with cartridges that the sepoys believed were greased with beef or pork fat. In order to fire the rifles, the sepoys had to bite off the seal of the cartridge for fast reloading. Both Hindus, who believed the cow to be sacred, and Muslims, whose religion forbade them to eat pork, were angered by this.



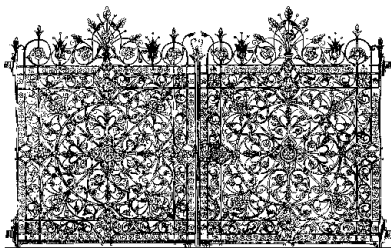
Hindu woman



An uprising spread throughout India. With the help of the British government, the British East India Company was able to put down the rebellion. Indians could not unite against the British because of weak leadership and disagreements between Hindus and Muslims. After putting down the rebellion, the British government assumed control of the country, ruling British India directly as a colony and ruling the native states indirectly as protectorates. In 1877 the British Prime Minister Benjamin Disraeli proclaimed Queen Victoria *Empress of India*.



Indian Nationalism



Bombay gates

Indians began to demand a greater role in governing themselves. They resented a system that made them second-class citizens in their own country. The British **discriminated** against the native Indian population. Europeans held top positions in both industry and government. Indians were paid less than Europeans and were banned from certain jobs. As resentment against foreign control grew, an Indian nationalist movement began. Indian nationalists formed two nationalist groups, the Indian National Congress in 1885 and the Muslim League in 1906. In the early 1900s, both groups worked towards Indian independence. Conflicts between the British and Indians continued in the years to come. India would not achieve independence until 1947.



Practice

Match each definition with the correct term. Write the letter on the line provided.

- | | |
|--|-----------------|
| _____ 1. Indian soldier who served in an army set up by the French or English East India Company | A. buffer zone |
| _____ 2. an unchangeable social group into which a person is born | B. cash crop |
| _____ 3. something that is set aside for future use | C. caste |
| _____ 4. large group of people who share the same language and cultural background | D. ethnic group |
| _____ 5. country with its own government but under the control of an outside power | E. protectorate |
| _____ 6. region that lies between two rival countries, cutting down the threat of conflict | F. reserves |
| _____ 7. a crop grown by a farmer for sale, not for personal use | G. sepoy |



Practice

Answer the following using complete sentences.

1. Which country gained control of key territories in the Middle East after the decline of the Ottoman Empire? _____

2. What valuable resource did the British need to fuel their industrialization? _____

3. How did Great Britain defend its territories around the world?

4. How did the British East India Company influence Indian life? _____

5. What type of government did the British bring to India? _____



6. What practices remained the same in India despite British rule?

7. Explain the cause of the Sepoy Rebellion.



Imperialism in the Pacific Rim and Southeast Asia

There are hundreds of islands both north and south of the equator in the Pacific Ocean. Some of these islands are quite large, such as Australia, New Zealand, the Philippine Islands, and the East Indies. North and east of these islands are many smaller islands that appear no larger than dots on a map. All of the islands in the Pacific were attractive to the Western nations as places where their ocean vessels could stop and refuel. At these Pacific islands, ships could also replace food and water supplies. Western Europeans also realized the value of having Pacific colonies as sources of *cash crops* and mineral resources. As Western nations built up their naval forces, these islands became valuable places to set up bases. At these bases, military ships could have repairs made and **ammunition** replenished.





Western Europeans Compete for Colonies

During the early 19th century, the Dutch East India Company controlled the Indonesian Islands. They came to be known as the *Dutch East Indies*. The Dutch East Indies (today known as Indonesia) were rich in resources like tin and oil. The Dutch also ran large farms called *plantations*. Their chief cash crop was rubber.

The French took over Southeast Asia, which eventually was known as *French Indochina*. The French government exploited French Indochina's resources. Millions of people **migrated** from other areas of Asia to Southeast Asia to work on plantations and in mines. These migrants included Muslims, Christians, Buddhists, and Hindus. This changed the cultural makeup of Southeast Asia. The economy of French Indochina was based on cash crops like rice or the valuable resources of rubber and tin that could be sold on the world market for profit.

On an island off the coast of the Malay Peninsula called *Singapore*, the British established a major trading port. Its ideal location enabled the British to establish a trading base and eventually gain colonies in Malaysia and Burma (now called Myanmar). Siam (now called Thailand) was the only independent country in Southeast Asia. It acted as a buffer zone between British and French colonies. Siam was able to modernize its country without falling under the control of an imperialist nation.

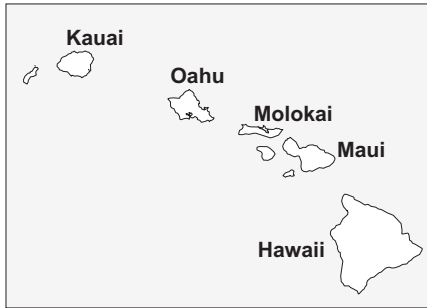
Great Britain, with its powerful navy, also took possession of Australia, New Zealand, and all of the Fiji Islands. The United States, Great Britain, and Germany all held interests in the Samoan Islands. Eventually Great Britain gave up its interest. There Germany took control of an island group called *Western Samoa*, and the United States took over a small area called *American Samoa*, which included the important naval base at Pago Pago.

The United States Acquires the Philippines and the Hawaiian Islands

As a result of the Spanish-American War in 1898, the United States acquired the Philippine Islands, Puerto Rico, and Guam. Like other imperialist nations, the United States exploited the Philippine economy. Many Filipinos resented trading one colonizer—the Spanish—for



another—the United States. Although the United States built roads, hospitals, and schools that benefited the people, Filipino nationalists still sought independence for their country.



Hawaiian Islands

The Hawaiian Islands were important to the United States in the Pacific. Not only are these islands not far from California, but the islands are fertile, with thriving sugar crops. Wealthy sugar planters, who were mostly Americans, and the native rulers of the islands disagreed on who should have political control of Hawaii. Native rulers wanted to keep foreigners from interfering with the islands.

American sugar planters had gained great political power in Hawaii. It was in their interest to have Hawaii become a part of the United States. This would enable them to sell Hawaiian sugar for greater profits in the United States. United States business leaders pushed for the *annexation* of Hawaii, or adding Hawaii to the United States.

In 1893 a Hawaiian ruler named Queen Liliuokalani took the throne of Hawaii. She attempted to write a new constitution that would restore her powers at the expense of the wealthy plantation owners. She wanted to minimize foreign influence and preserve *Hawaii for the Hawaiians*. That same year, a group of American businessmen overthrew the Hawaiian government. The queen was removed from power. A wealthy plantation owner named Sanford B. Dole became the president of the new Republic of Hawaii. In 1898, Congress annexed, or took control of, the islands. Hawaii eventually became the 50th state of the United States in 1959. Even today, there are Hawaiian natives who resent the past actions of the United States Congress.



native Hawaiians



Imperialism in Latin America

Think back to what you've read about imperialism in other parts of the world. The Western industrialized countries often **colonized**, or took political control of, lands in foreign countries such as China or Africa. By the late 1800s, however, Western nations had learned that they could not control Latin American countries. The French, Spanish, and Portuguese had all tried and failed. So imperialism looked different in Latin America. Western nations, particularly the United States, invested in and set up businesses in Latin America. They saw that valuable resources such as silver, gold, oil, and copper could be extracted from Latin America.

In the countries of Argentina, Uruguay, Chile, Brazil, Cuba, and others, local populations maintained, or appeared to maintain, control of their governments. Foreigners, with the aid of local governments, developed mines, plantations, and factories, as well as railroads and ports to ship resources out of these countries. Some of the money from the sale of these resources and goods remained in Latin America, and many big cities were modernized by foreign investments. But much of the money and many of the valuable resources ended up in the Western industrialized nations.

Conflict Over Cuba Leads to the Spanish-American War

In 1898 the United States became involved in a dispute with Spain. Spain still held colonies in Latin America. The main cause of tension between Spain and the United States was Cuba, a Spanish colony in the West Indies. The Cubans revolted against the Spanish rulers in their country. The Spanish responded by ruthlessly suppressing these revolts. Newspapers created great sympathy in the United States for Cubans. Many Americans wanted to help the Cubans win their independence from Spain. Other Americans had valuable investments in plantations and factories that they wanted the American military to protect.

When new uprisings developed in January 1898, President William McKinley sent the battleship *USS Maine* into the Havana harbor to protect American citizens. Tensions in Cuba increased dramatically when the *USS Maine* mysteriously blew up in Havana harbor. Newspapers in the United States blamed Spain for the deed. (This claim has since been proven false. Historians now commonly believe that the battleship *USS Maine* was sunk by an implosion, or an internal explosion on the ship, rather than an explosion caused by a bomb on the outside of the ship.)



These tensions eventually led the United States and Spain into the Spanish-American War. It took the United States less than a year to defeat Spain. As a result, Spain gave the United States Puerto Rico and agreed to leave Cuba. An American protectorate was established over Cuba. A semi-independent government took over in 1902 under a constitution approved by the United States. This constitution contained a clause that allowed the United States to intervene whenever necessary to preserve Cuban independence.



Cuba and the Panama Canal

The United States also battled Spain in the Pacific. After the United States drove Spain out of the Pacific, the United States gained the Philippine Islands, Guam, and Wake Island. The chief American benefit from the war with Spain was the **acquisition** or gaining of a large Pacific empire.

The Panama Canal

Following the Spanish-American War, the United States took on a new role in world affairs. It now had interests and possessions in different parts of the world. To both protect and increase its interests, the United States needed to develop a strong navy. The United States faced a difficult problem, however. Its navies in the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans were



always separated by a large land mass: Latin America. If trouble broke out in the Pacific, the United States Navy stationed in the Atlantic Ocean had to travel all the way around the tip of South America, a trip of about 13,000 miles! If the United States could build a canal through the tiny Latin American country of Panama, the coast-to-coast journey would be shortened by half. The canal would allow the United States Navy the ability to move quickly to defend both of its coasts. In the 1880s, a French company had tried but failed to build a canal across Panama.

The Roosevelt Corollary

In 1903 Panama was a province of Colombia. President Theodore Roosevelt offered \$10 million plus a yearly payment for the right to build the canal. The Colombian government refused the offer and demanded more money. In 1903 the United States responded by encouraging the Panamanians to revolt and gain their independence from Colombia. American forces stationed in Panama helped Panama to succeed in a revolt against Colombia. The new Panamanian government gave the United States a 10-mile wide zone in which to build the canal.



President Theodore Roosevelt

Once the United States built the **Panama Canal**, it had to protect it. If a European nation gained control of nearby waterways or land, it could cut the United States off from the canal. To insure American interests, Roosevelt, who led the United States from 1901-1909, enforced the *Monroe Doctrine*, a policy that vowed to protect Latin America from European **intervention**. As interest in Latin America grew, Roosevelt proposed in 1904 what was to be called the **Roosevelt Corollary** to the Monroe Doctrine. The *Roosevelt Corollary* gave the United States the right of *police power* in the Western Hemisphere.

The Roosevelt Corollary was used to justify American *intervention* in Latin America on many occasions. The United States sent troops to Nicaragua, Honduras, and the Dominican Republic. In Haiti, the United States stopped a rebellion in 1915, and stayed for 20 years. Many Latin Americans protested this intervention by the United States, but they were powerless to stop the United States.

Many Latin Americans today believe that they have been treated poorly by the United States. They believe that the United States is not concerned with the poverty of the Latin American people. They believe that the United States was and still is only concerned with its own interests.



The Panama Canal was the world's greatest engineering feat.

Courtesy of the J. N. "Ding" Darling Foundation

Imperialism: Abuses and Benefits



Native workers were required to work long hours for little pay.

The European and American race to colonize the world led to many problems. Conflicts between nations over which country had control over what land were common.

Imperialism burdened taxpayers to finance colonial improvements and defense. It also helped to spread the anti-democratic belief that colonial people are inferior and aroused colonial ill will toward the ruling peoples.

Imperialist nations drained wealth from the colonies. They maintained unbalanced economies in many colonies by emphasizing mineral and agricultural production and discouraging colonial manufacturing.



Native workers were required to work long hours for little pay. Imperialist nations assumed an attitude of racial and cultural superiority and discriminated against colonial peoples. They often degraded native cultures and introduced new vices and diseases. Eventually this aroused in the colonies feelings of anger toward imperialists, who were thought of as *occupiers* and **oppressors**. The inability of European nations to control their appetite for more land was a major cause of World War I.

Despite the many ill effects of imperialism, many good changes came about as well.

- Imperialist nations developed their colonies' natural resources and improved transportation and communication.
- They furthered improvements in agriculture and established industries; workers were trained in new skills and employment.
- Schools, hospitals, and sanitation projects were constructed.
- The introduction of Western culture furthered progress in democracy, science, and self-government.

Imperialism was also appreciated at home by the colonial powers.

- It raised the standard of living in the parent country.
- Manufacturers were provided with cheap raw materials and with protected markets, and factory workers gained steadier employment. Investors found profitable business opportunities, and exporters and importers were able to increase their trade.

The Industrial Revolution brought on many outstanding technological achievements. However, many industrialized nations were unwilling to use these achievements for the benefit of world peace. Instead, many industrialized nations turned to imperialism to increase their wealth.



Practice

Use pages 90-97 and the list below to complete the following statements.

acquisition	New Zealand	Puerto Rico
Australia	Pacific	refuel
Cuba	Panama	Roosevelt Corollary
enforced	Panama Canal	sugar planters
Guam	Philippine Islands	United States
imperialism	poverty	Wake Island

1. Islands in the Pacific include _____ , _____ , and the _____ .
2. Western nations wanted Pacific islands as stops for their ocean vessels to _____ .
3. The _____ wanted the United States to annex the Hawaiian Islands; however, the native rulers were against interference by the United States.
4. _____ in Latin American countries was different from that in China and Africa.
5. In 1898 Spain and the _____ fought a war over Cuba.
6. President Theodore Roosevelt _____ the Monroe Doctrine.



7. The _____ gave the United States the right of *police power* in the Western Hemisphere.
8. The Latin American people believed that the United States was not concerned with the _____ of the Latin American people.
9. As a result of the Spanish-American War, Spain agreed to leave _____ and give the United States _____ .
10. From Spain the United States also gained the Philippine Islands, _____ and _____ .
11. The chief American benefit from the war with Spain was the _____ or gaining of a large _____ empire.
12. The United States built a massive waterway known as the _____ that cut through a narrow section of the Central American country of _____ .



Practice

Use the list below to write the correct term for each definition on the line provided.

acquisition
ammunition
colonize
discriminate
intervention

migrate
oppressors
Panama Canal
revolt
Roosevelt Corollary

- _____ 1. Roosevelt's announcement that no nation but the United States could interfere in Latin American affairs
- _____ 2. to interfere in another nation's affairs to force or prevent an action
- _____ 3. the manmade waterway that is a shortcut from the Atlantic Ocean to the Pacific Ocean
- _____ 4. people who control or rule by cruel or unjust means
- _____ 5. to establish a settlement in a new land and maintain political control
- _____ 6. an uprising against authority
- _____ 7. to treat differently from others because of prejudices
- _____ 8. the gaining or acquiring of a possession through one's own actions or efforts
- _____ 9. bullets, shells, grenades, bombs, and other materials that can be fired from guns or exploded in some way
- _____ 10. to go from one country, region, or place to settle in another



Practice

Use the map on page 78 and the chart below to write the correct name of **one** colony in Africa in 1914 that belonged to that country.

European Imperialism in Africa	
European Country	Name of Colony
Belgium	
France	
Germany	
Great Britain	
Italy	
Portugal	
Spain	



Review

The Industrial Revolution changed the way many Western nations thought about overseas territories and nations. Great Britain, the United States, and other industrialized nations now needed raw materials to run their factories and to use in the manufacturing of goods. Many European nations and the United States began to compete for land in China, Japan, Africa, the Middle East, the Pacific, and Latin America.



Chinese merchant

Some lands offered raw materials such as coal and iron, gold and silver, and spices and fruits and vegetables. Natives in these lands were often used as cheap labor in mines, plantations, and factories. Other territories, such as the islands in the Pacific, were needed as points where Western nations could stop to refuel their ships. Islands also could be used as naval bases for military ships.

Many Western nations saw themselves as *modern* nations that needed to bring *backward* or underdeveloped nations into the age of science and technology. Missionaries also went into underdeveloped nations to spread Christianity.

Although these colonized nations gained some benefits from imperialism, most gains were made by imperialist nations. Imperialist nations took much wealth from their colonies and often changed colonies' cultures to look like their own.



Practice

Match each definition with the correct term. Write the letter on the line provided.

- | | |
|--|-------------------------|
| _____ 1. strong support for the survival, success, and self-rule of one's own country and culture | A. extraterritoriality |
| _____ 2. geographic areas controlled by a country and used for its own benefit | B. imperialism |
| _____ 3. non-Western nations shifting towards European or Western cultures and practices | C. nationalism |
| _____ 4. American position that made it possible for all countries to trade in China | D. Open Door Policy |
| _____ 5. President Theodore Roosevelt's announcement that no nation but the United States could interfere in Latin American affairs; amendment to the <i>Monroe Doctrine</i> | E. Roosevelt Corollary |
| _____ 6. rights of foreigners to be protected by the laws of their own nation | F. spheres of influence |
| _____ 7. the practice of establishing colonies; extending the rule of one country over other countries or colonies | G. westernization |

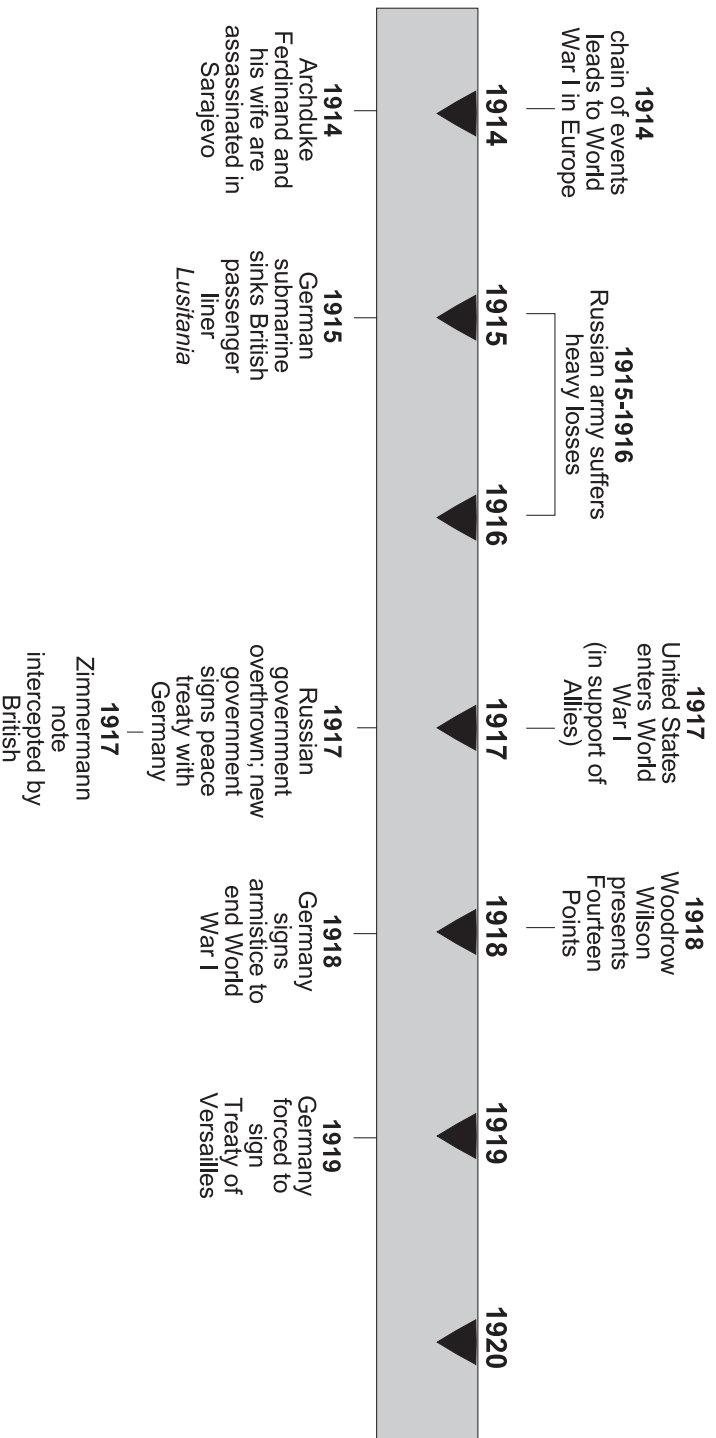
Unit 4: World War I and Its Aftermath (1914-1920)

This unit emphasizes the events leading up to World War I.

Unit Focus

- European rivalries and entangling alliances
- chain of events that led to World War I
- underlying causes of World War I
- key battles of World War I
- role of United States in World War I
- new technology that changed the nature of warfare
- long-term and short-term effects of the Versailles Treaty

Unit 4 Timeline





Vocabulary

Use the vocabulary words and definitions below as a reference for this unit.

- abdicate** to give up power
- alliance** an agreement between countries, groups, or people to work together in doing something
- ammunition** bullets, shells, grenades, bombs, and other materials that can be fired from guns or exploded in some way
- armistice** a temporary agreement to stop fighting; a truce before a formal peace treaty
- arms race** a rivalry among nations to gain the greatest military power
- artillery** large, heavy firearms
- assassinate** to murder, usually for political reasons
- assault** a sudden, violent attack
- desertion** the act of leaving a military force without permission
- diplomat** a person who represents his or her government in relations with other governments
- draft** a government's selection of men for required military service



- exaggerate** to make something seem larger or greater than it is
- flank** the right or left side of a military force
- front** a place where fighting is going on between two or more countries
- heir** the person who is next in line for the throne of a country
- militarism** the glorification of armed strength
- minority** the smaller part of a group
- mobilize** to organize resources for combat
- neutral** belonging to neither side in a war
- offensive** a course of attack
- reparations** payment for war damages
- statesmen** persons skilled in carrying out public or national affairs
- trenches** long ditches dug in the ground to protect soldiers in battle
- ultimatum** final set of demands
- victors** those who are successful in battle



World War I (1914-1920)

World War I: The War to End All Wars

World War I, once called *the war to end all wars*, broke out in Europe in August 1914. By the time it was over in November 1918, 8.5 million soldiers had been killed. Twenty-one million soldiers had been wounded. More soldiers died in World War I than had died in all the wars since the year A.D. 1100. Millions of civilians were left without homes. Cities and the countryside were destroyed. The war cost over 338 billion dollars. Even the *winners* paid a huge price. Those who won the war lost almost as much as those who had been defeated.

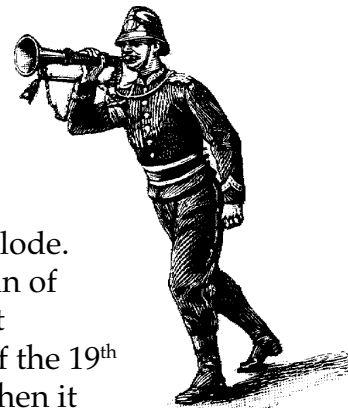


Germany was no longer ruled by a kaiser (king), and Russia was no longer ruled by a czar following World War I.

By the war's end, political systems throughout Europe had been changed. The Austria-Hungary Empire and the Ottoman Empire had been completely destroyed. Germany was no longer ruled by a kaiser (king), and Russia was no longer ruled by a czar. In place of those monarchies, Germany developed a democracy, and Russia became a Communist country.

Europe had entered the 20th century as the economic and military power of the world. Great Britain and Germany had developed as successful, industrialized nations. Both had powerful navies. France had recovered remarkably from its economic and military defeats in the 19th century. But as European nations grew stronger, they developed many disagreements and conflicts. In the latter half of the 19th century and beginning of the 20th century, European leaders were unable to find a peaceful way of solving their problems.

Eventually, Europe became a hot spot ready to explode. One small battle or war could quickly set off a chain of events leading to the *Great War*: World War I. What Europe thought would be a short war (like those of the 19th century) turned into a bitter, four-year struggle. When it was over, there were **victors**, but there were no winners.

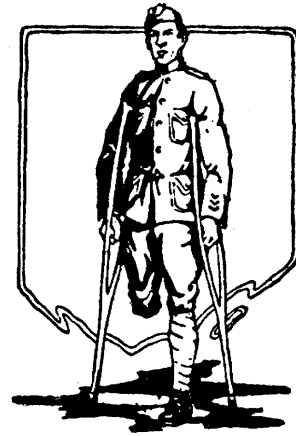




Origins of World War I

As you read in Unit 3, the Industrial Revolution encouraged policies of *imperialism* in industrialized nations. As these nations sought to gain colonies and overseas markets, they often developed conflicts with one another. *Nationalism* fueled their desire to show their power and strength by expanding their control of territories and countries. Nationalism often caused nations to compete for valuable land and countries.

Nationalism also increased **militarism**, or the industrial nations' glorification of military strength. This then led to different **alliances**, or agreements, between countries. As you can see, each cause led to many effects. The Industrial Revolution led to imperialism, which led to nationalism, which led to *militarism*, which led to *alliances*. And all of these effects eventually led to World War I. One way to remember this is to use the mnemonic **MAIN**, which stands for the following.



Militarism
Alliances
Imperialism
Nationalism

Conflicts Leading to World War I

Changes in the Balance of Power

During the 19th century, the shape of Germany and Italy had changed. Germany had been composed of a group of states, each state often having different interests. Under Bismarck, Germany unified into a powerful country. Although far less powerful, Italy had also gone from being a collection of small, weak states to a unified nation. These changes created a change in Europe's balance of power. France and Great Britain grew concerned about the strength of Germany. However, having just been defeated by Germany, France was in no condition to stop German industrial and military growth. And France and Austria-Hungary had lost control over Italy after its unification.

In the period before World War I, Great Britain and Germany were the strongest countries. France was next; Russia and Austria-Hungary were



third. Each of these countries had certain goals. Often, the goals of one country were in conflict with the goals of another country. The conflicts discussed below were some of the major causes of World War I.

- Austria-Hungary wanted to stop *nationalist* movements within their multi-national empire, especially in the Balkans (Southeast Europe). The Austria-Hungary Empire included millions of Croats, Bohemians, and other Slavic peoples, many of whom wanted political freedom and self-rule. Austria-Hungary, however, wanted to maintain rule over its **minority** populations in Eastern Europe.
- Working against the political interests of Austria-Hungary was Russia. Russia wanted to gain influence in the Balkans to secure a warm-water port that would be open all year. Russian ships could not operate during the winter because Russian ports in the north were frozen for several months. Russia hoped to gain access to the seaports of the Mediterranean Sea. Russia believed that their aims could only be achieved through war with Austria-Hungary and the Ottoman Empires.
- Germany in the early 20th century began a policy of militarism. Germany wanted to be the dominant military power in Europe. Between 1890 and 1914, the German army and navy had expanded. Germany's chief rivals, France and Russia, had developed a military alliance. Germany also wanted to expand its influence in Africa and Asia.
- France wanted a chance to get back the territories of Alsace and Lorraine—lands lost to Germany in the Franco-Prussian War. To this end, France had strengthened its military ties to Russia and built a larger army to keep up with Germany's growing strength.
- Great Britain did not want Germany to become a threat to its overseas empires in Africa and Asia. Britain wanted to remain the strongest colonial empire in the world. The British were concerned about Germany's growing interest in building a railroad through the Balkans, which might endanger Britain's access to India. Great



Britain continued to devote more and more of its resources to expanding their already powerful navy. This caused strained relations between Germany and Great Britain.

- In the Russo-Turkish War (1877–1878), Russia went to war with Turkey on behalf of the Slavic people in the Balkans. Russia's imperialist ambitions were to use the conflict between the Slavic people and the Turks as an excuse to expand into Balkan territory. Russia forced upon Turkey a peace treaty that gave Russia the most influence in the Balkans. The Treaty of San Stefano (1878) created a large Russian-controlled Bulgarian state. Great Britain, Germany, and Austria-Hungary were afraid of Russian influence in the Balkan area. In 1878 Great Britain and Germany forced Russia to give up most of the territory it won in the Russo-Turkish War the year before. At the Congress of Berlin in 1878, the European powers divided Bulgaria into three parts. One part remained under Turkish rule. Serbia, Montenegro, and Romania won independence. Britain gained control of Cyprus, and Austria-Hungary won the provinces of Bosnia and Herzegovina. Russia lost its war gains. The Ottoman empire lost European territory.

Entangling Alliances

The shift in the balance of power caused all of the European countries to make alliances with each other. Once two countries joined in an alliance, they became a threat to other countries. So other countries joined an alliance to protect themselves. Quite quickly, Europe split into two sides.

Germany and Austria-Hungary joined in the first important military and political alliance. This alliance, or agreement, stated that Germany and Austria-Hungary would come to each other's aid if Russia attacked one of them. Germany then formed a similar alliance with Italy to oppose France in case of attack. Germany, Italy, and Austria-Hungary were now part of the *Triple Alliance*.



Europe on the Eve of the War, 1914

Similar agreements were made between France, Russia, and Great Britain. They agreed to protect each other in case Germany, Italy, or Austria-Hungary attacked them. The agreement or treaty between France, Russia, and Great Britain was called the *Triple Entente*, or *friendly understanding*.

The period from 1870 to 1914 was a time when European countries formed entangling alliances. These entangling alliances were made so that if one country attacked another, all countries would be forced to declare war on each other. Obviously, this system of alliances caused great tension throughout Europe. A dispute between any two powers could draw the entire continent into war. This period from 1870 to 1914 was a time of too many **diplomats** representing their governments and not enough **statesmen** skilled in carrying out public and national affairs. In other words, too many deals were made, and there were not enough strong and skillful leaders.

Arms Race

General feelings of unrest throughout Europe encouraged the desire for **artillery**, or large, heavy firearms. The Industrial Revolution provided



European countries with the technology to build more powerful weapons at a fast pace. Industries developed to produce guns, cannons, and other modern weapons. Each country tried to produce more weapons than another. Along with this **arms race**, nations increased the size of their reserve armies. More men were **drafted** for longer periods of time. In case of an **assault**, or attack, these reserves would be **mobilized**, or called to active duty, to serve in the army. These events did not give Europeans a sense of security; instead it appeared that European countries were headed for war.

Imperialism and Economics

During the period before World War I, imperialism played an important role in causing competition and conflicts among nations. Nations competed with each other as never before. Competition grew as European nations sought new colonies and spheres of influence for trade. France and Great Britain were very worried about the rapid growth of Germany. They did not want Germany to claim too many colonies overseas.



Newspapers helped fuel nationalism and fear among its readers.

Newspapers Spread Fear and Encourage Nationalism

Newspapers **exaggerated** the problems between nations. For example, British newspapers printed stories saying that the Germans were out to destroy the British Empire. German newspapers printed stories which accused France and Great Britain of being *hungry* for more land. Newspapers helped fuel nationalism and fear among their readers.

Crises in Morocco and the Balkans Strengthen Alliances between Nations

The Moroccan Crises of 1905 and 1911

In 1905, Germany challenged France's influence in Morocco. The German Kaiser, visited Morocco and pledged his support for that country's independence. Not ready for war, France agreed to settle the crisis of



Morocco at an international conference. At the conference in 1905, the nations decided that Morocco's independence was secure and that France's special interests in that country would continue.

Hostilities concerning control of Morocco intensified again in 1911 between Triple Entente and Triple Alliance powers. Germany and France *averted*, or avoided, war when both nations agreed to a compromise. Germany withdrew its objections in exchange for a small area of the French Congo. The Moroccan crises of 1905 and 1911 were setbacks for Germany and brought France and Great Britain into closer alliance.

The Balkan Crisis of 1912–1913

The second major crisis took place in the Balkans. Russia wanted to control a waterway to the Mediterranean. With Russian approval, four Balkan nations, known as the *Balkan League*—Serbia, Montenegro, Bulgaria, and Greece—warred against, defeated, and seized territory from the Ottoman Empire. As a result of the war, the Ottomans lost all of their European territory with the exception of Istanbul. Soon after the war, the Balkan states began to fight among themselves over lands they had gained in the war with the Ottomans. The fighting finally ended in 1913 with the Treaty of Bucharest. The disputed land was redistributed. The European powers tried to preserve the existing balance of power to prevent Russia and Austria-Hungary from gaining more influence in the Balkans.

Austria was opposed to Russian influence in the Balkans. Austria feared that a powerful Serbia would cause unrest among Serbians and other Slavic peoples in the Austria-Hungary Empire. Germany supported Austrian ambitions to control the Balkans. The Balkan crisis of 1912–1913 brought Russia and Serbia closer together and intensified Russian and Serbian hatred for Austria-Hungary.

At the beginning of 1914, Europe was on the brink of war. Allies grew closer than ever as tension throughout Europe mounted.



Practice

Match each definition with the correct term. Write the letter on the line provided.

- | | | |
|-------|--|---------------|
| _____ | 1. the glorification of armed strength | A. alliance |
| _____ | 2. the smaller part of a group | B. arms race |
| _____ | 3. an agreement between countries, groups, or people to work together in doing something | C. artillery |
| _____ | 4. persons skilled in carrying out public or national affairs | D. assault |
| _____ | 5. large, heavy firearms | E. draft |
| _____ | 6. a rivalry among nations to gain the greatest military power | F. exaggerate |
| _____ | 7. a government's selection of men for required military service | G. militarism |
| _____ | 8. a sudden, violent attack | H. minority |
| _____ | 9. to organize resources for combat | I. mobilize |
| _____ | 10. to make something seem larger or greater than it is | J. statesmen |
| _____ | 11. those who are successful in battle | K. victors |



Practice

Complete the following **outline** using pages 109-115.

I. General information

A. World War I started in _____ (place) in
_____ (date)

B. Ended in _____ (date)

C. Losses

1. Number of soldiers killed: _____

2. Number of soldiers wounded: _____

3. Cost over _____ dollars

4. Two empires destroyed

a. _____

b. _____

5. Systems of government entirely changed

a. _____ became a democracy

b. Russia became _____

II. Origins of World War I

A. Conflicts between nations were caused by

1. _____

2. _____

3. _____

4. _____



B. General causes

1. Changes in the _____ of

2. _____ alliances
3. _____
4. _____ and economics
5. _____ spread fear

C. Specific causes

1. The Moroccan crisis of 1905
 - a. Germany challenged _____ influence in

 - b. _____ pledged
his support for Moroccan independence
 - c. A crisis in Morocco was avoided because _____

and it was decided that
 - (1) _____

 - (2) _____



2. The Moroccan crisis of 1911

a. Hostilities intensified again between

_____ and

_____ powers

b. _____ and _____

competed for control of Morocco

c. As a compromise, France gave part of

_____ to Germany

3. The _____ crisis of 1912–1913

a. Russia wanted _____

b. Russia supported _____

c. Austria was opposed to _____

d. The results of the Balkan crisis were _____

4. In 1914 Europe was at the brink of _____



The Final Straw: War Begins

Taken all together, the situation in Europe from 1870 to 1914 was very unstable. Europe was ready to explode. All it needed was a spark to set it off.

The rival alliances—the Triple Alliance and the Triple Entente—had faced each other in a series of diplomatic clashes between 1905 and 1914. One Serbian nationalist finally committed the act that set off the *Great War*.

The government of Austria-Hungary knew that Serbian nationalists in Serbia and in Austria were plotting the breakup of the Austria-Hungary Empire. Austria-Hungary suggested a new plan of government to satisfy the Serbs. The Dual Monarchy would become the Triple Monarchy. Austria-Hungary hoped that giving more self-determination to the national minorities within the empire would keep the minorities from rebelling. This plan, however, was never put into action.

On June 28, 1914, the **heir** to the Austrian throne, Archduke Francis Ferdinand, and his wife Sophie were visiting Sarajevo, the capital of Bosnia, in the Balkans. Sarajevo was a Serbian-populated region in the Austrian Empire. Gavrilo Princip, a Serbian nationalist who wanted all Serbians to unite in one nation, **assassinated** both Archduke Francis Ferdinand and his wife Sophie as they drove through the streets of Sarajevo.

At first, European diplomats thought they could solve this crisis through diplomacy. After all, the other crises had been solved through diplomacy. What the diplomats did not realize was that this crisis was much more serious than the others.

Chain of Events

June 28, 1914	A <i>Serbian</i> nationalist assassinates <i>Austria's</i> Archduke Francis Ferdinand and his wife.
July 23, 1914	<i>Austria-Hungary</i> gives <i>Serbia</i> an ultimatum , a set of final demands that must be accepted to avoid severe consequences.
July 28, 1914	<i>Austria-Hungary</i> declares war on <i>Serbia</i> and attacks.



July 30, 1914	<i>Russia begins to mobilize its army for war against Austria.</i>
July 31, 1914	<i>Germany issues Russia an ultimatum to cancel its mobilization order or face war. Germany also issues an ultimatum to France. Germany demands that Russia stop its war preparation. Germany asks France what it will do if Germany goes to war with Russia. France says that it will act according to its own interests.</i>
August 1, 1914	<i>France prepares for war. Germany declares war on Russia.</i>
August 2, 1914	<i>Germany demands the right to march through neutral Belgium. France says "no."</i>
August 3, 1914	<i>Germany declares war on France. Great Britain promises to help France.</i>
August 4, 1914	<i>Germany invades Belgium, a neutral country. Great Britain declares war on Germany.</i>
August 6, 1914	<i>Austria declares war on Russia.</i>

Diplomacy fails; all of Europe is drawn into war.

Responsibility for the War

Much has been written about which country was responsible for causing World War I. The paragraphs which follow will provide you with some clues. You decide.

Serbia

Serbia wanted to create a large Slavic state that would include land controlled by the Ottoman and Austria-Hungary empires. The Serbian



government encouraged the nationalistic movements within the Austria-Hungary Empire and was aware that Archduke Francis Ferdinand's life was in danger. However, the Serbian government could not have acted so openly and boldly without the knowledge that Russia and France would defend Serbia in case of war.

Austria-Hungary

The Austria-Hungary Empire was falling apart. The government was unable to stop the many nationalistic movements within its empire. When the *heir* to the Austrian throne was killed, Austria-Hungary wanted to punish Serbia. Austria-Hungary, however, could not have acted so boldly without knowledge that Germany would back its demands. The Austrian government believed that this crisis would stay in the Balkans and that the Balkan war would not spread.

Germany

The German government wanted more territory in Europe and a larger empire around the world. Germany encouraged the Austria-Hungary government to put down nationalistic movements. Germany would have more influence in the Balkans if Austria-Hungary maintained its empire. The German Kaiser William (German: Wilhelm) II, was a cousin of both the Russian Czar Nicholas II and the British King George V. Therefore, William II did not fear Great Britain or Russia. He never expected that his cousin, George V, would go to war against Germany. He also thought that Russia and France would be too weak to fight.

Russia

The Russian government encouraged Serbia to refuse many of the demands made by the Austrian government. When Russia mobilized its army for war, it forced Germany and Austria to do the same. Russia still wanted a water route to the Mediterranean. The Russian government felt that if the Austria-Hungary Empire was divided, Russia would get its water route and gain control over the Balkan countries.



When Russia mobilized its army for war, it forced Germany and Austria to do the same.



France

The French government, angry at the Germans and Austrians, did nothing to stop the Russians. France wanted Alsace-Lorraine back, a territory it had lost from Germany in the Franco-Prussian War (1870-1871). France also wanted to prevent Germany from gaining more territory overseas.

Great Britain

Great Britain feared German control of Belgium—with its location across the channel from the British Isles—as a threat to its security. Britain made it clear that it would fight to protect Belgium. Great Britain was also worried about Germany's growing economic and military strength.

The Responsible Party?

Which of the countries' actions described above caused World War I? Some of the countries and empires were more aggressive than others. But it is hard to point to any single country or empire as responsible for World War I.



Practice

Answer the following using complete sentences.

1. What event in Sarajevo caused the outbreak of World War I?

2. How did Europeans feel they could solve this crisis? _____

Did they succeed? _____

3. Which country was the first to declare war and on whom?

4. Which major power was the first to *mobilize* its troops for war? _____

5. When World War I began, the countries of Europe reacted quickly and without much thought about the results of their actions. How many days did it take from the time Austria attacked Serbia for Europe to reach all-out war? _____



Practice

Answer the following questions using complete sentences.

1. In your opinion, who is responsible for the outbreak of World War I?

Support your opinion. _____

2. All the European powers were to blame for World War I, although not in equal measure. How did each of the following help to cause World War I?

Nationalism: _____

Imperialism: _____



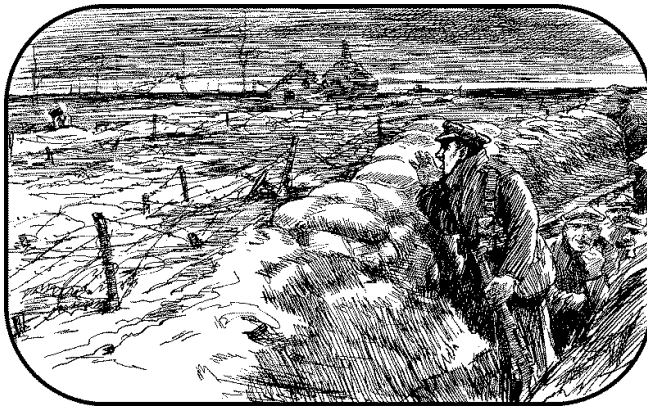
Europe Plunges into War

European diplomats made many mistakes in judgment during World War I. They believed that, as with past wars, this war would last only a few months. Each side expected to win a quick victory. They were wrong. The fighting dragged on for four years. This was a war unlike any other in history. Neither side gained a major advantage and both sides suffered terrible losses. During this unprecedented war, the Triple Entente became known as the *Allies* and Germany and Austria as the *Central Powers*.

Stalemate on the Western Front

The Germans were faced with fighting on two **fronts**. On the Western Front, they would be fighting the British and the French. On the Eastern Front, they would be fighting the Russians. Yet, the Germans had a plan: the *Schlieffen Plan*. The Schlieffen Plan called for a swift attack on France, while Russia slowly mobilized. Almost the entire German army would race west to knock France out of action before the Russian army was ready to fight in the east. The idea was that France would surrender early in the war. Then Germany would turn on Russia in the east.

The Germans followed their plan. At first, it worked. Germany quickly moved through Belgium on the way to France. The Germans attacked the French at the first battle of Marne River. The French successfully counter-attacked the right **flank** of the German army, and drove back the German army. Paris was saved. Then the German generals made a mistake. They changed policy. Instead of making quick moves, they stopped and *dug in*. They dug **trenches** in the ground to protect themselves. *Trench warfare* had begun. This strategy wore the Germans down. At Verdun, France, for



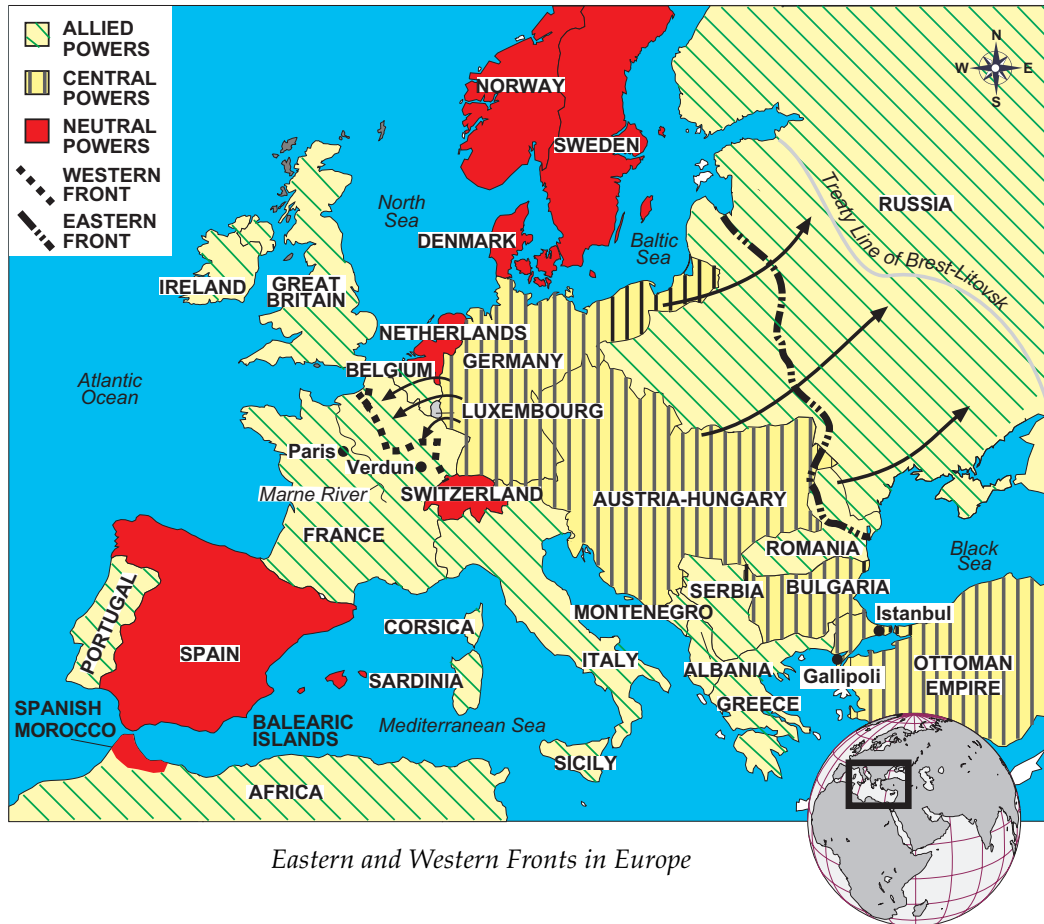
trench warfare

example, the Germans fought a long and costly battle with the French. Both sides lost over 300,000 soldiers in this dug-in warfare.

By Christmas 1914, the two sides formed a battle line that became known as the *Western Front*. The opposing armies used trench warfare. Now the



war became economic. That is, the side with the ability to supply their soldiers with food, clothing, weapons, and **ammunition** over the longest period of time would win.



Eastern and Western Fronts in Europe

The Eastern Front

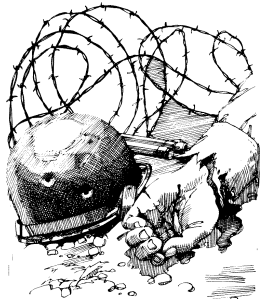
On the Eastern Front, the Russian army suffered heavy losses at the hands of the German army. Austria suffered heavy losses, as well. Neither Russia nor Austria were as industrialized as France, Great Britain, and Germany. Their weapons were second-rate. Their ability to supply their soldiers with proper clothing, food, and weapons was poor. By the end of 1914, the Eastern Front looked similar to the Western Front. That is, all sides were dug in. Germany entered the war with the strongest and best-supplied army. However, it faced one problem which it was unable to overcome: its geography. Germany's only way of getting supplies by sea was through the North Sea and the Baltic Sea. But Great Britain's navy was stronger



than the German navy. Britain controlled the seas. Therefore, Germany and Austria-Hungary had to rely mostly on their own supplies.

Germany was helped somewhat when the Ottoman Empire entered the war as an ally. This meant that Russia would lose the use of warm-water ports into the Mediterranean Sea. This hurt Russia, since it needed these ports to get supplies. The British government decided to attack the Turks in an attempt to open the ports. In 1915 the British army and navy attacked at Gallipoli. The battle lasted 18 months. Great Britain was soundly defeated.

In the meantime, Bulgaria joined Germany. Italy, Germany's unreliable partner, switched sides and joined the Allies. Italy did this because it was promised territory if Germany and Austria were defeated. Although the Italian army was poorly equipped for war, Italy attacked Austria-Hungary. Only with help from Great Britain and France was Italy able to hold its own.



The Russian army suffered heavy losses at the hands of the German army on the Eastern Front.

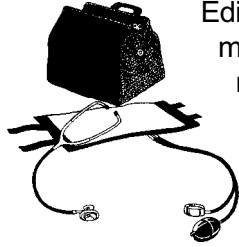
Throughout 1915 and 1916, the Russian army suffered heavy losses. The Russian government was losing the support of its people, and they asked for an end to the war. In 1917, the Russian government was overthrown by a revolutionary group known as the *Bolsheviks*. The new Russian government signed a separate peace treaty with Germany in March 1918. The Treaty of Brest-Litovsk gave Germany much Russian territory. The Russians gave up the Baltic provinces, the Ukraine, and Poland. The war on the Eastern Front was over. Now, Germany could bring all of its resources to the Western Front.

European Governments Wage Total War

All European citizens were totally involved in the war effort. The governments of Britain, Germany, Austria, Poland, and France took control of the economy. Factories were told what and how much to produce. All able-bodied civilians were put to work. Thousands of women replaced men in factories and other jobs. Their efforts kept the troops supplied with food, clothing, and war supplies. Because of the war, many goods were in short supply. European governments had to turn to rationing. Citizens could only buy small quantities of those goods that were also needed for the war effort.



Edith Cavell (1865-1915)



Edith Cavell was an Englishwoman whose quiet courage made her a heroine of World War I. A nurse, she was running a teaching hospital in Brussels, Belgium, when the war broke out. Nurse Cavell took wounded soldiers who had been captured by the Germans and had escaped to her hospital. She also became involved in an underground movement to help captured soldiers escape to freedom in England.

The United States Enters the War

As the war dragged on, bitterness among nations increased. Offers of a peace treaty from Germany were rejected by Great Britain and France. In 1917, however, the tide of the war changed. The United States entered the war on the side of Great Britain and France, or the *Allies*. Until American troops (called *Doughboys*) arrived, Germany was winning the war. The United States entered the war for many reasons. The main reason was that Germany refused to stop submarine attacks against American ships bringing supplies to Great Britain. As a neutral country, the United States claimed the right to sell supplies to any country it chose. Germany replied that, as a country at war with Great Britain, it had a right to stop any country from supplying Britain.

Doughboys

The expression “doughboys,” which was in wide circulation a century before the first World War in both Britain and America, came from fried flour dumplings called doughboys, the predecessor of the modern doughnut. History is not completely clear on why our American soldiers were called *doughboys*, but there are several *theories*.

- American soldiers came to love eating the doughboys or doughnuts.
- United States infantrymen wore coats with unique brass buttons that resembled the doughboy dumplings.
- The method of cooking rations was shaping a flour and rice concoction in the shape of a doughnut around a bayonet and cooking over the flames.

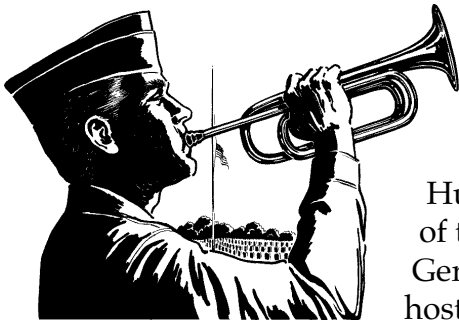


In 1915 the Germans sank the *Lusitania*, a British liner carrying munitions and passengers. Twelve hundred people, mostly civilians, were drowned, including 128 Americans. This attack on civilians made many Americans sympathetic towards the Allies.

Another reason for the entry of the United States into the war was the *Zimmermann note*. The British had intercepted a telegram message from the German foreign secretary Arthur Zimmermann to his ambassador in Mexico. It offered the Mexican government money, a secret alliance, and former Mexican territory in the United States in return for declaring war on the United States. When this note became public, Americans demanded action against Germany. On April 6, 1917, the United States declared war on the Central Powers.

The War Ends

During the early part of 1918, Germany began an **offensive** on the Western Front. The *offensive* was successful for a while. The German army was closing in on Paris once again. In July of 1918, the second battle of the Marne took place. There, the German army was soundly defeated. In



August, the British army defeated the Germans at Amiens, France. With sinking morale and many **desertions**, the German army and its plans for victory looked dismal. In October 1918, the governments of Germany and Austria-Hungary asked President Woodrow Wilson of the United States to arrange an **armistice**. Germany signed the *armistice* which ended the hostilities on November 11, 1918.

Germany at the end of the war was torn by revolution. On November 9, Kaiser William II **abdicated** and fled from Germany to the Netherlands. Germany then declared itself a republic. The Austria-Hungary Empire had completely collapsed and the Ottoman Empire was on the verge of collapse. Economically, politically, and socially, Europe was destroyed. Europe, once a tower of strength in world affairs, was now a shattered ruin. Against this troubling series of events, allied leaders prepared to debate the terms of peace. Neither Russia nor any of the defeated nations of the Central Powers were to have a voice in the discussions. Instead, the task fell to the *Big Four*—Great Britain, France, Italy, and the United States.



Europe after World War I, 1919



Practice

Answer the following using complete sentences.

1. What mistakes in judgment did the European diplomats make?

2. The German army was fighting on two fronts. Who were they fighting on the Western Front? _____

Who were they fighting on the Eastern Front? _____

3. What was the *Schlieffen Plan*? _____

4. Why did the Schlieffen Plan work at first? _____

5. What mistake did the German generals make? _____

6. How did *trench warfare* affect the war? _____



7. Why did Austria and Russia suffer so many losses? _____

8. Why was geography a problem for the Germans? _____

9. What effect did the Ottoman Empire have when it entered the war?

10. Why did Italy enter the war? _____

11. Whose side was Italy on? _____

12. What treaty ended the war between Russia and Germany? _____

13. What happened in 1917 to change the tide of the war? _____



14. Why did the United States enter the war? _____

15. In what ways was World War I a total war? _____

16. After the German defeats in 1918, what began to happen to the German army? _____

17. What is an *armistice*? _____

18. What happened in Germany after the war? _____

19. What happened to the Austria-Hungary and Ottoman Empires after the war? _____



Technology and World War I

During World War I, many nations used new military weapons that caused a tremendous destruction of lives and property. The Industrial Revolution had enabled these countries to produce these new weapons and materials.

You have already read about trench warfare. *Trench warfare* meant that the opposing armies dug *trenches* in the ground to protect themselves. (See picture on page 126.) Every so often, a group of soldiers would charge from their trenches to attack the opposing soldiers. Casualties were high when this tactic was used and ground gained was measured in yards. Trenches were protected with barbed wire. Often, soldiers would use poison gases and smoke bombs to force opposing soldiers out of their trenches.

The Technology of World War I

- smokeless gunpowder
- machine guns
- barbed wire
- improved artillery fire
- land and sea mines
- armored tanks
(beginning in 1917)
- trucks for convoys
(toward the end of the war)
- amphibious assault vehicles
- submarine warfare
- airplanes
(for observational purposes; later for small-scale bombing and attacks on ground forces)
- dirigibles
(steerable self-propelled airships; called blimps)
- poison gas



Practice

Answer the following using complete sentences.

1. What is *trench warfare*? _____

2. What are five examples of the new technology used in World War I?

3. What made all of this new technology available? _____



The Treaty of Versailles: A Difficult Peace

On November 11, 1918, Germany signed the armistice which ended the fighting in World War I. Now the victorious countries met to work out a treaty, or the peace terms, that all the warring countries would obey. This treaty would explain, for instance, all the penalties that the losing countries would have to pay to those they fought. The treaty would also outline any new geographical borders to be drawn. In charge of writing the treaty were the Big Four—the most powerful allies—Great Britain, the United States, France, and Italy.

Representatives of the new German government were forced to sign this peace treaty. They did so on June 28, 1919, in Versailles, a city near Paris, France, five years to the day after Francis Ferdinand's assassination in Sarajevo. Thus the treaty was called the *Treaty of Versailles*.

Below is an outline of the Versailles treaty. It notes the most important statesmen involved in the treaty, what problems the treaty needed to resolve, and what the results of the treaty were. This outline also describes how the United States responded to the treaty, as well as the problems the treaty created in the following years.

The Treaty of Versailles

I. People: The Big Four

A. Woodrow Wilson

1. President of the United States
2. Wanted to create a better world through the formation of the League of Nations
3. Wanted a proposal known as the Fourteen Points, which would ensure *a just and lasting peace*
4. Supported self-determination—allowing people to decide for themselves under what government they wished to live

B. Georges Clemenceau (Klemon-so)

1. Premier of France
2. Sought to ensure France's security against future German invasions and wanted a treaty that would make Germany suffer, to make sure it would never wage war again



3. Wanted to impose military limitations, **reparation** payments, and territorial losses on Germany
- C. David Lloyd George
1. Prime Minister of Great Britain
 2. Won reelection in 1916 with the slogan “Hang the Kaiser”
 3. Sought to expand Britain’s colonial empire, preserve its naval and industrial supremacy, and make Germany *pay for the war*
- D. Vittorio Orlando
1. Prime Minister of Italy
 2. Wanted to make sure that pre-war agreements which promised more land for Italy were honored
 3. Wanted to expand Italy’s empire overseas
- II. Major issues to resolve
- A. Protection for the national and international security of European nations
- B. Polish territories
- C. Italy’s claim for more territory
- D. German territory
1. What the boundaries of Germany should be
 2. What to do with German colonies overseas
- E. Satisfaction of France
1. How to make France’s borders more safe and secure
 2. Whether to give France back land taken by Germany during Franco-Prussian War of 1871—Alsace-Lorraine
- F. Amount of *reparations* should Germany pay
- G. Care for the millions of desperate people in Europe



III. Results of treaty

A. Italy

1. Received some Austrian territory in the north
2. Received little economic aid
3. Did very poorly at the peace conference
4. Orlando left early, angry

B. France

1. To receive money (reparations) from Germany
2. To get back provinces lost during Franco-Prussian War—
Alsace-Lorraine

C. Japan

1. Became a major power in world affairs
2. Received all German colonies north of the equator in the
Far East

D. Russia

1. Absence from peace conference
2. Involved in civil war
3. Distrusted by the other European nations due to rise of
communism
4. Loss of much territory
 - a. Finland
 - b. Baltic states: Latvia, Estonia, and Lithuania

E. Great Britain

1. To receive reparations from Germany
2. To receive most of Germany's colonies in Africa

F. Germany

1. Lost most of its colonies
2. Gave up about 13 percent of its territory in Europe to France,
Belgium, Denmark, and Poland
3. Reduced to a weakened state
 - a. Small army
 - b. Small navy



4. Kaiser and military advisors accused of war crimes
5. Forced to pay huge reparations of about 32 billion dollars
6. Had to accept Article 231 of the Treaty of Versailles
 - a. Germany blamed for starting the war
 - b. Germany forced to sign treaty under the threat of invasion
7. New German democratic government formed

G. Austria-Hungary

1. Empire split apart into new countries of Yugoslavia, Czechoslovakia, and Hungary
2. Could never unite with Germany again

H. United States

1. President Wilson seen as a peacemaker
2. President Wilson presented a plan for a *League of Nations*
 - a. European countries joined
 - b. United States refused to join
3. People in United States wanted to become *isolationists* again
4. Congress *did not* approve the Treaty of Versailles

IV. Problems created by the Treaty of Versailles

- A. Too many Germans left outside of German borders
- B. Many minorities left in different countries
 1. Germans left in France
 2. Germans left in Poland
 3. Austrians left in Italy
- C. Continued hatred between French and German people
- D. Lack of cooperation among Great Britain, France, and the United States after the war allowed Germany to rise again



- E. German reparations (payments)
 - 1. Unreasonable
 - 2. Germany lost its ability to pay
 - a. Lost rich coal-producing areas
 - b. Lost rich iron-producing areas
 - c. Lost overseas markets
 - d. Economic collapse after war
- V. The 1920 World Organization—League of Nations:
Woodrow Wilson's idea and dream
 - A. Purpose
 - 1. To promote international cooperation
 - 2. To help keep the peace
 - B. Problems
 - 1. Member nations unwilling to give up any power
 - 2. United States refused to join
 - 3. Lacked power to enforce its decisions
- VI. Evaluation of the Treaty
 - A. Weakness of Treaty
 - 1. Countries sought own self-interest
 - 2. Victors did not cooperate
 - 3. Did not prevent Germany from becoming a major power again
 - B. Effect on United States
 - 1. President Wilson encouraged the United States to play its role as a world power
 - 2. Congress refused to accept its responsibility as a world power
 - 3. United States became isolationist



C. Effect on Germany

1. German people angry with the harsh treatment they received
2. Germans insulted and angry that they were blamed in total for causing the war
3. Hitler's rise to power was a direct result of the anger of Germans towards the other nations of Europe

VII. Outcome of Treaty

A. Led to worldwide economic depression

B. Failure of European leaders to understand that 19th century solutions would *not* work in 20th century

C. Decline of Imperialism

1. President Wilson spoke out in favor of self-determination
2. Nationalism spread throughout the world as natives in colonies sought independence



The Legacy of the War

Results of the War

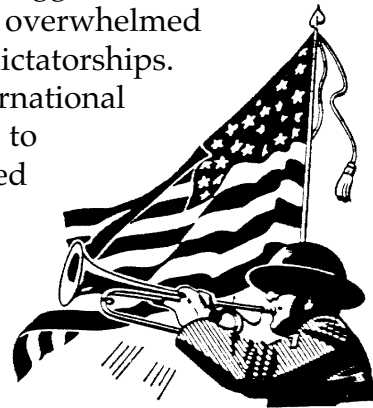
Both sides in World War I paid a heavy price measured in the loss of human life. About 8.5 million soldiers died during the war, and over 21 million were wounded. Millions of civilians died as a result of disease, starvation, and slaughter.



About 8.5 million soldiers died during the war and over 21 million were wounded.

The war's cost had an economic impact that lasted many years after the war. Its total cost was estimated to be \$338 billion. Farmland, homes, villages, and towns were destroyed by the war. Paying for the war burdened Europeans with high taxes and a lower standard of living. Economic problems caused by the war helped bring on the 1929 depression. Although the United States became a leading world power, it was unwilling to take an active part in international affairs.

Three major European dynasties, or ruling families, collapsed: the *Hohenzollerns* of Germany, the *Hapsburgs* of Austria-Hungary, and the *Romanovs* of Russia. The new nation-states that arose in central Europe struggled to survive in post-war Europe. Russia, Italy, and Germany, overwhelmed by economic and political problems, turned to dictatorships. The League of Nations, established to solve international problems and advance world peace, was unable to achieve success without the support of the United States. Many came to believe that the peace settlement at Versailles was a *peace built on quicksand*. It would eventually give way two decades later, and the world would again experience the ravages of war.





Practice

Match each definition with the correct term. Write the letter on the line provided.

- | | | |
|-------|--|----------------|
| _____ | 1. the person who is next in line for the throne of a country | A. abdicate |
| _____ | 2. to murder, usually for political reasons | B. ammunition |
| _____ | 3. final set of demands | C. armistice |
| _____ | 4. a place where fighting is going on between two or more countries | D. assassinate |
| _____ | 5. the right or left side of a military force | E. desertion |
| _____ | 6. long ditches dug in the ground to protect soldiers in battle | F. flank |
| _____ | 7. bullets, shells, grenades, bombs, and other materials that can be fired from guns or exploded in some way | G. front |
| _____ | 8. a course of attack | H. heir |
| _____ | 9. the act of leaving a military force without permission | I. neutral |
| _____ | 10. a temporary agreement to stop fighting; a truce before a formal peace treaty | J. offensive |
| _____ | 11. to give up power | K. reparations |
| _____ | 12. belonging to neither side in a war | L. trenches |
| _____ | 13. payment for war damages | M. ultimatum |



Practice

Use the **outline** of “**The Treaty of Versailles**” on pages 137-142 to answer the following.

1. What were the Big Four countries and who were the people who represented each country? _____

2. Which country was most bitter toward the Germans? _____

3. What are *reparations*? _____

4. Which Big Four country received some Austrian territory, but little else? _____
5. What did France regain as a result of the treaty? _____

6. What major country was *not* at the peace conference? _____
7. Who received most of Germany’s colonies in Africa? _____

8. What countries were created out of the Austria-Hungary Empire?



9. How did the United States demonstrate its isolationist policy?

10. What helped Germany to gain strength and rise again? _____

11. Why was Germany unable to pay reparations? _____

12. Whose idea was the League of Nations? _____

13. What was the purpose of the League of Nations? _____

14. How did the Treaty of Versailles affect the economy of the world?



15. How do you think a German citizen in 1919 would have felt about the Treaty of Versailles? _____

16. Describe two important results of World War I for each of the following headings.

social: _____

economic: _____

political: _____



Practice

Answer the following using complete sentences.

1. What happened to Germany as a result of the Treaty of Versailles?
(Use section III-F of the outline on pages 139-140.)

2. How did the Germans react to the Treaty of Versailles? (Use section VI-C of the outline on page 142.)



Practice

Use the **map** on page 113 and the **map** on page 131 to list **seven new countries** that appeared **after World War I** in 1919 that were not on the map in 1914.

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____
4. _____
5. _____
6. _____
7. _____



Review

The origins of World War I, or the Great War, began long before any European actually declared war. *Imperialism* in the late 19th century led to hostile competition among European nation to colonize and control overseas territories. *Nationalism*, or extreme pride in one's country, fueled this race for territory. Nationalism also increased *militarism*, or the build-up of large militaries.

Added to these factors was a shift in the *balance of power* in Europe. A unified Germany grew in economic and military strength. France and Great Britain feared Germany's strength and saw it as a threat to their own international success and survival. In addition, a unified Italy had broken free of France and the Austria-Hungary Empire. The political face of Europe had been redrawn.



Many European countries had different interests that created conflict. Austria-Hungary attempted to keep the many nationalist movements in its empire from rebelling. Russia, on the other hand, supported these groups against Austria-Hungary. Russia wanted a warm-water port in the Balkans and saw a war with Austria-Hungary as a way to gain this.

France wanted to regain territories it had lost to Germany in the Franco-Prussian War. And Great Britain believed that Germany's rise to power would threaten its holdings in Africa and Asia. All across Europe, regions of tension had developed.



The United States turned the German success into defeat.

In order to protect themselves, countries began to develop alliances. Germany, Austria-Hungary, and Italy formed the *Triple Alliance*. France, Russia, and Great Britain responded by forming the *Triple Entente*. Between 1870 and 1914, Europe divided into two sides, with a few nations remaining *neutral*. The Triple Entente eventually became known as the *Allies*, and Germany and Italy as the *Central Powers*.



World War I began when a Serbian nationalist assassinated Austria's Archduke Ferdinand and his wife. Within months, Germany and Austria were at war with Russia, France, and Great Britain. Russia eventually withdrew from the war after its government was overthrown. Austria suffered heavy losses, and Germany was left to fight on its Western Front against France, Great Britain, and Italy. After early success, Germany found itself facing the United States. The United States turned the German success into defeat. In 1918 Germany signed an *armistice* that ended the fighting.

In the *Treaty of Versailles*, the Big Four—France, Great Britain, the United States, and Italy—forced Germany to pay heavily, both in money and in land. The treaty turned out to have mixed results. In the end, the United States did not support the treaty. Nor did the United States support President Woodrow Wilson's plan for an international peace organization called the *League of Nations*.

The legacy of World War I was one of death and destruction. Both the Allies and the Central Powers had a staggering number of deaths resulting from the war. The human and material costs were overwhelming. About 8.5 million soldiers died, and 21 million more were wounded. The nations of Europe also suffered political and economic hardships. In less than 20 years, conditions created by World War I and the Versailles Peace Treaty would lead to renewed fighting and another world war.



Practice

Use the list below to write the correct term for each definition on the line provided.

alliance	artillery	heir
ammunition	assassinate	militarism
armistice	desertion	minority
arms race	exaggerate	ultimatum

- _____ 1. the person who is next in line for the throne of a country
- _____ 2. the smaller part of a group
- _____ 3. an agreement between countries, groups, or people to work together in doing something
- _____ 4. the act of leaving a military force without permission
- _____ 5. large, heavy firearms
- _____ 6. bullets, shells, grenades, bombs, and other materials that can be fired from guns or exploded in some way
- _____ 7. a rivalry among nations to gain the greatest military power
- _____ 8. to murder, usually for political reasons
- _____ 9. the glorification of armed strength
- _____ 10. to make something seem larger or greater than it is
- _____ 11. a temporary agreement to stop fighting; a truce before a formal peace treaty
- _____ 12. final set of demands



Practice

Match each definition with the correct term. Write the letter on the line provided.

- | | | |
|-------|--|---------------|
| _____ | 1. those who are successful in battle | A. abdicate |
| _____ | 2. a government's selection of men for required military service | B. assault |
| _____ | 3. long ditches dug into the ground to protect soldiers in battle | C. diplomat |
| _____ | 4. a person who represents his or her government in relations with other governments | D. draft |
| _____ | 5. a sudden, violent attack | E. flank |
| _____ | 6. to give up power | F. front |
| _____ | 7. a course of attack | G. mobilize |
| _____ | 8. belonging to neither side in a war | H. neutral |
| _____ | 9. the right or left side of a military force | I. offensive |
| _____ | 10. money paid for damages by the loser of a war to the winners | J. reparation |
| _____ | 11. to organize resources for combat | K. trenches |
| _____ | 12. a place where fighting is going on between two or more countries | L. victors |

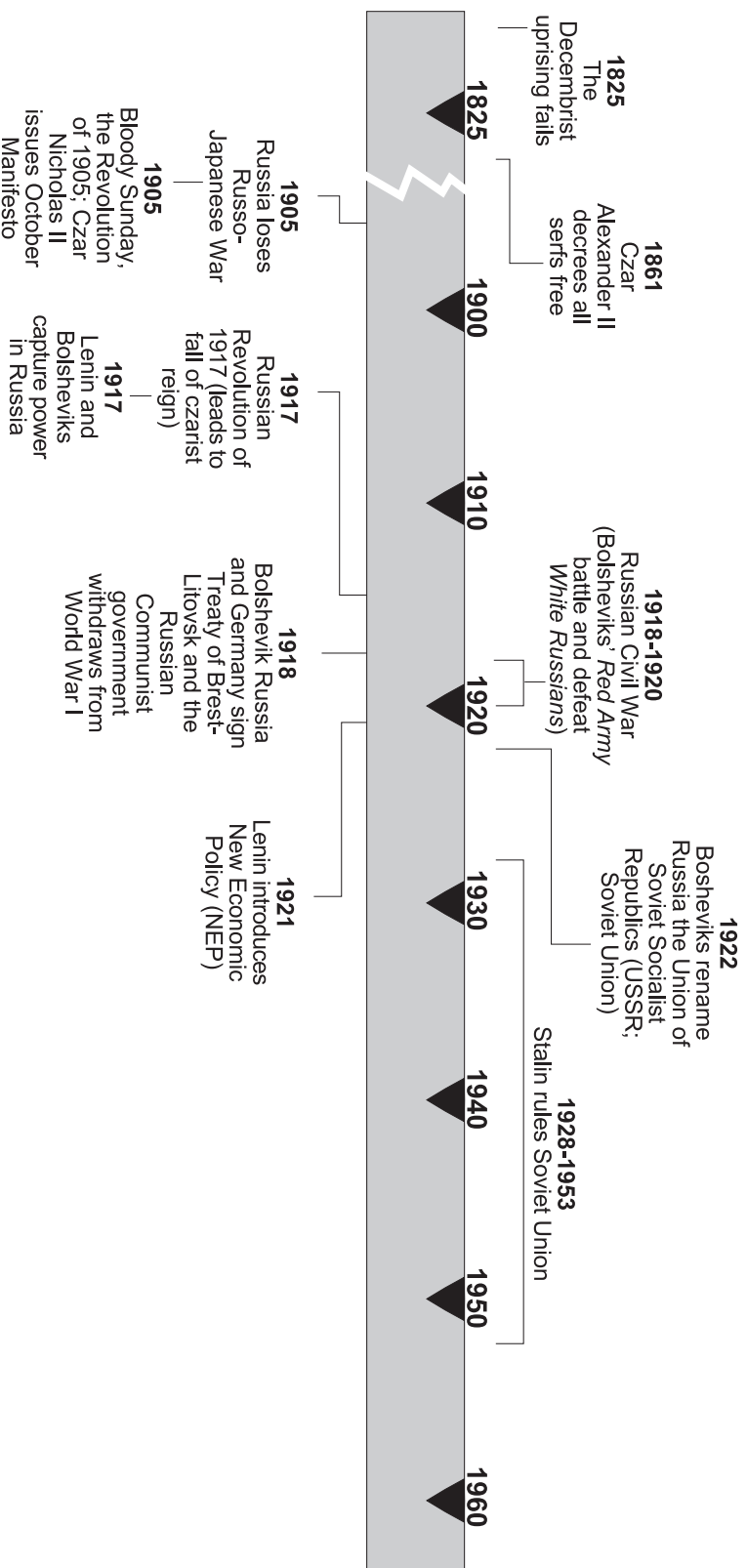
Unit 5: The Russian Revolution and the Soviet Regime (1825-1953)

This unit emphasizes the causes and events of the Russian Revolution and the political and economic changes that transformed the Soviet Union into an industrial and a political power.

Unit Focus

- autocratic rule of the czars
- ideas and philosophy of Karl Marx
- crises that led to the Russian Revolution
- events leading up to and including the March Revolution and the end of czarist rule
- effects of the Bolshevik Revolution
- economic policies of Lenin
- strategies that Stalin used to gain control of the Communist Party in the Soviet Union
- methods of control in a totalitarian state

Unit 5 Timeline





Vocabulary

Use the vocabulary words and definitions below as a reference for this unit.

- absolutism** a political system in which rulers have unlimited power
- anti-Semitism** hostility toward or discrimination against Jews
- aristocracy** the upper class; social group with the most wealth and power
- Bolsheviks** the original members of the Communist party in Russia who led the Russian Revolution in 1917
- capitalism** an economic system in which land, factories, and other means of producing goods are privately owned and controlled by an individual or groups of individuals for a profit
- collective farm** a large farm made up of many smaller farms and operated jointly by a group
- communism** a theory of government in which wealth and property are owned in common, and production and labor are shared equally among the people; in reality, the means of production and distribution are owned and controlled by the state
- constitution** a system of principles by which a nation or any group is governed; it guides the formation of rules and laws



- counter-revolution** a revolution designed to overthrow a government set up by an earlier revolution
- czar** the Russian emperor (also tzar or tsar)
- democracy** a system of government in which power comes from the people
- Duma** Russian parliament; elected national legislature
- emancipation** the act of freeing from control
- landlocked** bordered on all sides by land
- media** means by which information is given to the people
Examples: newspapers, magazines, books, movies, radio, and television
- monarchist** a supporter of monarchy
- mystic** a person who claims to have information from supernatural sources
- parliament** a group of people who have the duty and power to make the laws of a country
- pogrom** violent and bloody acts, including massacres, carried out against Jews
- propaganda** information designed to convince people of certain beliefs or ideas



- provisional** something which is temporary
- purge** to get rid of persons thought to be disloyal or undesirable
- regime** a government in power
- repression** the practice of keeping persons under control using fear or force
- ruthless** lacking pity or mercy
- socialism** a political and economic theory in which the means of production—factories, machines, and land—are owned by the government or society, and the profits and goods are shared equally among its citizens
- soviet** a workers', peasants', and soldiers' council that supported communism in Russia
- totalitarianism** a political system in which the government has total control over the lives of individual citizens



The Russian Revolution and the Soviet Regime (1825-1953)

Ideas from Western Nations Inspire Russians to Revolt

You've read in earlier units about people who revolted against their governments during the 1800s. Many of those revolutions were sparked by the American Revolution and the French Revolution. People throughout Europe and as far away as Latin America were inspired by the American and French people's courage in risking their lives to gain freedom and rights. From the American and French Revolutions, people around the world also learned many exciting ideas about the way fair governments should treat their people.

The *Russian Revolution of 1917* was also partly built on the ideas of the American and French revolutions. Following the French Revolution, many Russian officers served in France in the early 1800s. They brought back to Russia many Western ideas about people's right to freedom and **democracy**. Nearly all successful revolutions come from people's efforts over a long period of time. Such was the case in Russia.

In December 1825, these officers led one of the early attempts at revolution in Russia. Although this revolution failed, the ideas that had inspired it were passed on. This *Decembrist Revolt*, as it was called, was the first step in a long process leading to the Russian Revolution of 1917.

The Power of the Czars

In the mid-1800s, Russia's **czars**, or emperors with almost total power over the people, began to carry out reforms. In other words, they gave the people some rights, in an effort to satisfy them. In 1881, student revolutionaries unhappy with the slow pace of political change assassinated Czar Alexander II. Alexander III succeeded his father to the throne in 1881. He stopped all reforms and returned Russia to its old ways. The people once again found themselves having few or no rights. Russia was heading towards a full-scale revolution.



In the mid-1800s, Russia's czars had almost total power over the people.



In 1894, Czar Nicholas II succeeded his father, Alexander III. The people's desire for freedom did not die. In January of 1905, about 200,000 workers and their families carried petitions to the czar's Winter Palace asking for better working conditions and personal freedoms. They wanted Czar Nicholas II to permit a **constitution** to be written. *Constitutions* state the laws and limits of the government. The czar's soldiers opened fire on these unarmed people, killing between 500 to 1,000 of them. This slaughter of the innocent civilians came to be known as *Bloody Sunday*. Waves of violence and strikes spread throughout the country. In October of 1905, Czar Nicholas II reluctantly approved the creation of a **Duma**, the Russian **Parliament** (or elected national legislative or lawmaking body). However, when the newly elected Duma's leaders wanted the Russian czar to share his power, he refused. Instead, he dissolved the *Duma*.

Finally, in March 1917, after 300 years of being ruled by czars, the Russian Revolution of 1917 forced Czar Nicholas II from power. Shortly thereafter, the **Bolsheviks**, a group of revolutionaries led by Nikolai Lenin, seized control of the government. This revolution was the beginning of **communism** in Russia (later renamed the USSR, or Union of Soviet Socialist Republics). *Communism* is an economic and political system, which have theories inspired by Karl Marx, a German philosopher of the 19th century. Communism remained the dominant political idea in the USSR until it was overthrown in 1991.



Practice

Answer the following using complete sentences.

1. What could be called the *first step* in a long process that led to the Russian Revolution of 1917? _____

2. What were *czars*, and how much power did they have in Russia?

3. Explain what *Bloody Sunday* was. What events led to it? _____

4. What was the result of the Russian Revolution of March 1917?

5. What revolutionary group seized control of the government shortly after the Russian Revolution of 1917? _____

6. Whose theories inspired the economic and political system known as *communism*? _____

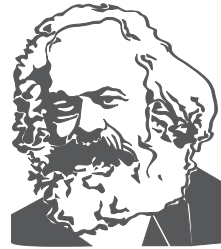


Marxism: A Response to the Industrial Revolution

After witnessing the Industrial Revolution, Karl Marx developed his own ideas about the history of mankind. He saw history as a struggle between the *haves* and the *have nots*. The *haves* were the *capitalists* who owned and ran industry. They were wealthy and had great influence in shaping government. They used their influence to produce more wealth for themselves at the expense of the workers. The *have nots* were the factory workers. They earned little money and did not share in the profits or wealth created by their factory work.

Karl Heinrich Marx (1818-1883)

Marx was a German philosopher, social scientist, and professional revolutionary. He was born in Trier of Jewish parents in what was then Prussia. He went to the University of Bonn to study law and later transferred to the University of Berlin where he became interested in philosophy. Marx became a free-lance journalist and helped create several radical journals.



Karl Marx

In 1843 Marx and his wife moved to Paris where they met Friedrich Engels, a young German radical. With his friend Engels, Marx published *The Communist Manifesto* in 1848. It predicted that the ruling class would be overthrown by the working class, and result in a classless society which he called *pure communism*.

Marx spent about 30 years writing *Das Kapital*, which expressed his views about the free enterprise system. According to Marx, all history is a struggle between the ruling and working classes.

In Great Britain, Marx saw factory workers living together in crowded slums. He believed that their suffering would unite them. Eventually the workers would rise up against the capitalists and take control of industry, farming, and government. This stage of the revolution is called **socialism**. Once the workers overthrew the capitalists, the workers would share the wealth with all members of society. They would create a classless society in which everyone would be equal. People would cooperate so well that eventually the state would *wither away*, and there would be no need for a *state*, or a government, to run society. This final stage of the revolution was called *communism*. Marx believed that the workers' rise to power would



occur as a matter of evolution. In other words, history was moving towards a time when the workers *would* rise to power. It could not be stopped.

From Marx's observations of the Industrial Revolution, he described the relations between workers and capitalists. He then based his theory on the notion that in the future **capitalism** would look the same as it did during his lifetime. He failed to foresee, however, that *capitalism* would change in the future to partially satisfy the workers. As workers made gains, they were less likely to rise up and end capitalism. Some of the ways that capitalism and its workers have changed since Marx's time are as follows.

- Marx did not foresee the formation of labor unions, social security systems, etc. These were some of the changes that satisfied workers enough to keep them from revolting.
- Marx did not foresee that people would use their political systems to control capitalism. For example, even though the United States government encourages capitalism, the government also places limits on capitalists.
- He did not foresee that many workers would rather become capitalists than destroy capitalism.
- Marx could not have imagined the impact that emigration from Europe would have. Many of the people whom Marx believed would rise up against capitalism simply left Europe. They came to America to work for a better life.

Marx would probably find it quite strange that the worker's revolution he predicted occurred in Russia. Marx had imagined the workers' revolution taking place in the highly industrialized nations of Great Britain, France, and Germany—not in Russia. Russia, after all, was not as industrialized as the rest of Europe, and it did not have a very large working-class population.



Practice

Write **True** if the statement is correct. Write **False** if the statement is not correct.

- _____ 1. Karl Marx believed that it was only a matter of time before the workers would rise up against the capitalists.
- _____ 2. Karl Marx believed that after the workers overthrew the capitalists, a classless society would be created.
- _____ 3. Marx saw the history of man as a peaceful agreement between the *haves* and *have nots*.
- _____ 4. Marx believed that capitalism would change over time.
- _____ 5. Marx believed that the workers' revolution would occur naturally.
- _____ 6. Marx foresaw the rise of labor unions and social security systems in capitalistic societies.
- _____ 7. Marx thought that many workers would become capitalists.
- _____ 8. Many people who might have revolted against capitalism left Europe instead.
- _____ 9. Marx based his theory on conditions in Europe at a given time in history.
- _____ 10. Marx believed that the revolution would begin in Russia.



Practice

Match each definition with the correct term. Write the letter on the line provided.

- | | |
|--|-----------------|
| _____ 1. Russian parliament; elected national legislature | A. Bolsheviks |
| _____ 2. a group of people who have the duty and power to make the laws of a country | B. capitalism |
| _____ 3. the Russian emperor | C. communism |
| _____ 4. the original members of the Communist party in Russia who led the Russian Revolution in 1917 | D. constitution |
| _____ 5. a theory of government in which wealth and property are owned in common, and production and labor are shared equally among the people | E. czar |
| _____ 6. a system of government in which power comes from the people | F. democracy |
| _____ 7. an economic system in which land, factories, and other means of producing goods are privately owned and controlled by an individual or groups of individuals for a profit | G. Duma |
| _____ 8. a system of principles by which a nation or any group is governed | H. parliament |
| _____ 9. a political and economic theory in which the means of production are owned by the government or society, and the profits and goods are shared equally among its citizens | I. socialism |



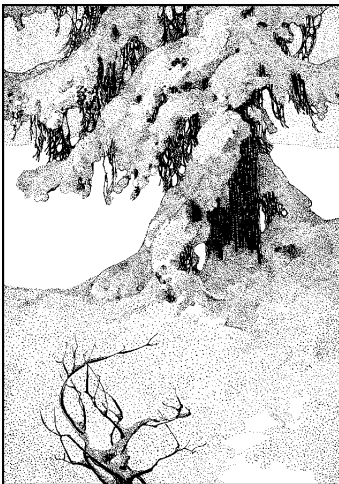
Background to the Russian Revolution: Russia in 1900

When a nation's people attempt a revolution, they have usually been moved by harsh and unfair treatment by their government. Often, revolutionaries want to change the kind of government that rules their nation. In other words, the people want to change the political system under which they live. They may also want to change their economic and social system. Sometimes, the things that have caused the greatest failure in a nation lie beyond the political and economic or social issues. These things may include the nation's geography, such as where a nation is located and its physical features.

As you read more about the Russian Revolution of 1917 and the unsuccessful revolution of 1905, it is necessary to understand what Russia looked like geographically, socially, politically, and economically as this nation entered the 20th century.

The Geography of Russia: A Huge Land and Harsh Climate

In the year 1900, Russia covered one-sixth of the world's land area. Russia was more than twice the size of the present United States! It was so large a country that half of it was in Europe and half was in Asia. The Ural Mountains marked the split between Europe and Asia in this giant-sized nation.



Russia's harsh climate and rough terrain made it difficult for foreigners to invade.

The geography of Russia did offer the country some advantages. Russia's huge territory provided almost unlimited natural resources, including oil, coal, and natural gas, to name just a few. Russia's harsh climates and rough terrain made it difficult for foreigners to invade. (You might remember reading about Napoleon's army and its heavy losses during the brutal Russian winter.) Russia also had an excellent river system. These rivers were the easiest way to travel from one region to another region in Russia.

Russia's geography also had its disadvantages. Russia's harsh climate made it difficult for its ships to travel in and out of its ports. The Arctic Ocean, which bordered much of Russia, was



frozen most all year. Those ports that would allow Russia's ships to sail were blocked by other nations. And the large Caspian Sea was **landlocked** and did not connect to any other waterways. Vladivostok, the only port which could stay open all year, was in Asia—more than 5,000 miles away from the Russian capital of Petrograd! (Petrograd is the Russian name given to St. Petersburg. Today Russia's capital is Moscow.)



The size and climate of Russia presented other problems, also. For example, the Russian government did not have a large enough army to adequately defend its millions of miles of territory. Because Russia bordered so many foreign countries, it was often drawn into wars with both Asian and European countries. Large areas of Russia were unusable because of the freezing climate. And the Russian government was not able to govern effectively so large and harsh an area.



Russia's Social Problem: Many Nationalities under One Government

One of the many problems the Russian government faced in 1900 was the many different nationalities of its people. Only about 10 percent of the people who lived on Russian territory were actually Russian. Other groups who lived under the Russian government are listed below.

Estonians	Romanians	Mongols
Lithuanians	Poles	Finns
Turks	Jews	Armenians
Latvians	Georgians	

Consider that most of the people in Russia did not speak Russian! Most of these other nationalities had their own language. Many non-Russians were nationalists. They had intense loyalty to their own cultures and practices. Therefore, most people who lived in Russia had different and often conflicting interests and needs.

Non-Russians were treated terribly by the Russian government. Jewish people were treated worst of all. Jews were forced to live in certain areas. The number of Jews allowed to study in the universities and to practice professions such as law and medicine was limited. If Jews wanted to travel outside of their villages, they needed special permits. Jews had to wear special clothing. Every so often, the Russian government allowed the Cossacks (government police) to attack Jewish villages. The Cossacks would beat, rob, and sometimes massacre the Jews and then burn their villages. These attacks were called **pogroms**. The treatment of Jews was so horrible that, between 1881 and 1914, millions of Jews *emigrated* or moved from Russia to the United States.



Woodcut printing of a poor town in Russia.

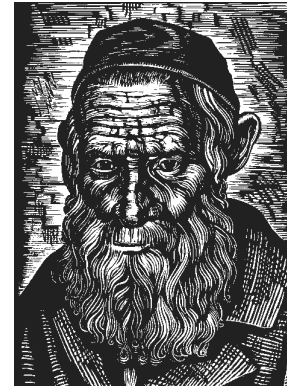
The Russian Political System: The Harsh Rule of Czars

All power in Russia rested with the czar. The czar was an *absolute* monarch. He controlled the government and was the head of the army and the Church. Throughout history, some absolute monarchs have been



worse than others. Some of Russia's czars tended to be particularly cruel. They did very little to improve the lives of the people. Russia's political system was also dominated by nobles. Nobles in Russia were like those in prerevolutionary France. They were wealthy and owned huge farms. They lived off of the work done by *serfs* or peasants. Those czars who attempted reforms to help the poor met oppositions from the nobility.

The reign of Czar Nicholas II is just one example of how difficult it could be to live under a czar. Nicholas II became czar in 1894 when his father, Czar Alexander III, died. When the people asked for reforms and changes, Czar Nicholas II continued the rigid policies of his father and past czarist governments. When the people demonstrated in the streets, he used force to stop them.



Woodcut printing of a Jewish man in Russia.

From 1894 to 1917, Nicholas II refused to surrender any of his power. He permitted **anti-Semitism** in Russia. The treatment of other minorities worsened, as well. Throughout his reign, the czar and his government continued to lose the support of the people. During his reign, a revolutionary mood spread throughout Russia.

The czar faced problems from all parts of the society. Unhappy peasants worked for the rich, landowning **aristocracy**. Non-Russians were ruled and controlled by the Russian army. Liberals, those who demanded reform, were put in prison. And the *intelligentsia*—those who understood the country's problems—were ignored, imprisoned, or murdered.



Woodcut printing of a poor town in Russia.

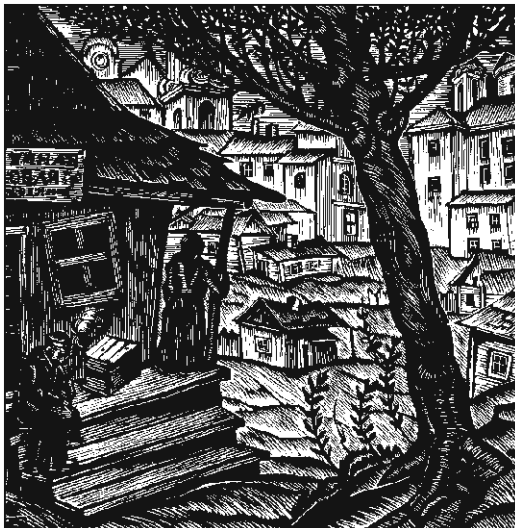
One czar in the 19th century had enacted an important reform. In 1861 Czar Alexander II decreed the **emancipation** or freeing of all serfs (peasants). Until this time, serfs in Russia were under the control of the nobles who owned the land. Serfs were not free to move to different places without the permission of their noble. The decree to free serfs did not improve their condition very much. Although serfs were legally free, they received no land. Many serfs gave up



farming and moved from the farms to the cities. This was, however, an important first step in ending the power of the nobles over the Russian people.

Economics: The Pains of Industrializing Russia

In 1900 Russia was far behind the countries of Europe in economic development. Russian agricultural and industrial methods had barely improved in hundreds of years. While many European countries were using technology to industrialize, Russia remained undeveloped.



Woodcut printing of a poor peasant house in a Russian town.

Consequently, there was not enough food and other goods to feed and satisfy the Russian people. Unlike countries such as Great Britain, Russia lacked people with enough money to invest in industry.

When the Russian government finally decided to turn Russia into an industrialized nation, they faced the same problems that other industrial nations did. Masses of peasants were uprooted from their farms to become factory workers. Working conditions in the factories were horrible. Towns rapidly became large cities filled with

workers living in slum-like conditions. These unhappy workers would later become the *core* or central part of the revolution.

The People Were Ready for Revolution

For hundreds of years Russia's czars had ignored the people's needs. Most Russians worked long hours and were often still hungry and unable to feed their families. By 1900 the people had had enough of the ruling czars. They wanted an end to czarist **absolutism** and **repression**. Both the middle class, or those people with money to invest, and the workers desired a voice in the government. And those people who were non-Russians wanted an end to the discrimination and persecution which they suffered. Czarist Russia's failure to solve its problems made revolution almost inevitable.



Practice

Use pages 168-169 and the list below to complete the following statements.

advantages	govern	sixth
blocked	invade	Ural
defend	natural	Vladivostok
freezing	Petrograd	wars
frozen	river	

1. In 1900 Russia covered one- _____ of the world's land area. European Russia was separated from Asian Russia by the _____ Mountains. Russia's geography created some _____ and some disadvantages.
2. One advantage of Russia's size and geography was that it provided almost unlimited _____ resources. There was an excellent _____ system, which helped to connect one Russian region with another. And Russia's harsh climate and rough terrain made it difficult for foreigners to _____ the country.
3. However, the geography of Russia also presented some problems. One major problem was that many of Russia's ports were either _____ most of the year or _____ by other countries. The only port which could stay open was _____, which was over 5,000 miles away from the capital city of _____ (the Russian name given to St. Petersburg).



4. Russia's huge land area also made it difficult for the government's army to _____ the country. Army troops had to spread out over Russia's millions of square miles. Large areas of Russian land were unusable due to the _____ climate. The Russian government was not able to _____ its large territory effectively. In addition, Russia bordered so many foreign countries that it was often drawn into _____ with both European and Asian nations.



Practice

Match each definition with the correct term. Write the letter on the line provided.

- | | | |
|-------|---|------------------|
| _____ | 1. bordered on all sides by land | A. absolutism |
| _____ | 2. violent and bloody acts, including massacres, carried out against Jews | B. anti-Semitism |
| _____ | 3. hostility toward or discrimination against Jews | C. aristocracy |
| _____ | 4. the upper class; a social group with the most wealth and power | D. emancipation |
| _____ | 5. the act of freeing from control | E. landlocked |
| _____ | 6. a political system in which rulers have unlimited power | F. pogrom |
| _____ | 7. the practice of keeping persons under control using fear or force | G. repression |



Practice

Answer the following using short answers.

1. What percent of the population in Russia was actually Russian? _____
2. How were non-Russians treated by the government and the Russian people? _____
3. Which group was treated worst of all? _____
4. What were *pogroms* and who carried them out? _____

5. How did some Russian Jews escape this horrible treatment?

6. What important reform did Czar Nicholas II pass in the 19th century?

7. How did Russian economic development in 1900 compare to that of the other European nations? _____

8. Who became the *core* of the revolution? _____



The Revolution of 1905

Russia was attacked by Japan in 1904 over the control of Manchuria. This began the Russo-Japanese War. In 1905 Russia lost the war and was forced to give up land and sign a humiliating treaty. The loss showed the Russian people how corrupt and weak their government really was. The Russo-Japanese War had also drained the Russian economy by raising food prices while keeping wages low. It made living conditions even worse for most Russians. Pushed to the breaking point, the masses began to demonstrate in large numbers. Strikes began to break out in many cities throughout the empire.



On a cold, snowy Sunday in January 1905, a large group of workers and their families peacefully marched towards the Winter Palace of the czar in St. Petersburg. Marchers carried petitions for political reforms. Without warning, the czar's soldiers opened fire on the crowd. When it was over, the snow was stained with the marchers' blood. Known as *Bloody Sunday*,



this murderous act by the czar's soldiers led to mass demonstrations, mutinies in the military, strikes, and riots in cities throughout the Russian Empire.

Frightened by the people's demonstrations, Czar Nicholas II agreed to a constitution in October of 1905. The events of October forced Nicholas to give in to the demands of the people. The Czar issued the *October Manifesto*, which guaranteed civil rights to citizens. A parliament, or elected national legislature known as the *Duma*, was set up. Many believed that Russia had become a *constitutional monarchy*, a government that limited the power of the monarch. The czar, however, never followed the Duma's suggestions. He continued to keep his powers. He eventually ordered that the Duma be disbanded. Pogroms against Jews and arrests of peasant and labor leaders continued. The Revolution of 1905 had failed to make any real changes for the Russian people. But some important lessons had been learned by the leaders of the revolution. They learned that to make a successful revolution in Russia, they needed the support of both the workers and peasants. And the revolutionaries learned that the government was surviving on a weak foundation, since the people did not support the czar and his government. Although the Revolution of 1905 had failed, it was another important step leading to Russia's most dramatic and lasting revolution: The Revolution of 1917.



Practice

Answer the following using complete sentences.

1. What did the defeat in the Russo-Japanese War reveal to the Russian people? _____

2. What did the marchers on the Winter Palace want from the czar?

3. How did the Russian people react to *Bloody Sunday*? _____

4. What was the *Duma*? _____

5. Did the formation of the Duma satisfy the Russian people and relieve pressure on the czar? _____
Explain. _____

6. What important lessons did the revolutionaries learn from the Revolution of 1905? _____



World War I Weakens Czarist Russia: 1914-1916

In the years leading up to World War I, Russia became more and more involved in European affairs. The Russian government supported the Balkan nation of Serbia in its effort to unify the Slavic people. To accomplish this goal, Serbia wanted to take territory owned by the Austria-Hungary Empire. When this conflict between Serbia and Austria led to war, the Russian government supported Serbia. Russian troops prepared for war and moved to the Russian-Austrian border. Because Germany supported Austria-Hungary, Russia also sent troops to the German border. This *Balkan crisis* was the start of World War I. The czar's decision to involve Russia in World War I would lead to the end of czarist reign in Russia for good.



Russia sent troops to the German border. The czar's decision to involve Russia in World War I would lead to the end of czarist reign in Russia for good.

Russia had a large army. However, because Russia had few industries it could not feed, clothe, or arm its army. The Russian economy simply could not support a war. Before 1914 was over, more than four million Russian soldiers had been killed, wounded, or taken prisoner. By 1916, two million Russian soldiers had deserted to the German side. One Russian defeat followed another; the Germans were destroying the Russian army.

The Russian people grew weary of the war. Food was scarce. Revolutionaries demanded an end to the war. Then Czar Nicholas II made a serious error in judgment. In 1915 he moved his headquarters to the Russian Front so he could inspire his troops to victory. He left the government of Russia in the hands of his wife, the Czarina Alexandra. She ignored the czar's chief advisers. Instead she was strongly influenced by a self-proclaimed **mystic** healer named Gregory Rasputin. Rasputin, described by some as a *holy man*, claimed to have magical healing powers. Alexis, Nicholas and Alexandra's only son, suffered from hemophilia, a genetic disease. This life-threatening disease prevents the normal clotting of blood. Alexandra relied on Rasputin's powers to cure her son. Rasputin seemed to be able to ease her son's symptoms.



Rasputin eventually gained great influence in the Russian government. He obtained powerful positions for dozens of his friends, many of whom were unqualified for their jobs. He urged the Czarina Alexandra to ignore the people's demands for reform. His influence spread corruption throughout Russian government. Most Russian nobles resented the influence that Rasputin had over the royal family. They also feared his increasing role in the government. Rasputin's advice was leading czarist Russia down the road to ruin. In December 1916, three aristocrats killed Rasputin.

Gregory Rasputin (1872-1916)

Gregory Rasputin, a Siberian peasant known as the mad monk, exerted harmful influence over the czar's wife Alexandra. In his middle thirties, he joined a religious sect and was known as a holy man. Rasputin met the czar and czarina in 1907 in order to try to heal their son, who suffered from hemophilia, a genetic blood disease. Rasputin apparently had some success in stopping their son's bleeding using hypnosis, and this gave him influence with the czar. He soon began to interfere in political decisions and appointments.

Rasputin contributed to the undermining of the imperial government. A group of aristocrats feared that widespread hatred of Rasputin would turn the people against the czar himself. In December 1916, they assassinated Rasputin. But this did not save the empire; revolution in Russia broke out within three months.

The March Revolution of 1917

By the winter of 1916-1917, conditions in Russia were desperate. Crowds were uncontrollable. Riots over food and fuel shortages spread. Bread lines in the capital of Petrograd turned into riots. When police were unable to control the mobs, the army was brought in. Rather than fight the mobs, however, many soldiers joined them. Discipline had completely broken down in Russia. Large groups shouted "Down with autocracy!" "Down with the war!"

The leaders of the Duma begged Nicholas to make reforms to satisfy the Russian people. When Nicholas refused, the people demanded his *abdication*, or giving up his throne. When Nicholas learned that even the soldiers supported the revolutionaries, he had no choice but to give up his throne.



A new, temporary government was created after the czar abdicated. It was called the **provisional** government. The first act of the new government was to declare Russia a *democratic republic*. Its goal was to write a new constitution for Russia. The *provisional* government made a fateful mistake, however. They chose to continue the war against Germany. Many leaders in the provisional government felt honor-bound by treaties Russia had made with the Allies. The Russian army, however, was no more willing to fight and die for the provisional government than it had been willing to die for the czar. Desertions in the Russian army continued. While the Russian army was falling apart, the Germans secretly smuggled the radical Russian revolutionary Vladimir Ulyanov, who used the *alias*, or false name, of Lenin, into Russia. Lenin and his Bolshevik followers were able to topple the provisional government in November 1917. When the provisional government fell, the Bolsheviks seized power and established a **regime** led by Lenin (see page 190) and Red Army leader Leon Trotsky.

Leon Trotsky (1879-1940)

Leon Trotsky was a Russian revolutionary communist and a founder of the USSR. He was born of well-to-do parents in the Ukraine. He was arrested in 1898 for his revolutionary activity as a Social Democrat. Exiled to Siberia, he escaped in 1902 and went to London, where he met Lenin. He returned to Russia in 1905 to take an active part in the revolution. He was jailed in 1905 but escaped in 1907 and became a revolutionary writer and editor in western Europe. He was expelled from France and Spain during World War I and came to New York, where he heard the news of the czar's downfall in 1917. Trotsky then returned to Russia, and with Lenin successfully plotted the Bolshevik (Communist) seizure of power in November 1917. He became the first Soviet commissar of foreign affairs, and then the commissar of war.

Trotsky was an efficient organizer of the Red Army (Bolsheviks) in the Russian Civil War of 1918-1920. Many believe Trotsky would be the new head of the Soviet government after Lenin's death, but he was outsmarted by Stalin. In 1927 he was expelled from the Communist Party, and in 1928 he was exiled to Soviet Central Asia. After being deported to several different countries, he settled in Mexico. Stalin's secret police eventually sent an agent to Mexico and murdered Trotsky on August 20, 1940.



New Technology Solves the Mystery of Anastasia Romanov

Sixty-five years after the execution of the Czar Nicholas II and his family, a woman named Anna Anderson claimed that she was the Grand Duchess Anastasia Romanov, the czar's daughter. She claimed to have escaped her assassins.



Many believed that she was telling the truth because of the detailed knowledge she had about the Romanov family. In 1984 Anna Anderson died. In 1993, Prince Philip of Great Britain, a descendant of the Czarina Alexandra, gave DNA material to scientists to compare with Anna Anderson's DNA. This test solved a 75-year-old mystery. The DNA analysis proved that Anderson was not a blood relative of the Romanovs.

Anna Anderson's claim to the royal family of Russia inspired Hollywood movie makers to produce the movie *Anastasia* (1956). In 1997 an animated film version of Anna Anderson's story, also called *Anastasia*, was released.



Practice

Answer the following using complete sentences.

1. What happened to the czarist reign after Russia entered World War I? _____

2. Why couldn't Russia equip its army? _____

3. What serious mistake did Czar Nicholas make once World War I had begun? _____

4. How did Gregory Rasputin make conditions in Russia worse? _____

5. How did people react to the war in 1917? _____

6. Why did Nicholas *abdicate*, or give up, the throne? _____

7. Why did the provisional government fall from power? _____



Background of the Communist Revolution



Lenin believed that only the Bolshevik Party could lead the revolution.

Germany had helped Lenin return to Russia because they felt that Lenin's return would continue to contribute to the unrest in Russia. This, in turn, would help Germany's war effort. Upon arriving in Petrograd in 1917, Lenin was greeted by Joseph Stalin and other Bolshevik revolutionaries. Stalin, along with Leon Trotsky, who was a close friend of Lenin, had already begun to prepare the Bolsheviks for the revolution.

Lenin gave a speech condemning the provisional government. Lenin said that until the workers and peasants seized power, the revolution would not be complete. Lenin believed that only the Bolshevik Party could lead the revolution.

Lenin's first try at gaining power came in July 1917. The Russian army had just been crushed in a battle against the Germans. Lenin and Trotsky announced a program of "Peace-Land-Bread":

*Peace for Russia,
Land for the peasants,
Bread for the hungry.*

Lenin sent the Bolsheviks to lead the workers in demonstrations against the government. The attempt failed. Lenin escaped and Trotsky was jailed.

In September, the military tried to overthrow the provisional government and restore order in Russia. The attempt failed. However, in order to put down the revolt, the provisional government had to call upon the Bolsheviks for help. Trotsky was freed and Lenin returned to Petrograd. This was the opportunity the Bolsheviks had been waiting for.

Lenin knew that the time was ripe for the Bolshevik Revolution. The Bolsheviks organized workers, peasants, and soldiers into groups called **soviets**. Pro-Bolshevik soldiers and sailors joined Lenin in a carefully



organized revolt. On November 7, 1917, the Bolsheviks seized control of the government of Russia. Because Lenin's party, the Bolsheviks, were so well-organized, the Bolshevik Revolution was almost bloodless. The All Russian Congress of Soviets met immediately and declared the Russian Workers' Socialist State. Lenin, Trotsky, and Stalin were made leaders of the new Russian government. The Bolsheviks immediately took the following steps.

1. They asked for peace with Germany.
2. They gave land to the peasants.
3. They gave control of the factories to the workers.
4. They took all Church property.
5. They ended religious instruction in schools.
6. They formed a secret police to prevent **counter-revolution**.
7. The Bolsheviks also gave their group a new name—the Communist Party. The name came from the writings of Karl Marx. He used the word *communism* to describe the final stages of the revolution in which there are no social classes and the state *withers away*.

In March 1918, the Communist government of Russia signed the Treaty of Brest-Litovsk. For the Russians, World War I was over. In less than one year, Russia had changed from a czarist dictatorship to a Communist state.



Practice

Answer the following using complete sentences.

1. Why did the Germans smuggle Lenin into Russia? _____

2. What did Lenin do to encourage revolution when he first came to Petrograd? _____

3. Why were the Bolsheviks able to succeed? _____

4. When did the Bolsheviks seize power? _____

5. What was the meaning of the slogan "Peace-Land-Bread"? _____

6. Who were the three leaders of the Bolshevik government? _____

7. Whose ideas did Lenin use to establish the Communist government in Russia? _____



The Russian Civil War: 1918-1920

Opposition to the revolution came quickly. The British, French, and Americans did not want Russia to withdraw from the war. When Lenin took Russia out of World War I, the Germans no longer had to fight the Russians on the Eastern Front. Now the Germans were able to use all of their military strength against the Allies on the Western Front.

Other opposition to the new Communist government the Bolsheviks had set up came from the **monarchists**, middle-class liberals, landowners, and some of the military. The Bolsheviks, under the command of Trotsky, formed the *Red Army*. (The Bolsheviks took the color red as their symbol, as had the European revolutionary Socialists.) The counter-revolutionists were called the *White Russians*. The White Russians were helped by the Allies. Nevertheless, the Red Army defeated the White Russians after a war that left much of Russia in ruins.

The key to the Communists' victory in the Civil War was the peasants in the countryside. The peasants could supply or deny food to either side. As the peasants saw it, the choice was clear. The White Russians wanted back their land; the Red Army wanted to give land to the peasants. Of course, the peasants supported the Red Army.



The Red Army defeated the White Russians after a three-year war.

In a way, the Civil War helped the Bolsheviks tighten their controls on the country. The Communist government took over all the industries in Russia and increased production to supply its army. In addition, the government strengthened its secret police in order to rid Russia of antigovernment forces.

The Civil War finally ended in 1921. The Red Army had won. Over 10 million Russians had been killed during the war. The Russian economy was left in shambles. In spite of their victory, Lenin and the Bolsheviks were worried. They knew that they would not be able to keep political power unless the economy improved.



Practice

Use page 188 and the list below to complete the following statements.

Americans	French	Red Army
British	land	supply
deny	peasants	Trotsky
Eastern	Red	White Russians

1. The _____, _____, and _____ did not want Russia to withdraw from World War I because this would close the _____ Front.
2. The Bolsheviks, under the command of _____, formed the _____ Army.
3. The counter-revolutionaries were called _____.
4. The key to the war was the _____ because they could _____ or _____ food to either side.
5. The peasants supported the _____ so they could keep their _____.



Lenin Restores Order

Upon taking power, Lenin set up a strong, centralized government. His plan was to introduce *socialism* only where it was possible—for example, in the factories. Lenin figured that eventually he would introduce socialism to all of Russia. He believed that once the people of Western Europe saw how successful socialism was in Russia, they would also overthrow their own governments.

Vladimir Lenin (1870-1924)

Vladimir Lenin was a Russian revolutionary and the founder of the Bolshevik Party (later known as the Communist Party). Lenin was the leader of the Bolshevik Revolution of 1917 and founder of the Soviet state.

Lenin was born Vladimir Ilyich Ulyanov. He became a revolutionary after his oldest brother was executed in 1887 for participating in a plot to kill the czar. Lenin was a follower of Karl Marx and was exiled to Siberia (1887-90) for his revolutionary activities. On his release, he traveled to western Europe where in 1902 he published his famous pamphlet *What Is to Be Done?* He argued that only professional revolutionaries could bring Marxist socialism to Russia.

In 1905 Lenin and his fellow Marxists returned briefly to Russia for the abortive Russian revolution. Aided by the Germans, Lenin returned again for the 1917 Russian Revolution. Within six months the Bolsheviks controlled the state. Lenin maintained power against overwhelming odds.

In 1921 he introduced the New Economic Policy (NEP). Lenin influenced communism more than anyone else except Karl Marx. Before his death from a series of strokes, he warned others against Stalin's growing desire for power.

During the Civil War (1918-1920), Lenin faced problem after problem in his fight with the White Russians. His ability to solve these problems kept him in control of the government. However, when the Civil War ended in 1920, Lenin knew that the Communist government would not survive without some changes.



A New Economic Policy

In 1921 Lenin introduced the New Economic Policy (NEP). Lenin felt that the NEP was a necessary step backwards for the Communists. It called for a temporary compromise with capitalism. Farmers were allowed to sell any surplus instead of having it taken by the government. Individuals were permitted to buy and sell goods for profit. The government allowed small, privately owned businesses to operate. Lenin even tried to encourage foreign investment. During the period of the New Economic Policy, the Communists were able to stabilize the Revolution.

Political Reforms

The Communist leadership divided the many diverse nationalities in Russia into several self-governing republics under the central government. Each republic was controlled from the new capital, Moscow. In 1922 the Bolsheviks gave Russia a new name—the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics (USSR), or the Soviet Union—in honor of the councils that helped start the Bolshevik Revolution. This new name represented the shift in power from the czar and the aristocrats to the *soviets*, or the working people. After a decade of turmoil, life seemed to have returned to normal for most people in the Soviet Union. By 1928, the country's farms and factories were producing as much as they had before World War I.

Lenin did not live to see his country's recovery. Lenin, the Father of the Soviet Union, died in 1924, after spending the last two years of his life as a semi-invalid. In the year before Lenin's death, a quiet struggle took place within the Communist Party to determine who would succeed Lenin.



Practice

Answer the following using complete sentences.

1. What type of government did Lenin set up? _____

2. Where did Lenin plan to introduce socialism? _____

3. According to Lenin, how would socialism spread to Western Europe? _____

4. What kept Lenin in control of the government during the Russian Civil War? _____

5. Why did Lenin introduce the New Economic Policy (NEP)? _____



Stalin Becomes Dictator

Joseph Stalin led the Soviet Union from 1928 to 1953. He was a **ruthless** dictator. Stalin was directly responsible for the murders of millions of Soviet people. He was also responsible for the murder of his co-revolutionary, Leon Trotsky.

Between 1918 and 1923, Stalin played an ever-increasing role in the Soviet government. He was one of Lenin's most trusted advisors. Following the Civil War, Stalin was given the job of General Secretary of the Communist Party. Stalin made this a very powerful position. He used his power to appoint his friends to the Communist Party.

Joseph Stalin (1879-1953)

Joseph Stalin was the dictator of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics (USSR) from 1929 until his death in 1953. Stalin was born Josif Vissarionovich Dzhugashvili, but adopted the name Stalin from a Russian word meaning *man of steel*. His father was an unsuccessful village shoemaker, and Stalin was supposed to become a priest after receiving a scholarship at the religious seminary in Tiflis. But his interest in Marxism probably played a part in his dismissal from seminary.

Stalin joined the Georgian Social Democratic Party in 1905. Between 1906 and 1913, Stalin was arrested and exiled a number of times. In 1912 Lenin brought Stalin into the Central Committee of the Bolshevik Party. In 1913, with Lenin's help, Stalin wrote a long article called "The National Questions and Social Democracy" and signed the article *Stalin*, a name he had just begun to use. In the same year he was arrested and exiled for the last time.

After the Bolshevik Revolution, Stalin advanced rapidly. In 1922 he was elected general secretary of the Russian Communist Party. By the end of 1922, Stalin's growing power had begun to disturb Lenin. Before dying, Lenin wrote a secret note warning that Stalin must be removed as general secretary because he was rude in personal relations and abused the power of his office. Lenin died before he was able to carry out his plan to remove Stalin, and Stalin cleverly got rid of all who were against him. By December 1929, Stalin had become a dictator. Stalin later rewrote history books to say that he had a more important role in the revolution than he actually had. He also ruled by terror and was a ruthless dictator.



During this time, Stalin had one major rival in the Soviet government. This was Leon Trotsky. Trotsky, responsible for the success of the Red Army during the Civil War, was very popular. Stalin knew that when Lenin died, Trotsky would be the likely choice to lead the Soviet Union.

After Lenin's death, Stalin continued to gain more power. By 1928 he was the most powerful person in the Soviet Union. He exiled Trotsky, or forced him to leave the country. With Trotsky gone, Stalin was now the absolute dictator of the Soviet Union.

Stalin Controls the Economy

In 1928 Stalin ended the New Economic Policy (NEP) Lenin had begun. He replaced the NEP with Five-Year Plans. The purpose of the Five-Year Plans was to make the Soviet Union an industrialized country. Under the Five-Year Plans, goals were set for industry and agriculture. Millions of peasants were brought to cities and paid low wages to work in newly built factories. About 100 million peasants were forced to live and work on **collective farms**, or large units worked by hundreds of families. No longer were peasants able to own their own land.

Under the Five-Year Plans, Soviet industry and agriculture improved. However, Stalin used industry to make the Soviet Union a very strong military country. Very little of what was produced was given to the people. Almost everything produced in factories or on *collective farms* went to the government. The economy of the Soviet Union produced few consumer goods. Therefore, even though the Soviet Union underwent an industrial revolution in the 1930s, life for most soviets did not improve.



Woodcut print—no longer were peasants able to own their own land.



Stalin Creates a Totalitarian State

The term **totalitarianism** describes a political system that takes total control over every aspect of public and private life. Life grew worse for most Soviet citizens. During the 1930s, Stalin began a series of **purges**. He got rid of anyone he thought to be disloyal. No one was safe. Stalin built a very powerful secret police. The secret police were ordered to spy on all Soviet citizens. This included Communist Party members, military leaders, and other high-ranking officials. Usually, these people were accused of trying to destroy the Soviet state. Millions of Soviets from every level of society were jailed, tortured, murdered, or ordered into labor camps. The bottom line was that everyone, even his closest friends, feared Stalin. No one dared criticize Joseph Stalin.

Stalin also used the **media** to hold his power. Communist **propaganda** was constant. All *media*—newspapers, books, movies, and magazines—were strictly controlled. Students were taught only what the Communist Party said they should learn. The people were discouraged from practicing religion. The only *religion* under Stalin was communism. The Soviet Union in the 1930s had become a *totalitarian state*. By the time the Great Purge ended in 1939, Stalin had gained total control of both the Soviet government and the Communist Party. The purges of 1930s led to the murder of the Soviet Union's best military leaders. It is estimated that Stalin was responsible for the deaths of eight to 13 million people.

Stalin was a ruthless dictator. He held power by terrorizing the Soviet people for almost 25 years. Stalin was responsible for the Soviet Union's rise to a position as a great world power. He transformed the Soviet Union into an industrial and a political power. Without his forced industrialization, the USSR might not have been able to stand up to Germany in World War II. The Soviet Union became a modern state under him. The Soviet people, however, paid a heavy price for the progress they made in the 1930s.



Practice

Use the list below to complete the following statements.

collective farm	mystic	regime
counter-revolution	propaganda	ruthless
Duma	provisional	soviet
media	purge	totalitarianism
monarchist		

- _____ 1. a government in power
- _____ 2. lacking pity or mercy
- _____ 3. a supporter of monarchy
- _____ 4. means by which information is given to the people
- _____ 5. Russian parliament
- _____ 6. a person who claims to have information from supernatural forces
- _____ 7. information designed to convince people of certain beliefs or ideas
- _____ 8. something which is temporary
- _____ 9. to get rid of persons thought to be disloyal or undesirable
- _____ 10. a large farm made up of many smaller farms and operated jointly by a group
- _____ 11. a revolution to overthrow a government set up by an earlier revolution
- _____ 12. a political system in which the government has total control
- _____ 13. Russian workers', peasants', and soldiers' council that supported communism



Practice

Answer the following using complete sentences.

1. Why was Stalin jealous of Trotsky? _____

2. What happened to Trotsky after Lenin died? _____

3. What was the purpose of the Five-Year Plans? _____

4. What did Stalin use the Five-Year Plans to create? _____

5. How did the Five-Year Plans affect the peasants? _____

6. What happened during Stalin's purges? _____



Practice

Answer the following using complete sentences.

1. Stalin was considered a ruthless dictator. Explain how his ideas differed from Lenin's ideas. _____

2. Today, do the Soviets citizens really have the same voting rights as American citizens? Why or why not? _____



Practice

Match each **description** with the correct **individual**. Write the letter on the line provided.

- | | | |
|-------|--|---------------------|
| _____ | 1. wrote the <i>Communist Manifesto</i> | A. Vladimir Lenin |
| _____ | 2. self-proclaimed mystic healer to Alexandra, wife of Czar Nicholas II | B. Karl Marx |
| _____ | 3. dictator of the Soviet Union after Lenin; responsible for the purges of the 1930s | C. Nicholas II |
| _____ | 4. popular leader who formed the Red Army; forced to leave the Soviet Union after Stalin became dictator | D. Gregory Rasputin |
| _____ | 5. leader of the Russian Revolution; began the New Economic Policy (NEP) | E. Joseph Stalin |
| _____ | 6. led Russia into World War I; last czar of Russia | F. Leon Trotsky |



Practice

Number *the statements below in the order they occurred.*

- _____ A. Russia enters World War I.
- _____ B. Civil war breaks out in Russia.
- _____ C. Czar Nicholas allows a Duma (parliament) to meet.
- _____ D. Russia signs the Treaty of Brest-Litovsk with Germany.
- _____ E. Lenin dies. Stalin takes over as dictator.
- _____ F. Lenin begins the New Economic Policy (NEP). The NEP allows people to open small businesses.
- _____ G. Stalin begins the purges. Many Soviet citizens, including top military and government officials, are arrested, jailed, or killed.
- _____ H. The Bolsheviks take over the government.
- _____ I. Russian workers and their families peacefully march to the Winter Palace. The czar's guards shoot and kill many people in Bloody Sunday.
- _____ J. Czar Nicholas is overthrown. His government is replaced by the provisional government.
- _____ K. The Five-Year Plans begin.



Review

For 300 years, Russia was ruled by czars. Czars held absolute control over Russia. Most people during this time were peasants. Czars, as well as the wealthy nobles who owned most of Russia's land, did little to improve the peasants' poor conditions.

In 1905 Russia lost the Russo-Japanese War. This embarrassing loss showed the Russian people just how corrupt and poorly managed the government really was. This knowledge, along with the czar's unwillingness to make reforms to help the people, caused the workers to demonstrate. This event, called *Bloody Sunday*, led to the Revolution of 1905. Although this revolution failed, it was an important step leading to the Revolution of 1917.

In 1914 Russia entered World War I. Because Russia lacked industry, it was not able to supply its army with food, clothing, or arms. Workers and peasants continued to suffer at home. Lacking support and fearing revolution, Czar Nicholas II gave up his throne. The provisional government that replaced him made the mistake of continuing the war effort. The people wanted peace.

Led by Vladimir Lenin, the Bolsheviks used the people's dissatisfaction to lead a revolution. In a quick and efficient revolution, the Bolsheviks seized power in the Revolution of 1917. The Bolsheviks quickly signed treaties and ended Russia's part in World War I.

From 1918-1920, the Bolsheviks and their *Red Army* won the civil war against Russians opposed to communism—the *White Russians*, as they were called. Lenin then introduced his New Economic Policy (NEP). He temporarily put aside his plan for a state-controlled economy.

After Lenin's death in 1924, Joseph Stalin became dictator of Russia. Under him, millions of Russians were tortured, imprisoned, and murdered. He replaced Lenin's NEP with his own Five-Year Plans. His goal was to rapidly industrialize Russia. He used the factories to build up his military. Few goods were produced for the people, and they continued to suffer, just as they had under the czars whom the Bolsheviks had fought. Stalin created a *totalitarian state*. He transformed the Soviet Union into an industrial and political power.



Practice

Use the list below to complete the following statements.

aristocracy	czar	provisional
Bolsheviks	democracy	repression
capitalism	landlocked	socialism
communism	parliament	soviet
counter-revolution	pogrom	totalitarianism

- _____ 1. violent and bloody acts, including massacres, carried out against Jews
- _____ 2. the practice of keeping persons under control using fear or force
- _____ 3. a workers', peasants', and soldiers' council that supported communism in Russia
- _____ 4. bordered on all sides by land
- _____ 5. the upper class; a social group with the most wealth and power
- _____ 6. the original members of the Communist party in Russia who led the Russian Revolution in 1917
- _____ 7. the means of production and distribution are owned and controlled by the state
- _____ 8. something which is temporary
- _____ 9. a political and economic theory in which the means of production are owned by the government or society, and the profits and goods are shared equally among its citizens



- _____ 10. the Russian emperor
- _____ 11. a revolution designed to overthrow a government established by an earlier revolution
- _____ 12. a political system in which the government has total control over the lives of individual citizens
- _____ 13. an economic system in which land, factories, and other means of producing goods are privately owned and controlled by an individual or groups of individuals for a profit
- _____ 14. a system of government in which power comes from the people
- _____ 15. a group of people who have the duty and power to make the laws of a country



Practice

Match each definition with the correct term. Write the letter on the line provided.

- | | |
|---|--------------------|
| _____ 1. a government in power | A. absolutism |
| _____ 2. to get rid of people regarded as disloyal or undesirable | B. anti-Semitism |
| _____ 3. information designed to convince people of certain beliefs or ideas | C. collective farm |
| _____ 4. a political system in which rulers have unlimited power | D. constitution |
| _____ 5. a large farm made up of land of many smaller farms and operated jointly by a group | E. Duma |
| _____ 6. a supporter of monarchy | F. emancipation |
| _____ 7. lacking pity or mercy | G. media |
| _____ 8. a person who claims to have information from supernatural sources | H. monarchist |
| _____ 9. hostility toward or discrimination against Jews | I. mystic |
| _____ 10. means by which information is given to the people | J. propaganda |
| _____ 11. Russian parliament | K. purge |
| _____ 12. a system of principles by which a nation or any group is governed | L. regime |
| _____ 13. the act of freeing from control | M. ruthless |

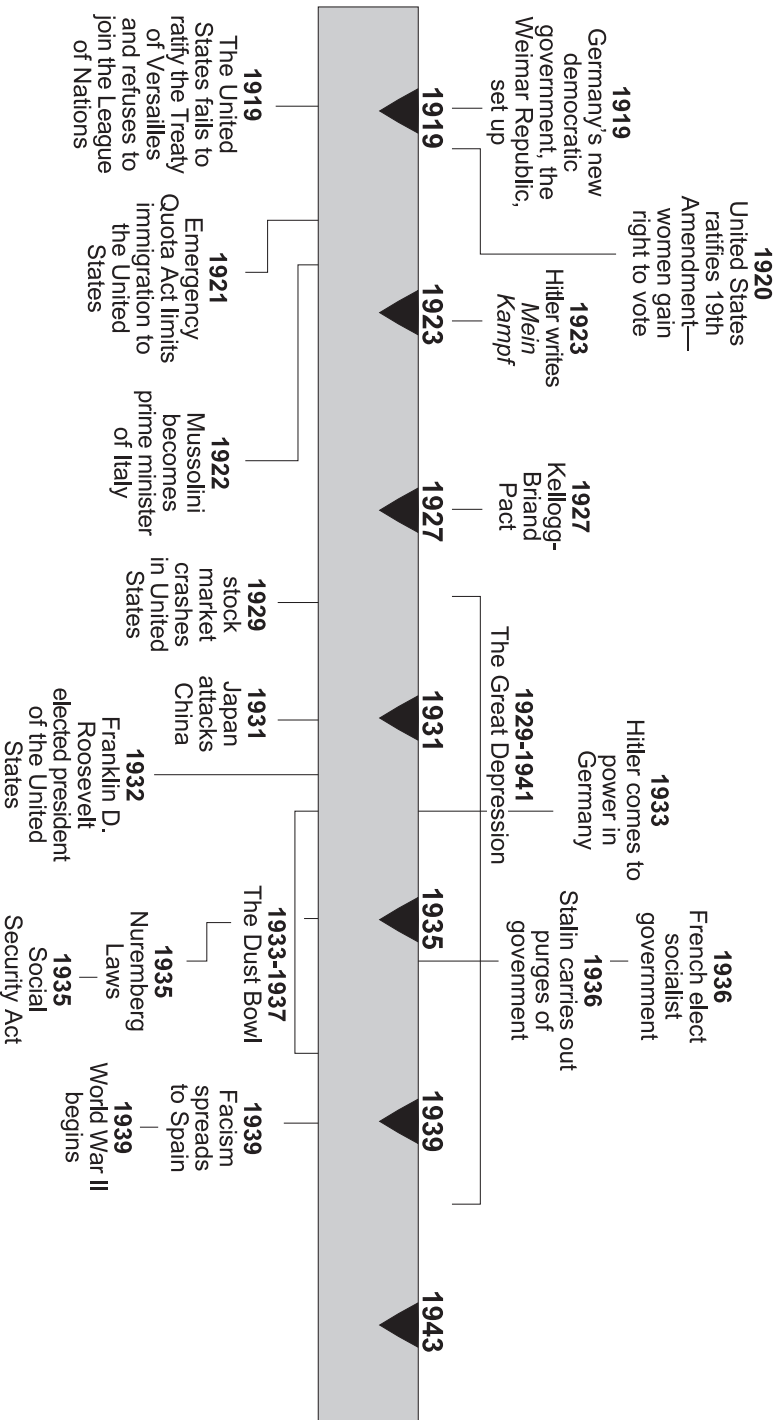
Unit 6: The World between the Wars (1919-1939)

This unit emphasizes the impact of the economic devastation in Europe after World War I, the Great Depression, and the social and political problems which plagued Germany in the post-World War I period.

Unit Focus

- political and economic difficulties in recovering from the World War in European countries and the United States
- causes of the stock market crash and the Great Depression
- reasons for the American foreign policy of isolationism in the post-war period
- major changes in domestic life in the United States in the 1920s

Unit 6 Timeline





Vocabulary

Use the vocabulary words and definitions below as a reference for this unit.

- anti-Semitic** prejudiced against or hostile toward Jews
- arms race** a rivalry among nations to gain the greatest military power
- devastation** destruction; ruin
- economic depression** occurs when a country has little economic or business activity
- Great Depression** the national economic crisis from 1929-1941
- imported goods** goods made and brought in for sale from another country
- inflation** a sharp increase in prices while the value of money decreases
- insurmountable** so great it cannot be dealt with successfully
- intolerance** unwillingness to respect or try to understand customs, ideas, or beliefs that are different from one's own
- isolationism** a government policy of noninvolvement in foreign affairs
- Kellogg-Briand Pact** an agreement of more than 60 countries to solve all problems peacefully



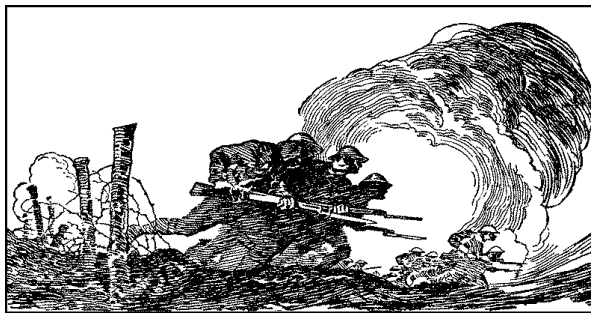
- laissez-faire** a policy in which the government does not interfere in economic affairs
- League of Nations** the world organization of nations established in 1920
- New Deal** Roosevelt's plan for ending the Depression
- preserve** to keep alive or in existence; make lasting
- prosperity** economic well-being
- ratified** approved
- reparations** payment for war damages
- stock market crash** disastrous fall in the stock market in 1929 which ended the prosperity of the 1920s
- strike** stopping of work or services by a group of people to protest certain conditions
- surplus** an amount greater than what is used or needed; an excess amount
- tariff** tax on imports shipped from one nation to another; also known as duties
- Treaty of Versailles** agreement signed to end World War I



The World between the Wars (1919-1939)

The Legacy of World War I

World War I left a ruined Europe with the monumental task of rebuilding itself. About 8.5 million soldiers had been killed in battle. Another 21 million had been wounded. And more than 13 million civilians had died from starvation, disease, or slaughter. Both the victors and defeated suffered great losses.



About 8.5 million soldiers had been killed in battle.

World War I cost those nations who had fought the war more than \$338 billion. The war destroyed farmland, homes, villages, and towns. Although they were on the *winning* side, both Great Britain and France had expended most of their economy on the war. In

addition, both countries suffered mass destruction of their factories. The Allied nations also owed the United States more than \$10 billion in loans made during the war. To rebuild their factories and repay the United States, France and Great Britain depended heavily on the war **reparations** being paid by Germany under the **Treaty of Versailles**. Despite these difficulties, most European nations, particularly Germany, were able to regain some of their economic strength during the early 1920s.

The Great Depression

In the late 1920s, the world economy depended on the economic well-being or **prosperity** of the United States. Despite great economic growth in the 1920s, the United States economy nevertheless collapsed in 1929. Many weaknesses in the economy led to this collapse, known as the **Great Depression**. This **economic depression** began in October of 1929 when the United States **stock market crashed** and sent shock waves around the world.

The entire world suffered economic **devastation**. Germany could no longer pay its war debt to Great Britain and France. Germany, Great



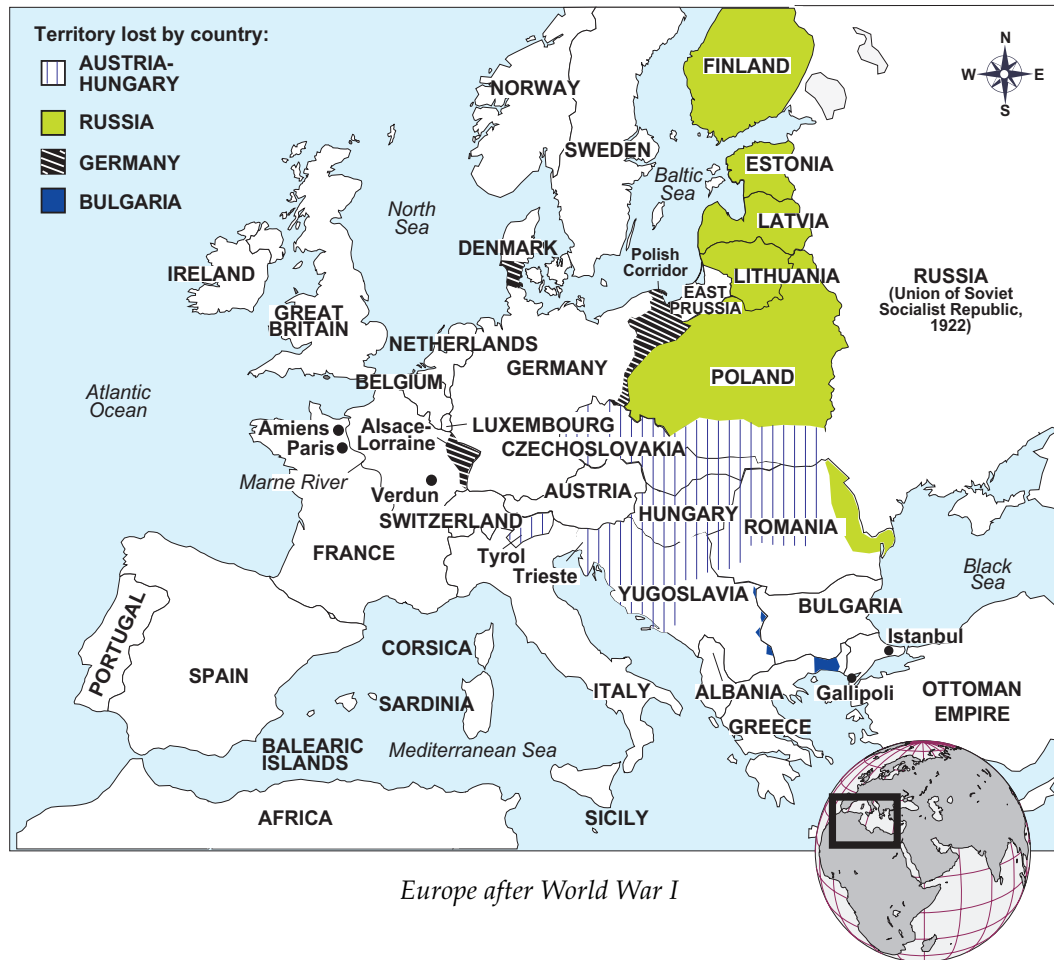
Britain, and France experienced high unemployment and raging **inflation**. The United States, hit as hard as any nation during the Depression, called in its loans to European nations and stopped lending money. The *Great Depression* had hit. It would not lift until America's entry into World War II.

Following the Great Depression, the United States Congress raised **tariffs** (taxes) on **imported goods** from Europe so that American dollars would stay in the United States to support American workers. This made it difficult for European countries to earn money to pay off their war debts by selling goods in the United States. When *tariffs* on imported goods are high, the price of those imports goes up. When the price goes up on *imports*, fewer of them are sold. The government was trying to force Americans to buy American goods. European countries, already suffering from *economic depression*, could not afford to lose their markets in the United States. Therefore, while the United States government wanted European countries to continue paying their debts, the United States government made this difficult by limiting foreign trade through higher tariffs. When the United States raised tariffs, other nations imposed higher tariffs as well. World trade dropped dramatically and unemployment rates soared.

Rebuilding its economies was only one problem Europe faced after World War I. The map of Europe following the war looked very different from the European map at the war's beginning in 1914. For example, Czechoslovakia and Poland appeared on the map of Europe for the first time. Redrawing national boundaries meant that different nationalities and cultures now lived together in one country. For example, many Germans who had lived on land taken from Germany suddenly found themselves living under the rule of new governments. This created new political problems for Europe and the world to resolve.



Europeans and Americans had high hopes for an era of peace, progress, and *prosperity* after World War I. But the years between World War I and World War II presented more trouble than hope for a peaceful and prosperous world.





Practice

Match each definition with the correct term. Write the letter on the line provided.

- | | |
|--|-------------------------|
| _____ 1. agreement signed to end World War I | A. devastation |
| _____ 2. economic well-being | B. economic depression |
| _____ 3. destruction; ruin | |
| _____ 4. goods made and brought in for sale from another country | C. Great Depression |
| _____ 5. occurs when a country has little economic or business activity | D. imported goods |
| _____ 6. disastrous fall in the stock market in 1929 which ended the prosperity of the 1920s | E. inflation |
| _____ 7. tax on imports shipped from one nation to another; also known as duties | F. prosperity |
| _____ 8. a sharp increase in prices while the value of money decreases | G. reparations |
| _____ 9. payment for war damages | H. stock market crash |
| _____ 10. the national economic crisis from 1929-1941 | I. tariff |
| | J. Treaty of Versailles |



Practice

Match each **effect** with the **cause**. Write the letter on the line provided.

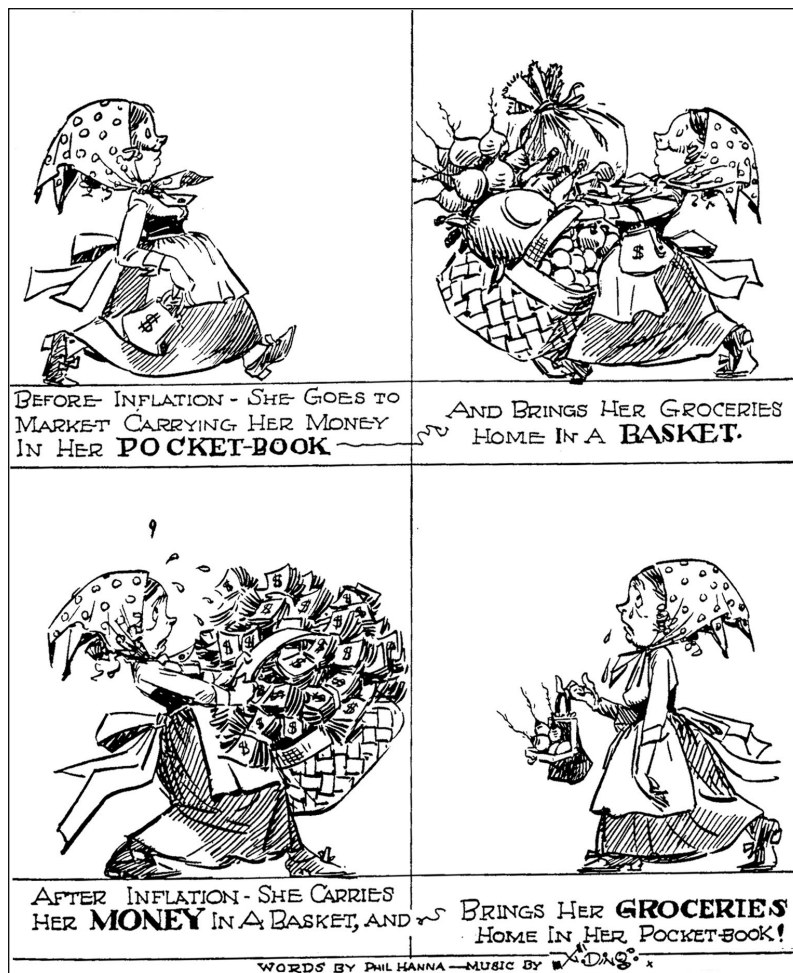
- | effect | cause |
|---|---|
| _____ 1. World War I left many European countries, including Great Britain and France, with little money or industry. | A. Allied nations had borrowed huge sums of money to finance World War I. |
| _____ 2. Europeans earned less money from goods sold to the United States. | B. The Great Depression hit in 1929. |
| _____ 3. Great Britain and France depended heavily on German payments to rebuild their economies. | C. The United States raised tariffs on imports. |
| _____ 4. European countries suffered high unemployment and raging inflation. | D. The map of Europe was redrawn after World War I. |
| _____ 5. Allied nations owed the United States \$10 billion. | E. Under the Treaty of Versailles, Germany had to pay war reparations. |
| _____ 6. Different nationalities and cultures were now forced to live together. | F. Even those nations victorious in World War I found themselves without resources after the war. |



Europe after World War I

France Tries to Keep Germany Weak

If visitors had traveled to France after World War I, they would not have believed that they were in a country that had won the war. More than a million of France's soldiers and civilians had been killed. Much of the land was scarred from having been a battleground. In particular, northern France was devastated. Its buildings had been leveled. Its railroads no longer could run. And France's economy had suffered as much as its land. It owed great sums of money to its own citizens and the United States. This was money the nation had borrowed to fight the war. And, like many other European nations after the war, France suffered from inflation as prices of goods rose and money became less valuable.



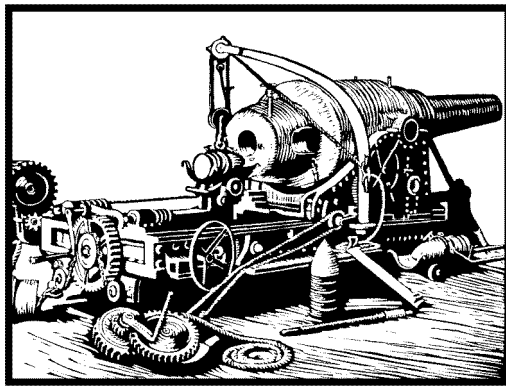
Courtesy of the J. N. "Ding" Darling Foundation



France blamed its problems largely on Germany. Germany had invaded France twice in the last 50 years, most recently during World War I. Consequently, France spent much of its money securing its borders against Germany. To prevent a third invasion, France built a massive set of *fortifications* along its border with Germany called the *Maginot Line*. The fortifications consisted of 200 miles of concrete bunkers and trenches.

France also strengthened its military. It sought alliances with other countries and devoted much effort making sure that Germany remained a weak nation. To insure this, the French government demanded that the Treaty of Versailles be strictly *enforced*, or obeyed. Remember from your past reading that the Versailles treaty severely punished Germany after World War I. The treaty demanded that Germany pay the Allies reparations. France depended on these payments. When Germany was not

able or was unwilling to pay these reparations, France tried and failed to occupy valuable land in Germany's industrial Ruhr Valley in 1923.



The Treaty of Versailles prevented Germany from building weapons and an army again.

The French government looked to other countries to help enforce the treaty, including preventing Germany from building weapons and an army again. But most other countries could not afford or were unwilling to involve themselves in this conflict.

Great Britain and the Rest of Europe Try to Rebuild after the War

Great Britain fared little better than France after the war. Great Britain's economy was drained by debt owed to its own citizens and the United States. Unemployment was high and workers began **striking** for higher wages. Great Britain also suffered from having few overseas markets in which to sell its manufactured goods. The country was in no shape to offer France political or military support in forcing Germany to obey the Treaty of Versailles.

The Treaty of Versailles had included setting up an international organization to help resolve disputes between nations and maintain peace. The United States and the Soviet Union, however, had never joined this



League of Nations. Those countries that did join were so occupied solving their own problems that none could come to the aid of France or enforce the treaty. So, in the end, France stood alone in trying to enforce the Treaty of Versailles.

Entangling Alliances Return to Europe

The French government finally decided to form alliances with any countries it could. This policy of *forming alliances* was one of the problems which had led to World War I. The French government, however, felt that it had no choice. Therefore, France set up alliances for defense with Poland, Czechoslovakia, and other newly formed countries.

Germany and Its Unpopular Government

Under the Treaty of Versailles, Germany suffered more than any other country after World War I. Kaiser William II and his government had fallen as a result of the war. The new German government created a democratic government known as the *Weimar Republic*, which resembled the parliamentary government of Great Britain. This German government, however, faced **insurmountable** problems. Germany owed huge reparations to the Allies.

Following the war, Germany experienced high unemployment and *inflation*. Consequently, the Weimar Republic was not popular with the German people. Adding to the government's problems was the fact that many Germans believed that the Weimar Republic had been created simply to satisfy the Allies' demand for a German government elected by the people. Because the Weimar government was forced to sign the humiliating Versailles treaty, the German people also held the government responsible for much of their lost land and wealth. Germans were also very bitter about Article 231 of the Treaty of Versailles. Article 231 placed all of the blame for World War I on Germany. The Weimar Republic was doomed to failure from its beginning.



Practice

Use pages 214-216 and the list below to complete the following statements.

Czechoslovakia	inflation	strike
France	League of Nations	Treaty of Versailles
Germany	Poland	

1. The country of _____ was most concerned with keeping Germany weak.
2. Workers began to _____ for higher wages in Great Britain after the war.
3. The countries belonging to the _____ were too busy with their own economic and political problems to help France enforce the Treaty of Versailles.
4. France formed an alliance with _____ and _____ for defense purposes.
5. Article 231 of the Treaty of Versailles placed the blame for World War I on _____ .
6. The Weimar Republic was doomed from its beginning because it had signed the _____ , and during its reign Germany experienced high unemployment and high _____ .



The United States after World War I

Following World War I, Americans were eager to put the war behind them and enjoy what appeared to be a better way of life. Most people did not want to become involved again in world problems. New technologies promised a more comfortable lifestyle for many Americans, and Americans were full of hope that the 1920s would be a time of great progress and prosperity.

The 1920s have been called both the *Golden Twenties* and the *Age of Disillusionment*. The first expression refers to the decade's wealth and increased standard of living. The second expression refers to the many problems that plagued the country. Both terms are accurate. The 1920s brought increased wealth and a comfortable life to those fortunate to be either businessmen or skilled workers. On the other hand, many farmers or unskilled workers had difficulty making decent wages or finding jobs at all.

American Culture

After World War I, new technologies changed the way Americans enjoyed themselves. With electricity, broadcasting was possible and radios became popular. For the first time, people could listen to recorded music, sports, and news in their own homes. *Moving pictures*, or *movies*, also created a new industry. The first films were silent, but new technologies soon produced films with sound. During the 1920s, fads such as goldfish swallowing and dancing the Charleston were popular all across the United States. People wore raccoon coats, argyle sweaters, and flapper dresses.



During the 1920s, dancing the Charleston was popular all across the United States.



An Increase in Both Tolerance and Intolerance



Women in the United States gained the right to vote in 1920, when the 19th Amendment to the United States Constitution was ratified, or approved.

In 1919 the 18th Amendment to the United States Constitution changed Americans' social life. This amendment prohibited, or made illegal, the production, sale, or transport of liquor in the United States. This law, however, did not end the availability of liquor; some people continued to produce and sell it illegally. Disobeying this law was quite common because the law was unpopular with many Americans. In 1933 the 18th Amendment was repealed, or withdrawn officially, by the 21st Amendment.

Women in the United States gained the right to vote in 1920, when the 19th amendment to the United States Constitution was **ratified**, or approved. During the 1920s, however, various local governments still denied many African Americans the right to vote.

The Ku Klux Klan (KKK) was an extreme example of **intolerance** in the United States. The KKK, a violent organization capable of murder and brutality, had been started by a group of southern white men after the Civil War. The Klan was anti-African American, anti-Catholic, **anti-Semitic** (or hostile towards Jews), and anti-immigrant. Although the Klan carried out violent attacks on all these groups, their favorite target was African Americans. Fortunately, most Americans opposed the Ku Klux Klan and their intolerant and violent ways. The government investigated the Ku Klux Klan and eventually took action against the Klan.

Post-War Isolationism

After World War I, the United States began a policy of **isolationism**. This means that the country withdrew from international, and in particular, European, affairs. To keep from being drawn into European affairs, the United States decided not to join the League of Nations, the organization set up following World War I to promote worldwide peace.



Following the policy of *isolationism*, the United States government raised *tariffs*—taxes on foreign-made goods. In response, foreign countries raised their tariffs on goods made in the United States. The high tariffs on foreign goods created economic problems for both Europe and the United States. European nations needed to sell products to the United States to earn money to pay off their war debts. In the end, only Finland ever paid in full its debt to the United States.

Many of the millions of Europeans who were homeless and hungry following the war wanted to come to the United States. The United States government reacted by changing its open-immigration laws. In 1924 the United States government passed a law which greatly limited the number of immigrants it would allow to enter the country. The hungry and homeless people of Europe grew angrier at their own governments. With no place to go, these people were demanding that their governments do something. Yet, with little money, their governments were powerless to help.

Hopes for better times came to an end in October 1929—the start of the Great Depression. The Great Depression was a worldwide collapse of business and industry that lasted from 1929 until America’s entry into World War II in 1941.



Practice

Answer the following using complete sentences.

1. Who prospered and who didn't prosper during this decade? _____

2. What right did women in the United States gain in 1920? _____

3. What was the Ku Klux Klan? _____

4. What did the practice of *isolationism* mean? _____

5. Why did *tariffs* create economic problems for both Europe and the United States? _____



Fixing the European Economy

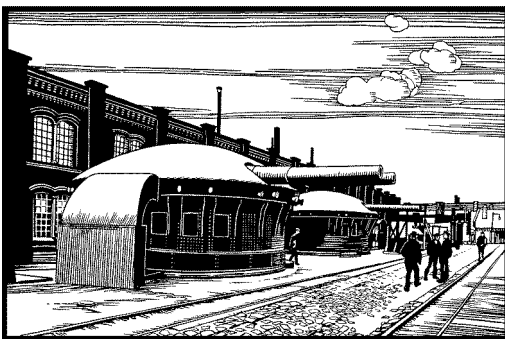
All the European countries had suffered blows to their economies *during* World War I. Even *after* the war, however, European nations faced economic hardships. Bombed-out factories needed to be rebuilt. Homes, railroads, roads—all needed to be replaced. To add to these economic problems, nearly all the European nations experienced inflation. In addition, many European nations put tariffs on imported goods, making it difficult for any nation to sell their manufactured goods to the people of another nation. Only through cooperation between nations could governments hope to improve the economy of Europe.

In 1924 an American named Charles Dawes developed a plan to help the economy of Europe. Known as the *Dawes Plan*, it had three parts.

The Dawes Plan

1. The United States would loan money to Germany so it could rebuild its economy and pay its debts to other nations.
2. Reparations Germany owed to France would be made easier to pay.
3. French troops would be removed from around German factories and steel mills in the Ruhr Valley. (German workers had refused to work while French troops occupied their towns.)

The Arms Race Begins...Again



Gun turrets at a factory. The arms race had begun...again.

European countries, especially Great Britain, wanted to make sure that they would never again be less powerful than Germany. With this in mind, Britain began rebuilding its military. Great Britain focused on developing a strong navy to protect itself and its overseas empire. Once Britain began rebuilding, so did France, the United States, Germany,



Japan, and Italy. The **arms race** had begun...again! It was as if Europeans hadn't learned their lessons from World War I.

Luckily, some Europeans and Americans realized where the *arms race* would lead. These statesmen set out to do something about it. Throughout the 1920s, conferences were held to slow down the arms race and **preserve** the peace.

In 1928 the **Kellogg-Briand Pact** was signed. The *Kellogg-Briand Pact* outlawed war as a way of solving problems between countries. This pact, or agreement, gave Europeans and Americans a *sense of security*. However, it was a *false* sense of security. Europeans still did not trust each other, and the result was that no country obeyed the agreements it had signed. The French still hated the Germans. And the British and the French could not agree on enforcing the Treaty of Versailles. The United States continued its isolationist policies and tried to remain free of European problems.



Practice

Use the list below to write the correct term for each definition on the line provided.

anti-Semitic	isolationism	preserve
arms race	Kellogg-Briand Pact	ratified
insurmountable	League of Nations	strike
intolerance		

- _____ 1. stopping of work or services by a group of people to protest certain conditions
- _____ 2. approved
- _____ 3. prejudiced against or hostile toward Jews
- _____ 4. a government policy of noninvolvement in foreign affairs
- _____ 5. a rivalry among nations to gain the greatest military power
- _____ 6. an agreement of more than 60 countries to solve all problems peacefully
- _____ 7. unwillingness to respect or try to understand customs, ideas, or beliefs that are different from one's own
- _____ 8. the world organization of nations established in 1920
- _____ 9. not capable of being dealt with successfully
- _____ 10. to keep alive or in existence; make lasting



Practice

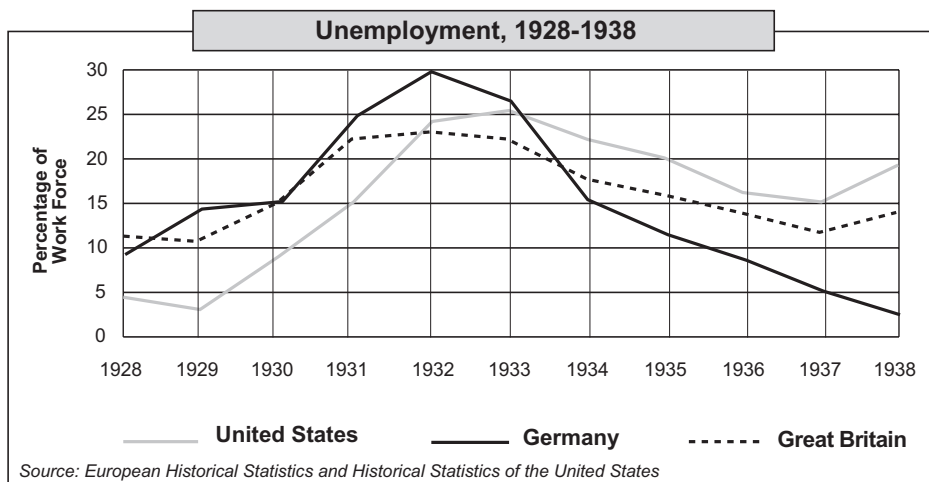
Answer the following using complete sentences.

1. Almost every country in the world, including the Soviet Union, signed the Kellogg-Briand Pact. The countries that signed this pact pledged to outlaw war. Do you think that there was a realistic way to enforce this pact? Give the reason(s) supporting your conclusion.



The Great Depression

During the 1920s, government leaders and bankers in the United States encouraged the growth of new businesses and industries. Owners and investors in industry and many skilled workers prospered. Others, however, did not fare as well. Farmers and unskilled workers had difficulty earning enough to support their families. Then, in 1929, even those who had prospered during the 1920s began to lose their wealth as the entire country and the world experienced hard times.



The *Great Depression* began in 1929. An economic *depression* occurs when a country has a long slump in business activity. Factories do not produce many goods, and unemployment is high. Because people have very little money to spend on goods, businesses further reduce their production, causing more unemployment. The Great Depression was the worst depression in the history of the United States and the world.

Reasons for the Great Depression

The American economy suffered from a series of economic problems in the late 1920s. Scholars who have studied the period point to a number of weaknesses. Three of the most often cited reasons for the Great Depression were the uneven distribution of wealth, overproduction by industry and agriculture, and a declining demand for consumer goods.



The Uneven Distribution of Wealth. While American factories produced almost half of the world's industrial goods, only the richest five percent of the population in the United States benefited from these profits. Approximately 60 percent of American families earned less than \$20,000 yearly. Most Americans could not afford to buy the goods being produced. A downward economic trend began when factories had to reduce their production and lay off workers.



Approximately 60 percent of American families could not afford to buy the goods being produced.

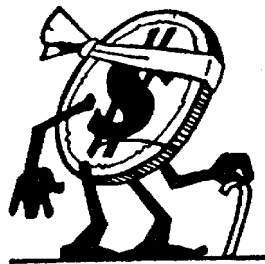
Overproduction by Industry and Agriculture. While overproduction of factory goods eventually led to workers losing their jobs, a **surplus** of farm products also hurt farmers. New farming methods helped American farmers to produce more food.

Competition from farmers in other countries led to a worldwide *surplus* of agricultural products. The surplus caused prices to drop and profits to decrease. When farmers were unable to sell their crops at a profit, many lost their farms because they could not pay off their bank loans.

Declining Demand for Consumer Goods. The overproduction of agricultural and industrial goods forced many businesses to go bankrupt when the demand for their goods dropped off sharply. As workers lost their jobs, more and more families bought even fewer goods. Businesses failed and were unable to pay back their bank loans. The unpaid debts caused many banks to go out of business.

The Stock Market Crash

On October 29, 1929, the stock market crashed. Many investors had purchased stocks on the New York Stock Exchange on *margin*, which means they paid a small percentage of the stock's price as a down payment and borrowed the rest from a stockbroker. When stock prices fell, many investors didn't have the money to pay off their loans. A panic began. Investors wanted to sell their stocks quickly. With few buyers willing to purchase these stocks, prices continued to sink rapidly. When the stock market crashed, billions of dollars were lost. Stocks purchased at high prices were worthless. The stock market crash resulted in





high unemployment and a sharp decline in production. Prices and wages declined as well. Thousands of businesses failed, and many banks were closed. The stock market crash created economic turmoil throughout the world.

Social and Political Effects

The Great Depression not only affected Americans economically, it also affected them socially. Men who were once millionaires could be seen selling apples or pencils on street corners. Children looked in garbage cans for food. Americans began to question their belief in the American way of life. Americans had plenty of time to think about this, since many were out of work.

By 1931 the effects of the Great Depression in the United States were felt throughout Europe. The United States stopped making loans to European countries and called in those loans it had made during and after World War I.

The political effects of the Great Depression were also felt throughout Europe and the world. **Laissez-faire** economics, which limited government interference in the economy of a nation, was replaced with government control of economics. In the United States, the presidential election of 1932 showed that the people wanted the government to help solve economic problems. When he was elected, President Franklin Delano Roosevelt immediately started the programs known as the **New Deal**. Roosevelt believed that the federal government should do everything it could to help its people during their economic hardship. Unemployed people were put to work in public works projects. New government agencies were set up to give financial help to businesses and farms. The Social Security Act of 1935 provided insurance for people who were elderly and people who were disabled. For the first time in its history, the United States government spent large amounts of money on welfare and relief programs for the poor.



Practice

Answer the following using complete sentences.

1. What is an *economic depression*? _____

2. What are three possible causes of the Great Depression? _____

3. What were the political effects of the Depression? _____

4. What was President Franklin Roosevelt's *New Deal*? _____

5. What were some of the social effects caused by the Great Depression? _____



Review

During World War I, European nations had used their economies to fight the war. After the war, they had to start rebuilding their devastated industries and lands, but they had little money to do so. France, in particular, and Great Britain depended heavily on German reparations and loans from the United States to rebuild. Although Europe's economy improved somewhat, high unemployment and raging inflation never permitted Europe's economy to fully recover until long after World War II.

Seeing a need to protect its overseas empire and fearing Germany, Great Britain began to build up its military. This began an arms race which France, the United States, Germany, Japan, and Italy joined. Although the Treaty of Versailles had established a League of Nations to maintain world peace, without the membership of the United States and the Soviet Union, the League failed. Even the Kellogg-Briand Pact, which called for peaceful resolution of conflict, could not stop the arms race and international tensions.

Germany's government, the Weimar Republic, was very unpopular with the German people. Although it was an elected government, Germans held it responsible for many problems following the war. The German economy suffered as much or more than any other European nation's economy.

In 1929 the Great Depression hit the world economy. Many people found themselves without work, and many of those who had been wealthy were suddenly poor. The prosperity and peace that many people throughout the world wished for after the war had never happened. People had lost hope.



Practice

Match each definition with the correct term. Write the letter on the line provided.

- | | | |
|-------|---|-------------------------|
| _____ | 1. stopping of work or services by a group of people to protest certain conditions | A. anti-Semitic |
| _____ | 2. agreement signed to end World War I | B. devastation |
| _____ | 3. unwillingness to respect or try to understand customs, ideas, or beliefs that are different from one's own | C. insurmountable |
| _____ | 4. a government policy of noninvolvement in foreign affairs | D. intolerance |
| _____ | 5. destruction; ruin | E. isolationism |
| _____ | 6. prejudiced against or hostile toward Jews | F. preserve |
| _____ | 7. so great it cannot be dealt with successfully | G. reparations |
| _____ | 8. to keep alive or in existence; make lasting | H. strike |
| _____ | 9. tax on imports shipped from one nation to another; also known as duties | I. surplus |
| _____ | 10. an amount greater than what is used or needed; an excess amount | J. Treaty of Versailles |
| _____ | 11. payment for war damages | K. tariff |



Practice

Use the list below to write the correct term for each definition on the line provided.

arms race	inflation	New Deal
economic depression	Kellogg-Briand Pact	prosperity
Great Depression	laissez-faire	ratified
imported goods	League of Nations	stock market crash

- _____ 1. goods made and brought in for sale from another country
- _____ 2. Roosevelt's plan for ending the Depression
- _____ 3. a rivalry among nations to gain the greatest military power
- _____ 4. disastrous fall in the stock market in 1929 which ended the prosperity of the 1920s
- _____ 5. approved
- _____ 6. occurs when a country has little economic or business activity
- _____ 7. the world organization of nations established in 1920
- _____ 8. a sharp increase in prices while the value of money decreases
- _____ 9. a policy in which the government does not interfere in economic affairs
- _____ 10. economic well-being
- _____ 11. an agreement of more than 60 countries to solve all problems peacefully
- _____ 12. the national economic crisis from 1929-1941

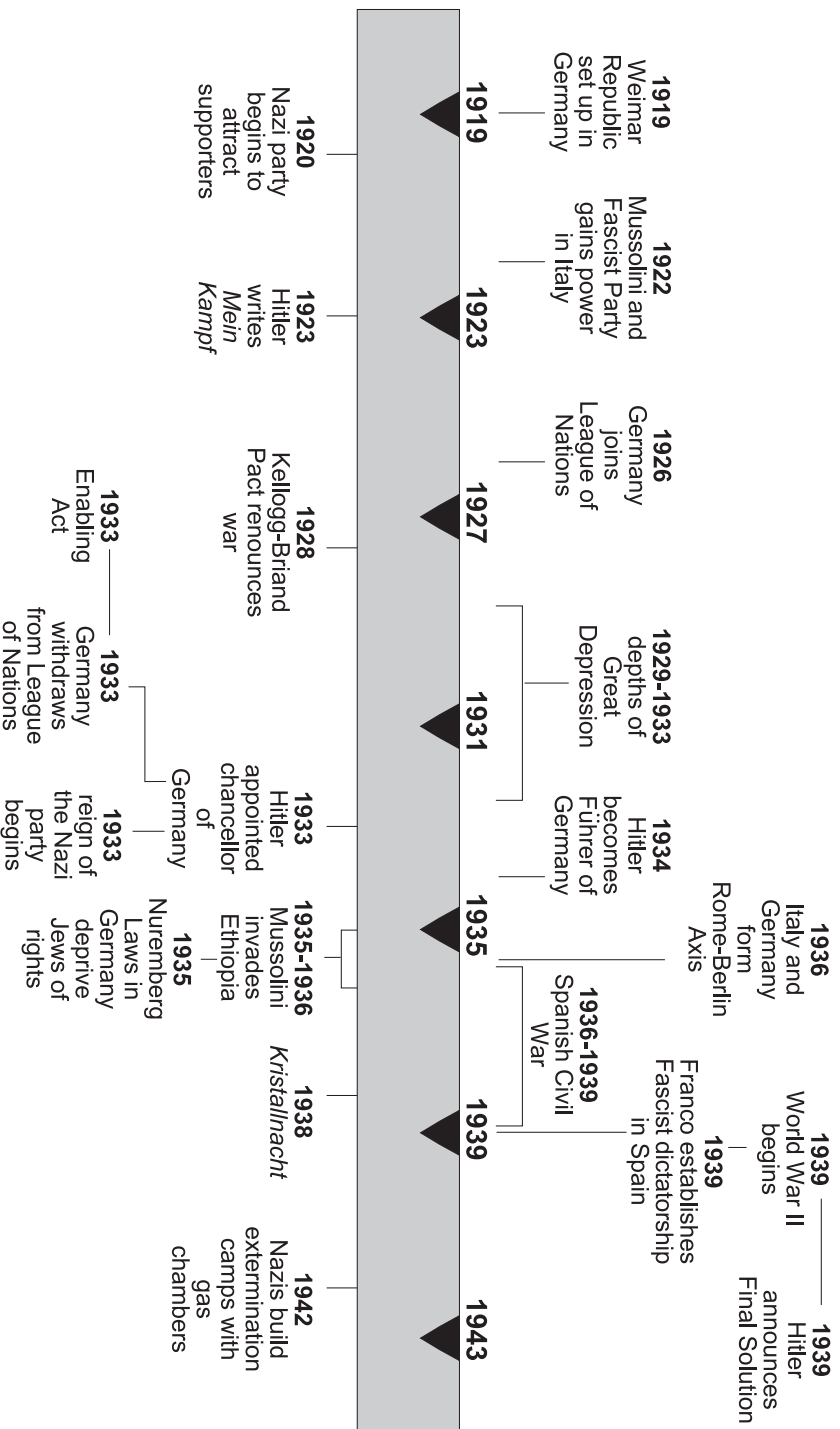
Unit 7: Fascist Dictators (1919-1939)

This unit emphasizes the rise of Fascist dictatorships in Italy, Germany, and Spain following World War I and the events leading up to and including the Holocaust.

Unit Focus

- factors that led to the rise of Fascist dictatorships in Italy, Germany, and Spain after World War I
- comparison of communism and fascism
- events that led to Mussolini's rise to power in Italy
- events that led to Hitler's rise to power in Germany
- anti-Semitic policies of the Nazis which led to the Holocaust

Unit 7 Timeline





Vocabulary

Use the vocabulary words and definitions below as a reference for this unit.

- aggression** hostile, unprovoked action
- Allied Powers** alliance that included the United States, Great Britain, France, and the Soviet Union during World War I and II
- annex** to increase a nation's borders or land by taking control of a foreign territory, state, or nation
- annihilation** the act of destroying completely; wiping out
- anti-Semitic** prejudiced against or hostile towards Jews
- apathy** a lack of interest or concern; indifference
- authoritarian** favoring complete control over the will of others; domineering
- autocratic** having absolute or unlimited power
- Axis Powers** alliance that included Germany, Italy, and Japan during World War II
- bigotry** stubborn and blind attachment to one's own beliefs and opinions with no tolerance for beliefs opposed to them



- capitalism** an economic system in which land, factories, and other means of producing goods are privately owned and controlled by an individual or groups of individuals for a profit
- communism** a theory of government in which wealth and property are owned in common, and production and labor are shared equally among the people; in reality, the means of production and distribution are owned and controlled by the state
- concentration camps** prisons operated by Nazi Germany in which Jews and other groups considered to be enemies of Adolf Hitler were starved while doing slave labor or were tortured and murdered
- constitutional monarchy** a government led by a ruler whose power is limited by law
- death camps** Nazi extermination centers where Jews and non-Jews were brought to be put to death as part of Hitler's Final Solution
- democracy** a system of government in which power comes from the people
- dictator** a ruler with complete power and authority over a government and its people
- dictatorship** a government ruled by a person who has complete control over the life of the people



- economic depression** occurs when a country has little economic business or business activity
- emigrate** to leave one's own country to live in another country
- emigration** the legal process of leaving one's country to settle in another country
- expel** force out
- fascism** a system of government that places all power in the state and its leader
- federal** a form of government in which power is shared between the national government and the government of separate states
- genocide** the deliberate and systematic extermination of a particular racial, national, or religious group
- ghetto** sealed area established in poor sections of cities where most Jews were forced to live before and during World War II; in modern times it has come to mean sections of cities where minorities live due to socio-economic barriers
- Holocaust** the attempted extermination of all Jews in Europe and other groups by the Nazis during World War II, resulting in the mass murder of about six million Jews



immigration the legal process of settling in a foreign country

imperialism the practice of establishing colonies; extending the rule of one country over other countries or colonies

inflation a sharp increase in prices while the value of money decreases

intolerance unwillingness to respect or try to understand customs, ideas, or beliefs that are different from one's own

menace a person or thing which is a threat

nationalism strong support for the survival, success, and self-rule of one's country and culture

National Socialist German

Workers' Party (Nazis) political party in Germany led by Adolf Hitler

parliament a group of people who have the duty and power to make the laws of a country

persecute to treat a person or group harshly and unjustly

pogrom violent and bloody acts, including massacres, carried out against Jews

quota a specified number or amount



- refugee** a person who flees to a foreign country to escape danger
- republic** system of government in which officials are elected by the citizens
- scapegoat** a person blamed for the mistakes of others
- tactics** planned actions
- totalitarianism** a political system in which the government has total control over the lives of individual citizens



Fascist Dictators (1919-1939)

Communism and Fascism

As you read in the previous unit, the world experienced a severe **economic depression** after World War I. In Europe the Great Depression caused many citizens to lose faith in their democratic governments. In many countries, people turned to extremist political groups. Some turned to **communism**; others turned to **fascism**. People began looking for new leaders to help them solve their problems and rebuild their countries. Sometimes these new leaders became **dictators**, or rulers with complete power and control over their countries. Many of these *dictators* believed in denying people civil rights. Fascist dictators eventually rose to power in Italy, Germany, and Spain.

Fascism was a new political movement that emphasized **autocratic** and Nationalist policies. The Fascists believed that the *state*, or the nation's government, must be all-powerful. Rights of the individual were less important than those of the state. Benito Mussolini in Italy, Adolf Hitler in Germany, and Francisco Franco in Spain were three such Fascist dictators who gained control of their countries. By the end of their reigns, Hitler and Mussolini had brought their countries to near ruin. Millions of people had died, and the world had fought its *second* world war.

Like Communist rule in Russia, fascism gave supreme power to the state and permitted only one political party: the Fascist Party.

These two systems of **totalitarianism**, however, began with many differences. Under *communism*, the right to rule, in theory, came from the workers and peasants. However, the Fascist governments of Mussolini and Hitler drew their support from industrialists and the military. And Spanish Fascists under Franco drew support from the military and the wealthy landowners.

Fascists urged people to concentrate on their own nations, while Marxist Communists ignored national borders and tried to inspire a worldwide movement. The two forms of government also differed in what they advocated for the economy. Communists opposed **capitalism** and promised a classless society. Fascism, on the other hand, supported



capitalism and private ownership of factories and the means of production. Fascism promised economic security by keeping the existing class structure. In other words, those with economic wealth and power would keep it.

		Characteristics of Totalitarianism	
		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • one-party rule • dictatorship • state controls most aspects of life 	
		Fascism/Nazism	Communism
Basic Principles Political Social Economic Cultural Examples	Basic Principles	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • leader identified with state • authoritarian • action-oriented 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Leninism • Marxism • dictatorship of the proletariat (urban working class)
	Political	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • racist (nazism) • nationalist • militarist 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • nationalist • internationalist
	Social	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • supported by industrialists and the military 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • supported by peasants (China) and workers (Soviet Union)
	Economic	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • control by state corporations or state governments • private property 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • government (state) planning • collective ownership
	Cultural	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • censorship • indoctrination • secret police 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • censorship • indoctrination • secret police
	Examples	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • fascism in Italy and Spain • nazism in Germany 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • communism in China and in the Soviet Union



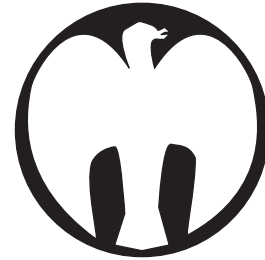
Fascism

After World War I, Benito Mussolini organized the Fascist movement. He derived the word *Fascist* from the ancient Roman symbol of authority, the *fasces*—a bundle of rods surrounding an ax. This symbol represented a strong central government uniting all its people in one goal. Fascists favored **dictatorship** and **nationalism**; they opposed **democracy** and communism.

Against Democracy. Fascists believed that democratic governments were weak and inefficient.

For Dictatorship. Fascists believed in seizing power by force and violence. They believed that dictatorship was a strong and efficient form of government. Under fascism, the government would control every aspect of human activity. This is called a *totalitarian state*.

For Extreme Nationalism. Fascists exaggerated the accomplishments of their nation. They supported **imperialism** so their nation could develop and rule an empire. They glorified war and claimed that military might was proof of the nation's strength and vitality. Only superior nations would have power in the world.



symbol of Italian Fascists

Against Communism. Fascists opposed the Communist ideals of Marxism. They did not support the idea of a classless society or a worldwide revolution of the working class and peasants. They believed that having a property-owning class and a worker class maintained a stable and healthy economy.

For the Benefit of the State or Nation. Fascists believed that society should work for the benefit of the state or nation, not themselves or the greater good.



Practice

Use pages 241-243 and the list below to complete the following statements.

communism	industrialists	political
democracy	Italy	Spain
dictatorship	military	workers
Germany	peasants	

1. Powerful dictators promoted fascism in the countries of _____, _____, and _____.
2. Under Russian Communists, the right to rule, in theory, came from the _____ and the _____.
3. The Italian and German Fascists, however, drew their support from the _____ and the _____.
4. Fascists favored a _____ with total power over the state's individuals.
5. Fascists opposed _____ and the individual freedom of the people; they also opposed _____ and its classless society.
6. Both communism and fascism gave supreme power to the state and permitted only one _____ party.



Practice

Match each definition with the correct term. Write the letter in the line provided.

- | | | |
|-----------|---|------------------------|
| _____ 1. | occurs when a country has little economic business or business activity | A. autocratic |
| _____ 2. | a theory of government in which wealth and property are owned in common, and production and labor are shared equally among the people; in reality, the means of production and distribution are owned and controlled by the state | B. capitalism |
| _____ 3. | a ruler with complete power and authority over a government and its people | C. communism |
| _____ 4. | a system of government that places power in the state and its leader | D. democracy |
| _____ 5. | having absolute or unlimited power | E. dictator |
| _____ 6. | a political system in which the government has total control over the lives of individual citizens | F. dictatorship |
| _____ 7. | an economic system in which land, factories, and other means of producing goods are privately owned and controlled by an individual or groups of individuals for a profit | G. economic depression |
| _____ 8. | strong support for the survival, success, and self-rule of one's country and culture | H. fascism |
| _____ 9. | a system of government in which power comes from the people | I. imperialism |
| _____ 10. | extending the rule of one country over other countries or colonies | J. nationalism |
| _____ 11. | a government ruled by a person who has complete control over the life of the people | K. totalitarianism |



Italy: The Rise of Fascism

Following World War I, Italy was ruled by a **constitutional monarchy**. This government, however, faced many difficult problems after the war, as did the governments of many other European nations. The country's economy was weak, and the Italian government was deeply in debt. High unemployment and **inflation** left many Italians jobless and poor.

One person who offered Italy a solution to all its problems was Benito Mussolini. Mussolini's *Fascist Party* wore black shirts as their uniform, and so they were called *Black Shirts*. Mussolini's speaking ability inspired Italians to trust him and his plan to make Italy wealthy and powerful. He boldly promised to rescue Italy by reviving its economy and rebuilding its military forces.

Benito Mussolini (1883-1945)

Benito Mussolini was dictator of Italy (1924-1943) and founder of fascism. He was the editor of the Socialist Party paper, but he split with the Socialists when he advocated that Italy join the Allies in World War I.

Mussolini formed a Fascist group in 1919 which attracted many Italians because it blended nationalism and socialism. The Fascist Party was nationally organized in 1921. In 1922 the Fascist militia marched on Rome which led the king to make Mussolini premier. Mussolini eliminated opponents and began a brutal foreign policy. In 1940 he joined Hitler and declared war on the Allies in 1943. Italy suffered many defeats in the war and Mussolini was captured by the Allies. He was rescued by the Germans to head the Fascist puppet regime in Northern Italy, but on its collapse, Mussolini was shot. His body was hung upside down (by the feet) in a public place in a small town in Italy.

Mussolini Gains Power

Some farmers and workers in Italy who suffered after World War I wanted a Communist revolution. They believed that land, factories, and industry should be owned by the *state*. Mussolini gained popularity by leading his Fascist Party against the Communists. Because he was anti-Communist and believed in *private* ownership of industry and land, many business people and landowners contributed money to his party to fight the Communists. His promise of rebuilding a strong military also attracted the support of soldiers.



In October 1922, claiming that the Italian government in Rome needed to be defended from a Communist revolution, Mussolini sent his Black Shirts to the rescue. This tactic led the king, Victor Emmanuel III, to appoint Mussolini premier and the head of the government. Mussolini and his Fascists had gained power without a revolution.

Black Shirts

“Black Shirts” was the nickname for the street fighters organized by Italian Fascist leader Benito Mussolini in 1919. The black shirt was a distinctive element of the Fascist uniform. Mussolini organized his supporters into combat squads which rejected the democratic process in favor of violent action. The Black Shirts would break up socialist rallies, smash leftist presses, and attack farmers’ unions. Using terror and intimidation, they forced out officials in northern Italy.

Once in power, Mussolini began working to keep power. He quickly outlawed all other political groups and ended elections. He took away the freedom of speech and the freedom of the press. People who were against Mussolini were either murdered or exiled. By 1927 Mussolini and his Fascist Party completely controlled Italy. Mussolini was now *Il Duce*, the leader. He ruled by decree—his word was law. He could make or change laws whenever he wanted. Mussolini was now a true dictator. Terror and violence were commonplace. Entire families could be arrested if one family member committed a crime. Any Italian could be arrested for any reason whatsoever. The citizens had lost all civil rights.

Mussolini gained power by making Italians believe he would rid Italy of Communists and make Italy respected again. Mussolini held power by creating a myth. To make Italy a great nation, he claimed that every Italian must do exactly what he wanted. Fascists held parades and built monuments all over Italy. All education was controlled by the Fascists. People were told that Italy’s economy was improving because of Mussolini and his laws. The truth was that only a few of Mussolini’s Fascist followers were getting richer. The people were actually no better off.



Mussolini Attacks Ethiopia

During the 1930s, Mussolini set out to prove to the world just how powerful Italy and its army was. To do this, in 1935 Italy attacked Ethiopia, a poor, almost defenseless country in east Africa. Expecting a quick victory, Mussolini was surprised to find that his army unable to defeat its weak opponent without suffering many casualties. The Ethiopians, however, were no match for the Italian army and eventually had to surrender.

The League of Nations demanded that Mussolini withdraw his soldiers, but he refused. In 1939 Mussolini also invaded and conquered Albania. By 1940, Mussolini, with the help of Hitler, gained control of much of the Mediterranean region.



Mussolini attacked Ethiopia, a poor and almost defenseless country in east Africa to prove to the world just how powerful Italy and its army was.

The Rome-Berlin Axis

Under Mussolini's leadership, Italy became a model for the rise of fascism in other countries. Using his **tactics**, many Fascist leaders, including Francisco Franco in Spain and Adolf Hitler in Germany, rose to power in Europe in the late 1920s and 1930s.

Hitler's growing strength in Germany convinced Mussolini that he should form an alliance with Germany. In October 1936, Italy and Germany formed an agreement known as the *Rome-Berlin Axis*. Later, Japan would also join Italy and Germany to form the **Axis Powers**. The three nations agreed to fight Soviet communism and not interfere with one another's plans for expansion. The *Axis Powers* became the aggressors who began World War II as they tried to increase their empires.

After suffering defeat after defeat in World War II and realizing that their government was weak and corrupt, the Italian people overthrew their Fascist government and joined the **Allied Powers** or *Allies* to defeat Germany. Mussolini was arrested. After escaping, he was shot. His body was hung upside down (by the feet) in a public place in a small town in Italy.



Practice

Answer the following using complete sentences.

1. What were economic conditions in Italy after World War I?

2. What two types of people gave Mussolini and his political party money to gain power? _____

3. Who were the Black Shirts? _____

4. What happened to people's rights during the reign of Mussolini?

5. What countries did Mussolini's army invade to prove the strength of Italy's military? _____

6. What was the *Rome-Berlin Axis*? _____

7. When and why did the Italian Fascist government end? _____



Spain: Fascists Win the Civil War and Gain Control of Government

Following World War I, Spain was an underdeveloped agricultural country. Most of Spain's people farmed; fewer worked in factories. During the 1920s, Spain faced extremely harsh economic conditions that its weak government could not solve. A bitter struggle between peasants and workers on one side and the property-owning class and army on the other side resulted in violence and bloodshed.

In 1923 an army general named Miguel Primo de Rivera led a military takeover of Spain's government. When the military government could not solve Spain's problems, Spain became a **republic** in 1931. Spain's new government tried to solve the problem of high unemployment and prices that had continued to plague the country. However, it was also unsuccessful.

Civil War Breaks Out in Spain

The Spanish Civil War began in 1936. Two groups fought each other for control of Spain. The leader of the Right Wing revolutionaries was General Francisco Franco. Franco and his followers, known as the *Nationalists*, fought against the Left Wing, or *Loyalists*, to overthrow the government. This bloody civil war lasted three years.

Francisco Franco (1892-1975)

Francisco Franco (1892-1975) was a Spanish general and the head of state of Spain from 1939 to 1975. He joined the 1936 military revolt in Spain while in Morocco. In 1937 he became the leader of the Falange party and head of the anti-republican army. Franco became the head of state after his forces captured Madrid in 1939. He was able to retain all of his power until shortly before his death in 1975, after which Prince Juan Carlos became king.

Spain Becomes a Fascist Dictatorship

Franco and his Fascist followers were supported by the governments of Germany and Italy. Germany and Italy believed that, with Spain as an ally, the Fascists could gain control of France and threaten Great Britain.



The Loyalists, who supported Spain's *republic*, received aid only from the Soviet Union. The United States, Great Britain, and France chose to remain neutral and not risk involvement in another war. The Loyalists were not strong enough to fight Franco's army, strengthened by troops and arms sent from Germany and Italy. In 1939 Franco defeated the Loyalist forces. He then established a Fascist dictatorship. As chief of state, commander in chief, and head of Spain's only legal political party, Franco severely limited the people's freedoms.

After gaining control of Spain, Franco decided not to join the Germans and Italians in the Rome-Berlin Axis and World War II.

The Spanish Civil War (1936-1939)

The Spanish Civil War inspired classic works of literature and art. Many writers wrote books on the topic. The American writer Ernest Hemingway wrote *For Whom the Bell Tolls*, a book about an idealistic American fighting Fascist forces in Spain. The English writer George Orwell wrote *Homage to Catalonia*, an autobiographical book about his experience on the Aragon Front. The bombing of the city of Guernica during the Spanish Civil War inspired one of Pablo Picasso's greatest paintings, the *Guernica*.



Practice

Answer the following using complete sentences.

1. What conditions existed in Spain after World War I? _____

2. What two groups fought in the Spanish Civil War? _____

3. Why did Germany and Italy support Francisco Franco during the Spanish Civil War? _____

4. Why didn't the United States, Great Britain, and France send support to the pro-republic Loyalists fighting Franco? _____

5. What kind of government did Franco establish in Spain? _____



Germany: The Fall of the Republic and the Rise of Fascism

Weaknesses of the Weimar Republic

Following World War I, Germany became a **federal republic**, and its national government was elected by its citizens. Because the new constitution had been written in the city of Weimar, Germany's government became known as the *Weimar Republic*. For the first time, Germany had a democratic form of government. But continued joblessness and an *inflation* rate that made the country's money practically worthless left the Weimar Republic open to blame. It fell under continuous attack from the *right* (the army, industrialists, and large landowners) and the *left* (Socialists and Communists).

Throughout the 1920s, the Weimar Republic was governed by well-meaning leaders. But the problems faced by Germany required solutions, not good intentions. Sadly, with the scarcity of money, few remaining factories, large debts, lost national pride, very high inflation, and many other serious problems, the Weimar Republic headed for failure. Added to these problems was the fact that Germans were not used to a democratic form of government. All of these factors provided the ingredients for revolution. When the effects of the Great Depression were felt in Germany, Germans were eager for a leader who promised to rebuild the country. Adolf Hitler was this man.

The Nazis and Hitler

After World War I, many political parties had formed, battling for power in Germany. One of these political parties, the **National Socialist German Workers' Party**, or the *Nazi Party*, began to attract supporters in 1920. The party adopted the *swastika*, or hooked cross, as its symbol. The Nazi Party was extremely nationalistic and anti-Communist. Promising to keep

Swastika



swastika of ancient civilizations



swastika of Nazi Germany

The swastika was an ancient symbol of well-being and prosperity used by many different groups of people—Greeks, Celts, Native Americans, and the Hindus of India. The clockwise swastika, or Nazi swastika, was adopted as the symbol of the National Socialist German Workers' Party of Germany (Nazi Party). Today, the swastika is one of the most hated symbols in history, standing for all the atrocities of the Nazi regime.



industry and land privately owned, Hitler and his Nazi Party attracted the support of wealthy landowners and businessmen. In addition, the hardships brought on by the Great Depression encouraged popularity of the Nazis among working-class Germans as well. With the German government and economy about to collapse, Hitler saw his chance to seize power. In the election of 1930, many Germans cast their votes for the Nazis. By 1933 the Nazi Party was the largest party in the **parliament** of the German government.

Once in power, Hitler turned the government into a Fascist dictatorship. He had convinced the people that he had the answers to Germany's problems. After a brief try at a democratic form of government, Germany once again would have an **authoritarian** form of government. Under an *authoritarian* form of government, leaders have total power over the people. There is no limit to their power to make or break laws. Eventually, Hitler would have complete power over the German people.

Adolf Hitler's Background

Adolf Hitler was born in Austria on April 20, 1889. In school, he took an interest in German nationalism. In 1908 Hitler moved to Vienna, the capital of the Austrian Empire, to become an artist. Rejected by the Vienna Academy of Fine Arts, he lived on a small inheritance and orphan's pension. Hitler became **anti-Semitic** (hostile toward Jews) during this period. He developed a belief that the Jewish people were the cause of all the problems in Austria, Germany, and the rest of Europe.

In 1913 Hitler moved to Munich, Germany. He had no real future in sight. Eventually he joined the German army and was wounded during World War I. Hitler was



Hitler reviews troops in Berlin, Germany.

Courtesy of the United States
Holocaust Memorial Museum
(USHMM) Photo Archives



furious over the German defeat and began planning to make Germany a powerful nation again. In 1919, following World War I, Hitler joined the German Workers' Party, an extreme right-wing Nationalist party in Munich. This party was later renamed the *National Socialist Workers' Party*, or Nazi Party, for short. He wanted his party to gain support from both workers and German Nationalists. As a member of the Nazi Party, he made good use of his ability to speak to large crowds. In most of his speeches, he talked about the evils of socialism and communism. Hitler helped the party develop into a movement complete with followers, flags, uniforms, party badges, a newspaper, and political power.

In November 1923, Hitler was arrested for staging an armed uprising against the government of Munich. This uprising, called the *Beer Hall Putsch*, was crushed. Hitler was sent to jail. While in jail, he wrote the book *Mein Kampf* (My Struggle). In *Mein Kampf*, Hitler wrote that the German race of people (the so-called *Aryan* "race") was better than any other race of people. Hitler claimed that the Aryans were a master race. He also declared that the non-Aryan "races"—such as Jews, Slavs, and Gypsies (the Roma and Sinti)—were inferior or subhuman. Germany was overcrowded, Hitler said, and needed more *lebensraum*, or living space. Hitler planned to conquer Eastern Europe and Russia and **annex** land for Germany.



Practice

Answer the following using complete sentences.

1. Why did the Weimar Republic fail? _____

2. Why did German voters support Hitler and his Nazi Party? _____

3. What is an *authoritarian* form of government? _____

4. In *Mein Kampf* how did Hitler compare the German race to the other races in the world? _____

5. Why did Hitler plan to conquer Eastern Europe and Russia? _____



Practice

Match each definition with the correct term. Write the letter on the line provided.

- | | |
|--|---|
| _____ 1. a government led by a ruler whose power is limited by law | A. Allied Powers |
| _____ 2. a sharp increase in prices while the value of money decreases | B. annex |
| _____ 3. system of government in which officials are elected by the citizens | C. anti-Semitic |
| _____ 4. planned actions | D. authoritarian |
| _____ 5. a form of government in which power is shared between the national government and the government of separate states | E. Axis Powers |
| _____ 6. political party in Germany founded and led by Adolf Hitler | F. constitutional monarchy |
| _____ 7. favoring complete control over the will of others; domineering | G. federal |
| _____ 8. prejudiced against or hostile towards Jews | H. inflation |
| _____ 9. alliance that included Germany, Italy, and Japan during World War II | I. National Socialist German Workers' Party (Nazis) |
| _____ 10. alliance that included the United States, Great Britain, France, and the Soviet Union during World War I and II | J. parliament |
| _____ 11. to increase a nation's borders or land by taking control of a foreign territory, state, or nation | K. republic |
| _____ 12. a group of people who have the duty and power to make the laws of a country | L. tactics |



Hitler's Rise to Power

Hitler's popularity increased when the Great Depression hit Germany. In his speeches, Hitler criticized the government for failing to solve Germany's problems. He spoke of German pride. He reminded the German people, over and over again, that they had been treated unfairly at the end of World War I. He also blamed the Jews and Communists for causing problems in Germany and the rest of Europe. By blaming the government, the Jews, and the Communists for Germany's problems, Hitler was able to bring Germans together against common enemies.

Adolf Hitler (1889-1945)

Adolf Hitler was the Austrian-born dictator of Germany from 1933-1945. History has judged Hitler an evil, unstable man but a political genius. Hitler grew up in Austria and left school at age 16 to try to make a living as an artist. He was drafted into the military during World War I and was twice awarded the Iron Cross. Hitler joined the *German Workers' Party*, which he turned into the *National Socialist Workers' Party* or *Nazi Party*. After a failed attack against the Bavarian government, he served nine months in prison where he wrote *Mein Kampf*, which set out his plans to restore greatness to Germany. By 1932 he was able to make the Nazi Party into the largest national party in the country.

Hitler became chancellor in 1933 and prepared his country for war. After gaining power in Germany, he began a campaign to destroy the Jews and to put those who disagreed with him in concentration camps. He spread propaganda that blamed all of Germany's problems on the Jews and the Communists. Hitler started by slowly removing Jews from German society. Then he began a systematic extermination of the Jews through mass executions, gassing, starvation, and being worked to death in labor camps.

Hitler seized much foreign land and his invasion of Poland on September 1, 1939 began World War II. His war plans were effective at first, but in 1941 he was unable to maintain a war on two fronts. German forces lost North Africa and were pushed back on both sides after D-Day. Hitler was able to still maintain popular support although he became increasingly unbalanced.

Hitler is considered one of the most evil people in history. His life ended when he committed suicide on April 30, 1945, after realizing that his cause was a failure and he was losing the war.



Many young, unemployed Germans joined Hitler's party militia, known as the *Storm Troops* or SA (Brown Shirts). The Storm Troops **persecuted** Jews and suspected Communists. They burned synagogues (temples), Jewish places of worship.

Hitler also began to make secret deals with important groups in Germany: the army and the industrialists. He knew that to get and hold power, he would need their support. Hitler promised army leaders that when he became the leader of Germany, he would rebuild the army. He promised industrialists that he would outlaw labor unions and put a stop to communism. The industrialists and the army believed that, with Hitler as their leader, they would regain the influence they held before World War I. Army leaders and industrialists also thought that they could control Hitler once he was in power. Both groups were disappointed in this once Hitler became dictator.

The Nazi Party made gains in the German parliament during 1930-1932. By 1932 the Nazis had 800,000 members. They had become the country's largest political party in *The Reichstag* (German Parliament), with 230 seats. On January 30, 1933, Germany's President Paul von Hindenburg appointed Hitler as the chancellor, or prime minister. Thus Hitler came to power legally.

On February 27, 1933, a mysterious fire destroyed the parliament building. Hitler and the Nazis blamed the Communists. Many people today feel that the Nazis set the fire and blamed the Communists. Hitler asked Von Hindenburg to give him emergency powers to take any action necessary to destroy the Communist **menace**. Von Hindenburg agreed. Civil liberties were taken from the German people. The Nazis could now arrest or jail anyone. On March 23, 1933, the Reichstag passed the *Enabling Act*. This gave the government the power to put aside the Constitution for four years while laws for dealing with the country's problems could be enacted. With his new powers, Hitler quickly brought the German government under Nazi control. It was during this time that the Nazis opened **concentration camps** for political prisoners and all political parties and trade unions were abolished. On August 2, 1934, when Von Hindenburg died, Hitler became the sole ruler of Germany.



Practice

Answer the following using complete sentences.

1. Who were the Storm Troops and what did they do? _____

2. With whom did Hitler make secret deals and why? _____

3. Why did President Paul von Hindenburg give Hitler unlimited power? _____

4. How did Hitler use the Enabling Act to seize control of the German government? _____



Hitler in Power

In 1934 Hitler took the title of *der Führer*, or “the leader.” Violence and terror quickly swept across Germany. Hitler’s Storm Troops (SA) arrested, beat, tortured, and murdered anyone opposed to Hitler. The *Secret Police* (SS), loyal only to Hitler, also searched out any opposition to Hitler. Under the direction of Heinrich Himmler, the *Gestapo*, a special group of secret police, had unlimited power to arrest, torture, and murder anyone. The Gestapo were responsible for the concentration camps, execution squads, and **death camps** that had been created for the attempted extermination of all Jews in Europe. Germany had entered its darkest period. A nightmare had fallen upon Germany. Then it would fall upon Europe, and finally the world. The *Third Reich*, or third empire, had begun its brutal and merciless reign.

The Third Reich was filled with names that frightened many Germans and most people throughout the world. Hermann Goering was Hitler’s right-hand man. Dr. Paul Joseph Goebbels was Minister for Propaganda. Martin Bormann, a close advisor of Hitler’s, was in charge of the Nazi Party. Albert Speer took command in re-arming Germany.

By 1938 Hitler had created a terrifying police state in Germany. There was no real opposition to the Nazis. The army was firmly under Hitler’s control. People just disappeared in the night. Some Germans tried to help Jewish people to escape from Germany during Hitler’s terror. However, most Germans showed **apathy** and simply “looked the other way.”

The Hitler Youth

Hitler Youth was an organization for young people between the ages of 10 to 18. It was established as a means of indoctrinating young Germans, both boys and girls, to become loyal supporters of Hitler’s Nazi Party.

Members had to take an oath of loyalty to the Führer (the title given to Hitler), pledging to give up their life for him if necessary. Hitler Youth members had their own uniforms and participated in a number of activities including camping, hiking, and sports.

Hitler Youth encouraged duty, obedience, strength, and ruthlessness. Young boys were also trained in the military arts. Young girls were taught domestic skills such as cooking, cleaning house, and caring for children.



Hitler and his Minister of Propaganda, Dr. Goebbels, used radio, newspapers, magazines, large rallies, and movies to maintain support for the Nazis. Hitler and Goebbels appealed to German nationalism. They used themes which were anti-Communist and anti-Jewish. They told the German people that Germans were members of an Aryan master race born to conquer the whole world. They burned books which did not meet their approval. In short, everything the German people heard was carefully controlled by Hitler and Goebbels. This included everything taught in schools.



Practice

Answer the following using complete sentences.

1. Why are the early 1930s considered the beginning of Germany's darkest period? _____

2. What powers did the Gestapo have? _____

3. How did most Germans react to what was happening to the Jews?

4. How did Hitler and Goebbels convince the Germans that what the Nazis were doing was right? _____



The Jews in Nazi Germany (1933-1938)

In his book *Mein Kampf*, Hitler wrote that *anything* is justified to help the interests of the German people. Hitler made life unbearable for many groups of people, but especially for Jewish people. For generations, Germans had been seeking a **scapegoat**, or someone to blame for their failures and frustrations. Hitler's expression of his deep personal hatred for Jews brought *anti-Semitism* to the surface in Germany. Although his accusations were false, Hitler justified his treatment of Jews by convincing the German people that the Jewish people were the cause of Germany's problems. He promised to kill the Jews and create a master race.

Persecution Begins

In January of 1933, Hitler was elected chancellor of Germany. By August of 1934, Hitler had become the Führer or leader of Germany. He quickly did away with personal freedoms. A series of laws known as the *Nuremberg Laws* passed on September 15, 1935. This order was Hitler's first move toward creating a German "master race." This mass destruction based on racial or ethnic grounds would become known as the **Holocaust**. His first



The sign read: "Germans! Defend yourselves! Do not buy from Jews!"

Courtesy of USHMM Photo Archives

targeted group was the Jews. The *Holocaust* refers to a specific event in the 20th century, the state-sponsored, systematic *persecution* and **annihilation** of 11 million people, including six million European Jews by Nazi Germany and its collaborators between 1933 and 1945.

The Nuremberg Laws forbade Jews to practice law or medicine. Jews were not permitted to hold any government job. The laws called for segregation on public transportation and restricted Jews from shopping except during specified hours. They were forbidden to marry non-Jews. Thus in 1935, Jewish people in Germany were stripped of their citizenship, civil rights, and property. They were required to wear a yellow Star of David, a six-pointed star, so they could be easily identified.



The 1936 Summer Olympic Games in Berlin, Germany provided Hitler with a prime opportunity to show the superiority of the Aryan race, which, according to the Nazis, was a non-Jewish white race. However, the games provided Hitler only with embarrassment and humiliation as *Jesse Owens*, an African-American athlete, won four gold metals. Owens broke three world records and tied one world record. Hitler refused to take part in honoring Owens, and the world got a taste of his **bigotry**. Few people realized the extent of his hatred and **aggression**, but the Jews did not have to wait long to feel it.

Between 1933 and 1938, thousands of Jewish **refugees** came to America, including *Albert Einstein* and the future United States Secretary of State *Henry Kissinger*. However, by the end of 1938, isolationist and anti-immigrant feelings were so strong that Congress and President *Franklin D. Roosevelt* refused to relax **immigration** laws and thus contributed to Hitler's success in persecuting Jews and other targeted groups.

A Nazi Pogrom: Kristallnacht (Night of Broken Glass)

On the evenings of November 9 and 10, 1938, members of the Nazi Party attacked Jewish homes, synagogues, and businesses. This attack became known as *Kristallnacht*, or Night of Broken Glass. Nazis destroyed thousands of Jewish-owned buildings and beat up the occupants. Nazi-led mobs vandalized and looted Jewish communities throughout Germany. More than 8,000 Jewish businesses and almost 200 synagogues were destroyed. Not even hospitals or schools were spared. Over one hundred Jews were killed, thousands more were tortured, and 30,000 Jewish males were sent to concentration camps. Most of these people died, leaving 20,000 children homeless and fatherless.

To add insult to injury, the Jews were ordered to clean up the mess. They were not allowed to collect insurance payments for damages to their property. The entire Jewish community was blamed and fined one billion marks, or 20 percent of their property, for "causing" all the trouble.

Trude Heller

Following is an account by Trude Heller, a concentration camp survivor who lives in South Carolina today. After Hitler took over her hometown in Austria in 1938, Trude was sent to a concentration camp until 1945. She, other Holocaust survivors, and liberators have shared their experiences to help teach about the consequences of **intolerance** and *apathy* in the face of



bigotry. (See pages 278-282, Unit 8 pages 346-369, and Appendix A, B, and C for other personal Holocaust survivor, liberator, and Nazi war criminal accounts.)

Trude Heller was born in Vienna, Austria in 1922. She was 15 years old in March 1938 when Hitler took over Austria. Trude's parents were merchants, leading a comfortable, middle-class life. They lived in an area of Vienna occupied by many Jewish families. In the following account, she describes how life changed for her and her parents after the Nazis gained control of her country.

Trude in Austria

The first week that Hitler took over they came and got our car. An Austrian Storm Trooper carrying a rifle came to our apartment. He knocked on the door and said, "Car keys." And that was that. We handed them over.

A little while later a non-Jewish couple wanted our apartment. A uniformed official came with the people who wanted the apartment. He told us whatever is not out in six hours stays and if you're not out by then, you get killed. So my mother went to look for an apartment. My father went to get boxes and I started packing. Within six hours we were out. Of course, we had to leave almost everything behind. There were several buildings that were not so nice anymore where people like us could move. We moved to one of those places. The people there were mostly Jews who had been displaced from their homes.

Courtesy of the South Carolina Department of Education

Jewish Emigration from German Territory: 1938-1939

After the horrible events of 1938, every Jew in German territory wanted to **emigrate** to a foreign country to escape the Nazis. Money was needed for travel and resettlement expenses. Hitler made this difficult by demanding that Jewish emigrants could not leave Germany with more than four dollars in their pockets. If not for the help of International Jewish Organizations and families in foreign countries, Jews would not have been able to leave.

However, many Jews were not so lucky. Dishonest government officials took advantage of the Jews' desperate situation. Gestapo members took huge sums of money for exit visas that proved to be worthless.



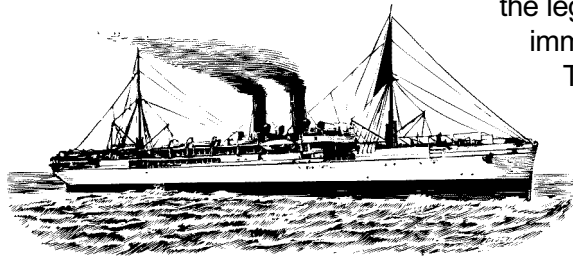
Hitler also ordered hundreds of thousands of Austrian and Czech Jews to leave their countries. The Nazis themselves made the **emigration** problem impossible. They soon began to **expel**, or force out, Jews. By the end of 1938, a serious *refugee* crisis had developed. Hundreds of thousands of refugees were pouring out of Germany and other lands. Because of **quotas** placed on *immigration*, many countries did not accept the refugees.

After 1938 Jews lost their right to leave Germany. They could not hold any jobs. All Jewish shops were destroyed. All Jewish workers were fired. Jews who owned homes had their homes and possessions taken away.

The SS *St. Louis*

On May 13, 1939, the SS *St. Louis* set sail from Hamburg, Germany for Havana, Cuba. On board were 937 passengers, of whom 930 were Jewish refugees fleeing persecution from Nazi Germany after the horror of Kristallnacht, the **pogrom** of burning, mass arrest, and murders in November of 1938. *The SS St. Louis* was one of the last ships to leave Nazi Germany before war began in Europe.

Upon reaching Havana, the Cuban government refused entry to the passengers. Appeals to allow passengers into Miami also failed even though the American Jewish community was willing to help with the cost of their maintenance. President Roosevelt and the legislature were not willing to lift immigration limitations in the 1930s.



The ship was forced to return to Hamburg with its passengers.

While the ship was en route to Europe, Great Britain, Belgium, France, and the Netherlands, each of these countries agreed to grant

temporary refuge until homes in other countries could be found. Following the German invasion of Europe, many of the former SS *St. Louis* passengers found themselves under Nazi rule again. They became victims of Hitler's Final Solution and did not survive the Holocaust.

The Final Solution

Finally, in 1939, Hitler announced the *Final Solution*. The Final Solution was the outright killing process and meant that Hitler intended to kill



every Jewish man, woman, and child in Germany and in Europe. Although not all victims were Jews, all Jews were victims. Nazi murder squads were assigned to round up Jews and shoot them in cold blood. When shooting was found to be too slow and too disturbing for the shooters, new methods were tried. After the *Einsatzgruppen* (commanders of the mobile killing squads from the German middle class) had tried using carbon monoxide gas piped into mobile gas vans, the death factories were started. Instead of the killers rounding up the victims, the victims were sent to the **ghettos** and then to the killing centers.

Ghettos and Genocide

Most Jews were herded into small sections of the cities, or *ghettos*, which were sealed in by barbed wire or walls. They were confined in overcrowded conditions, forced into heavy labor, and provided little to eat. Jewish people were not permitted to leave without permission. Many were left to starve or die of disease. The Nazi ghettos for Jews became transition areas and used as collection points for shipment to larger ghettos or to death camps and concentration camps. All ghettos had horrible, inhumane living conditions. In Warsaw, the largest ghetto held 400,000 people. The large ghettos were closed in by stone or bricks, wood, and barbed wire.

Jews were dragged from their homes and herded onto trucks and trains for shipment to death camps and concentration camps. Healthy Jews were



Crematorium used to burn the remains of prisoners.

Courtesy of National Archives and Records Administration

sent to labor camps to perform slave labor. The rest were sent to extermination camps. The horrifying result of this plan was a cold-blooded and systematic **genocide**, or deliberate killing of an entire people. In 1933 approximately nine million Jews lived in the 21 countries of Europe that Germany would occupy during the war. By 1945 two out of every three, or two-thirds, of the European Jews had been killed.



Practice

Answer the following using complete sentences.

1. How did Hitler justify his treatment of the Jews? _____

2. What were the Nuremberg Laws? _____

3. What actions were taken against Jews between 1938 and 1939? _____

4. What did the *Final Solution* mean? _____



Practice

Use the **account** by **Trude Heller** on page 266 to answer the following using complete sentences.

1. What changes did Hitler's takeover of Austria make in Trude's life?

2. What evidence can you find that some Austrians supported or benefited from Nazi hatred of Jews? _____

3. What did Trude mean by the statement that her family moved to a place where "people like us" could live? _____

4. What effect do you think this experience had on the way Trude thought about herself and her family? _____

5. Do you think this experience changed the way Trude's friends and neighbors thought about them and how other Austrians thought about Jews? Explain. _____



Practice

Use the list below to write the correct term for each definition on the line provided.

aggression
concentration camps
death camps
emigrate

emigration
expel
immigration
menace

persecute
refugee
scapegoat
quota

- _____ 1. to treat a person or group harshly and unjustly
- _____ 2. hostile, unprovoked action
- _____ 3. a person or thing which is a threat
- _____ 4. prisons operated by Nazi Germany in which Jews and other groups were starved while doing slave labor or were tortured and murdered
- _____ 5. Nazi extermination centers where Jews and non-Jews were brought to be put to death as part of Hitler's Final Solution
- _____ 6. to leave one's own country to live in another country
- _____ 7. a specified number or amount
- _____ 8. the legal process of leaving one's country to settle in another country
- _____ 9. a person blamed for mistakes of others
- _____ 10. the legal process of settling in a foreign country
- _____ 11. a person who flees to a foreign country to escape danger
- _____ 12. force out



Practice

Match each definition with the correct term. Write the letter on the line provided.

- | | | |
|----------|--|-----------------|
| _____ 1. | the attempted extermination of all Jews in Europe and other groups by the Nazis during World War II, resulting in the mass murder of about six million Jews | A. annihilation |
| _____ 2. | stubborn and blind attachment to one's own beliefs and opinions without tolerance for beliefs opposed to them | B. apathy |
| _____ 3. | unwillingness to respect or try to understand customs, ideas, or beliefs that are different from one's own | C. bigotry |
| _____ 4. | sealed area established in poor sections of cities where most Jews were forced to live before and during World War II; in modern times it has come to mean sections of cities where minorities live due to socio-economic barriers | D. genocide |
| _____ 5. | the deliberate and systematic extermination of a particular racial, national, or religious group | E. ghetto |
| _____ 6. | a lack of interest or concern; indifference | F. Holocaust |
| _____ 7. | the act of destroying completely; wiping out | G. intolerance |
| _____ 8. | violent and bloody acts, including massacres, carried out against Jews | H. pogrom |



Life in Nazi Germany (1933-1938)

During Hitler's reign, Germans had to learn to survive in a country filled with suspicion—at any moment anyone could be picked up by the Secret Police or the Gestapo and sent to a concentration camp or murdered. Germans learned that to survive, they had to pretend to support the Nazis and look the other way as Nazis brutalized their neighbors.

Hitler did, however, attract the support of many Germans. He was a spellbinding speaker who could influence his audiences. His typical speaking style was to speak louder and louder as he vented his anger at Germany's enemies. The purpose of his speeches was to arouse German patriotism. Hitler believed that the bigger the lie, the more believable it would sound. Hitler's belief in the *big lie*, along with his speaking ability, moved many Germans to love him during the early years of his dictatorship.



Hitler forced thousands and thousands of people to work as slaves in his concentration work camps.

Courtesy of the South Carolina
Department of Education

The economic and social life of some Germans did improve. These Germans could afford to buy cars and take vacations. However, many Germans did not know that Hitler was paying for these improvements by stealing from others. He forced thousands and thousands of people to work as slaves in his concentration work camps.

A knock on the door in the middle of the night brought terror to the Jews of Nazi Germany. If Jewish school children were beaten as they walked home from school, there was no reaction from onlookers. People watched as Jewish-owned shops and Jewish synagogues were burned. Jewish families disappeared. These are just some examples of the Nazi

campaign against the Jews. By 1938 tens of thousands of Jewish men, women, and children had been sent to concentration camps such as Dachau, near Munich. Families were separated. Children were taken from



screaming mothers. Members of families watched as relatives were beaten to death. This was merely the beginning of a campaign that was to end with the Holocaust—the mass killing of six million Jews.

At first, concentration camps were places where political prisoners were sent. These political prisoners included anti-Nazi Germans. Anti-Nazi Germans were considered to be enemies of the Third Reich. The concentration camps became death camps around 1942. This happened because the Nazis wanted to speed up the killing of Jews and other minorities. Adolf Eichmann was the Nazi in charge of the death camps. (See Appendix B.)



Inmates at forced labor in a concentration camp at Mautausen, Austria, 1942.

Courtesy of USHMM Photo Archives



Many prisoners were found nearly starved to death at the Wobbelin Concentration Camp near the city of Ludwigslust, Germany by troops of the 82nd Airborne Division in 1945. The former prisoners are being taken to a hospital for medical attention.

Courtesy of National Archives and Records Administration



Note the following two maps. The first one shows the locations of concentration camps and killing centers. The second map shows deaths per country.



Concentration Camps and Killing Centers

Courtesy of South Carolina Department of Education



Holocaust Deaths per Country

Courtesy of South Carolina Department of Education





Practice

Answer the following using complete sentences.

1. What was the purpose of Hitler's speeches? _____

2. What happened to the economy and social life of the Germans during Hitler's early years? _____

3. How did other Germans react to what was happening to their Jewish neighbors? _____

4. What was the Holocaust? _____



Holocaust Survivor Testimonies

Experiences of Leo Diamantstein

Leo Diamantstein

Leo Diamantstein was born in Heidelberg, Germany in 1924. He was the middle child in a family of three boys. His family moved to the city of Frankfurt where the following events he describes took place.

Leo Adjusts to Life under Hitler

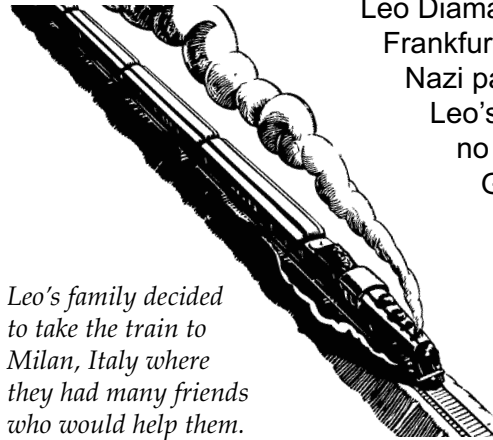
All went relatively well for our family until 1933. That was the turning point. That year Hitler came to power, fair and square, winning an election. Other right-wing political parties supported him. It wasn't just the Nazi party who wanted a candidate who stood for law and order. Shortly after he came to power, little by little, Hitler took over. The Parliament was dissolved and a puppet parliament created.

Things started to be very bad for us. One day my brother Maurice and I were walking down the street when a group of Nazi Storm Troopers marched by singing a song which translates, "The heads are rolling, the Jews are crying." It is very vivid in my mind because I was shivering. I was eight years old. Jewish people were beaten. It became common practice when we saw a bunch of kids coming to go to the other side of the street. There was always a good chance they would attack us, and there were always more of them than us. They carried knives and wore the uniforms of the Hitler Youth.

In 1934 my father decided there was no future for us in Germany, and we decided to leave. Whoever would let us in; that's where we were going to go. We had our things packed to go to France; at the last moment the French decided they didn't want any more Jews, and they wouldn't let us in. The only country that would let us in was Italy. They didn't even require a visa. In June 1934 we left without taking anything. We were required by Hitler to leave everything behind.



Read the following account about Leo and his family after they moved to Italy.



Leo's family decided to take the train to Milan, Italy where they had many friends who would help them.

Leo Diamantstein's family was living in Frankfurt, Germany when Hitler and the Nazi party came to power in 1934.

Leo's father soon saw that there was no future for the family in Germany, and they moved to Italy. Four years later, Germany and Italy formed an alliance called the Axis, and in June 1940, Italy entered the war on the side of Germany.

One month later, the Italian special police began arresting all foreign Jews in

Italy. In 1941 Leo's family spent many months in a large Italian prison and lived for about a year in a small village in northern Italy as part of a less strict form of imprisonment known as free internment. Then in September 1943, the Germans occupied Italy and life became much more dangerous for Leo and his family. To escape almost certain arrest by the Nazis and deportment to concentration camps, Leo's family decided to take the train to Milan, Italy where they had many friends who would help them.

Courtesy of the South Carolina Department of Education



Practice

Answer the following using complete sentences to discuss the **experiences of Leo Diamantstein** on pages 278-279.

1. How did Hitler's takeover of the government affect Leo? _____

2. What made Leo's father decide to leave Germany? _____

3. Do you think Leo's family would have been successful if they tried to protest, complain to the police, or go to court about their treatment? Why or why not? Would these same actions aid a family under duress in the United States today? Why or why not?



Restrictions Bert Gosschalk Describes

Bert Gosschalk

Bert Gosschalk was born in 1920 in a little village called Wihe in Holland. When he was two or three years old, his family moved to the nearby town of Deventer where he went to school and college. He came from a family of five, two brothers and two sisters. All five survived the war.

In May 1940, the Germans marched into Holland, and it became a part of Occupied Germany. For Jews living in Holland, life changed slowly, but in 1942, Bert and his wife decided to go into hiding to avoid capture by the Nazis. Read the following by Bert as to why they decided to go into hiding.

Bert Recalls Restrictions

On May 10, 1940, when I woke up at six o'clock in the morning, I was already behind the German lines. The Germans had run through town, crossed the river, and we were in an occupied country. It came as a surprise. We were now in occupied territory. It took five years to get to liberation.

For the first few months after occupation, the Germans were busy waging and winning a war. They didn't have time yet to start with the civilian population. But gradually after a few months, they started tightening up a little bit at a time. It took a while for us to realize what was happening. First, Jews were not permitted in the movie theaters. A little sign said *Jews Not Allowed*. A little while later the Nazi Dutch government started issuing identity cards. If you were Jewish, they put a *J* on it. Later on we were not allowed in restaurants. Then Jewish kids could not go to public schools. Jews could not go to non-Jewish doctors. There was a special curfew for Jews. The regular population could not leave the house after 11 o'clock at night. Jews were not allowed out after seven o'clock.

Many of these things we could live with. It is only unpleasant, but the bigger things came a little later. First we couldn't have an automobile or a horse and a cart. Then we couldn't have bicycles. All bicycles were taken away. We were not allowed to have a radio. All the radios were confiscated. Money and any bank accounts that we might have or stocks and bonds had to be deposited in a certain



bank controlled by the Nazis. Jews could only go to stores between five and six in the evening. This was after everybody else had bought out what was available that day. Then we could buy the wilted lettuce or rotten tomatoes, if there were any.

Jews could not have a job so there was no income. We were all moved. We couldn't live in our own homes anymore. We were told that we had to move to a certain area, a ghetto. We had to start wearing a star on our clothes. Any time we were outside we had to wear a yellow star, the Star of David, with the word Jew in it.

Courtesy of the South Carolina Department of Education



Any time we were outside we had to wear a yellow star, the Star of David, with the word Jew in it.



Practice

Answer the following using complete sentences to discuss the **restrictions Bert Gosschalk describes** on pages 281-282.

1. Make a list of the restrictions Bert describes. _____

2. Imagine such laws were applied today in your community to all families with children ages 11 to 17 and that you must follow these laws or face serious penalties. Write a paragraph, a letter to a friend, or a diary entry describing how your life would suddenly change if faced with such restrictions.



Practice

Write a paragraph responding to the following situation.

It is 1938 and you are a Jew living in Germany. At 2 o'clock in the morning, there is a loud knock on your door.

1. What do you feel? _____

2. What may happen? _____

3. What will you do? _____



Review

In the years after World War I, three Fascist leaders rose to power. Mussolini in Italy, Hitler in Germany, and Franco in Spain quickly developed totalitarian governments. The governments of these three Fascist leaders put the interests of the state ahead of the rights of the individual. They eliminated and controlled any political opposition and watched over all aspects of the daily lives of their citizens. In Italy and Germany, totalitarian governments arose from problems caused by World War I and the Great Depression. Mussolini promised a return to the glories of the Roman Empire, and Hitler promised greatness that Germany had never seen.

Adolf Hitler put Germany back to work by rebuilding its military forces and made plans to expand Germany's borders. He used Storm Troopers, Secret Police, the Gestapo, and concentration camps to destroy his opposition and the Jewish people. His Final Solution was a plan to murder all the Jews in the world. The aggression of Hitler's and Mussolini's totalitarian nations eventually led to another war: World War II.



Practice

Match each definition with the correct term. Write the letter on the line provided.

- | | | |
|-------|---|----------------------------|
| _____ | 1. to treat a person or group harshly and unjustly | A. communism |
| _____ | 2. a group of people who have the duty and power to make the laws of a country | B. concentration camps |
| _____ | 3. a system of government placing all power in the state and its leader | C. constitutional monarchy |
| _____ | 4. a government ruled by a person who has complete control over the life of the people | D. democracy |
| _____ | 5. a sharp increases in prices | E. dictator |
| _____ | 6. a government led by a ruler whose power is limited by law | F. dictatorship |
| _____ | 7. a system of government in which power comes from the people | G. fascism |
| _____ | 8. a ruler with complete power and authority over a government and its people | H. inflation |
| _____ | 9. prisons operated by Nazi Germany in which Jews and other groups considered to be enemies of Adolf Hitler were starved while doing slave labor or were tortured and murdered | I. parliament |
| _____ | 10. a theory of government in which wealth and property are owned in common, and production and labor are shared equally among the people; in reality, the means of production and distribution are owned and controlled by the state | J. persecute |

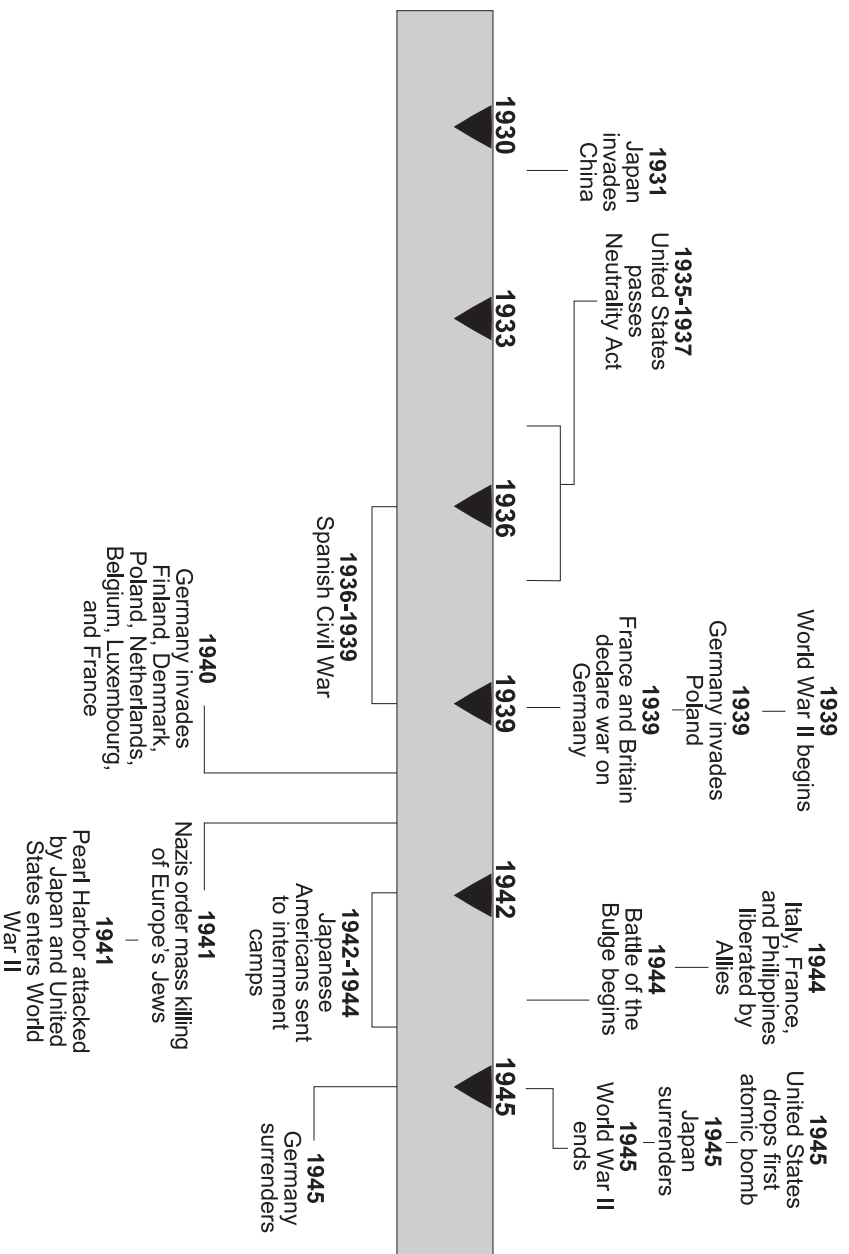
Unit 8: Buildup and Events of World War II (1930-1945)

This unit emphasizes the events leading to the outbreak of World War II, the key battles, and turning points that helped the Allies defeat the Axis powers.

Unit Focus

- steps by which Fascist aggression eventually led to World War II
- incidents that led to World War II
- reasons why Stalin signed a nonaggression pact with Germany
- entry of the United States and the Soviet Union into the war
- Germany's invasion of the Soviet Union
- steps that led to war between Japan and the United States
- major offensives and battles that led to Allied victory in Europe
- strategy used by the United States to defeat Japan

Unit 8 Timeline





Vocabulary

Use the vocabulary words and definitions below as a reference for this unit.

442nd Regimental Combat

- Team** segregated unit of Japanese Americans which fought heroically in Italy and France
- appeasement** giving in to demands to avoid conflict
- blitzkrieg** a war conducted with great speed and force
- campaign** a series of military moves carried out to achieve a specific goal
- concentration camps** prisons operated by Nazi Germany in which Jews and other groups considered to be enemies of Adolf Hitler were starved while doing slave labor or were tortured and murdered
- death camps** Nazi extermination centers where Jews and non-Jews were brought to be put to death as part of Hitler's Final Solution
- defensive** protecting against attack or aggression
- fleet** a number of warships under one command
- fortification** a structure (like a fort) for defending against an attack



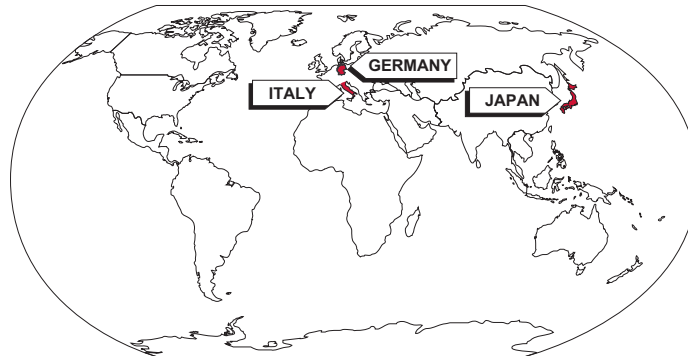
- genocide** the deliberate and systematic extermination of a particular racial, national, or religious group
- Holocaust** the attempted extermination of all Jews in Europe and other groups by the Nazis during World War II, resulting in the mass murder of about six million Jews
- internment camps** camps in isolated parts of western and southwestern United States that Japanese Americans on the West Coast were shipped to during World War II due to unfounded fears of sabotage
- liberate** to set free
- resistance movement** an organization of people, often underground, working to gain national freedom from an occupying power
- retreat** to pull back; to withdraw
- rubble** broken fragments from destroyed buildings and other structures and left in piles
- siege** the surrounding of a place in order to capture it
- ultimatum** final set of demands
- underground** hidden or secret; not open
- undermine** to weaken something



Buildup and Events of World War II (1930-1945)

Buildup of World War II

During the 1930s, Japan, Germany, and Italy began to prepare their militaries to conquer other nations and increase their empires. They ridiculed peace and glorified war. Hitler once remarked, “In constant struggle, mankind has become great—in eternal peace it must perish.” In 1940 these three nations joined together in an alliance known as the *Rome (Italy)-Berlin (Germany)-Tokyo (Japan) Axis*, or the *Axis Powers*. The drive by these Axis countries for world conquest resulted in another world war in Europe and Asia only 21 years after the end of World War I. This war is called *World War II*.



Together, Japan, Germany, and Italy hoped to dominate the world.

As Japan, Germany, and Italy built powerful militaries in the 1930s, Great Britain, France, and even the United States watched with great concern. But most Western countries remembered the tremendous destruction caused by World War I. Consequently, they were unwilling to take any action that might start another war.

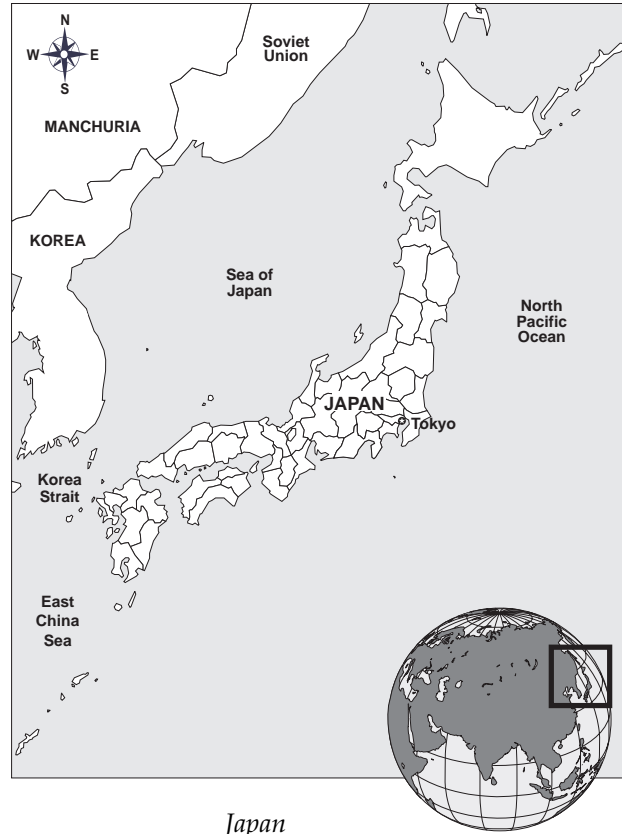
Together, the Axis Powers hoped to dominate the world. Germany and Japan succeeded at first because the countries that could have stopped them followed a policy of **appeasement**. That is, they gave in to demands made by Germany and Japan in hopes of keeping peace. By the time that France, Great Britain, the Soviet Union, and later the United States—known as the *Allies*—entered World War II, the Axis Powers had already gained footholds that would prove almost too strong to overcome. However, after years of war, millions of lives lost, and worldwide mass destruction, the Allies defeated the Axis Powers to end World War II.



Japan: A Nation in Need of Raw Materials

In 1905 Japan had become the first Asian nation to defeat a European nation in war when it defeated Russia in the Russo-Japanese War. Japan followed this victory by continuing to build up its military. By the 1930s, military leaders in Japan had taken control of its government.

Japan's military leaders faced the same problem many industrialized nations did: Where could the country get the raw materials it needed to manufacture goods and run its factories? Its military leaders believed the answer was in *expansion*. Japan saw nearby China, and in particular Manchuria, as land that could be taken and used as a source for raw materials. Japan planned to conquer European possessions in East Asia and the Pacific.



Japan

Germany: Hitler Defies the Treaty of Versailles and Rearms the Military

As you learned in your study of fascism, Fascist leaders rose to power by promising to rebuild their countries. Adolf Hitler had persuaded the German people that they were a great race who would rise again to be a world power. The Treaty of Versailles that Germany had signed after its defeat in World War I had severely limited the country's ability to rearm itself or develop a strong military.

In March of 1935, Hitler announced that he would defy the Treaty of Versailles and begin to rearm his military. The League of Nations



condemned Germany's actions. Banners throughout Germany announced "Today Germany! Tomorrow the World!" Nationalism had grown strong roots in Germany, and the people supported Hitler's plan. The League of Nations' inability to stop Germany from rearming convinced Hitler to take even bolder actions. By March of 1936, Germany was ready to make its first military move. German troops marched into the *Rhineland*, a buffer zone between Germany and France. Europe was stunned by Hitler's actions but unwilling to challenge him for fear of risking war. The German reoccupation of the Rhineland was a turning point in the march towards World War II.

Plans of Conquest: Japan and Germany Begin Their March

The world watched as, little by little, Germany and Japan began gobbling up weaker nations. In November of 1937, Hitler announced his plan to unify all Germans into one nation. (This meant uniting Germans in Austria and Czechoslovakia under the *Third Reich* or German Empire.) The Treaty of Versailles prohibited *Anschluss*, or union, between Austria and Germany. Hitler's plan also called for expanding into Russia and Poland. Japan's goal was to capture territory in Asia in order to gain raw materials, such as oil, rubber, and tin.



Practice

Answer the following using complete sentences.

1. What was the Rome-Berlin-Tokyo Axis? _____

2. Why didn't other nations (for example Great Britain, France, and the United States) attempt to stop the early aggressions of the Axis Powers? _____

3. What was Hitler's plan for Europe? _____

4. What was Japan's goal? _____



The Road to War

World War II officially began when France and Britain declared war on Germany in 1939. It was the year that Germany attacked Poland to gain land important to its military plans. Although historians can point to a single event as the beginning of World War II, *single* events are rarely the whole cause of wars.

Listed below are some of the events that led to the war. Even this chart only includes *some* of the major causes of the war. Notice that each event involves a Fascist country interfering with or attacking another country.

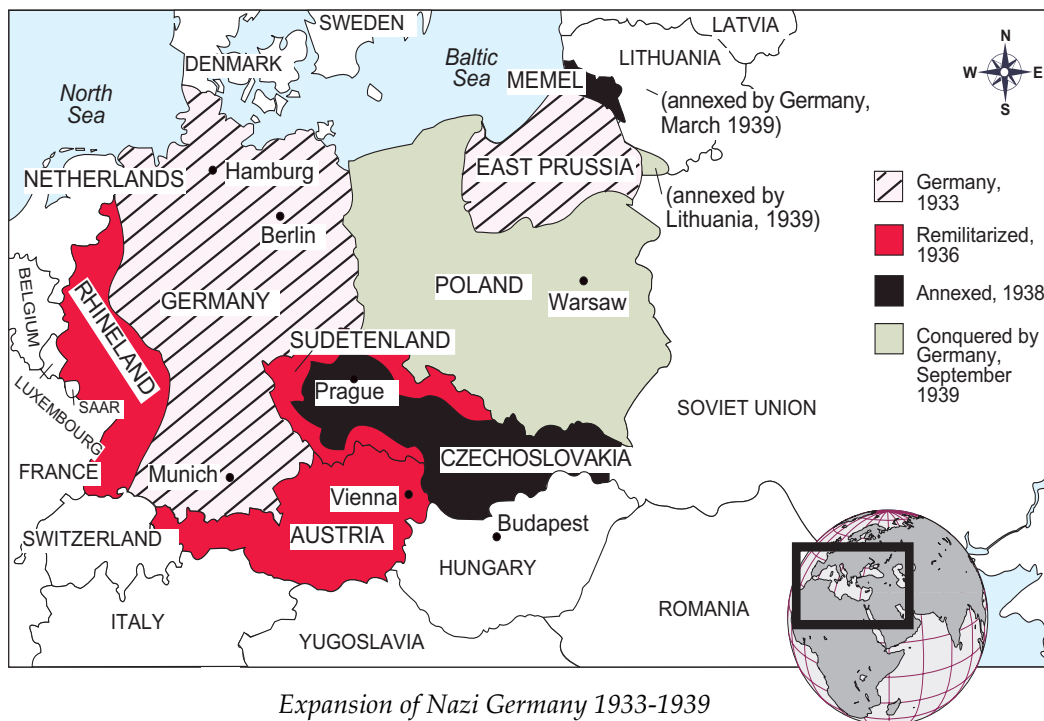
Fascist Aggression from 1931 to 1939	
September 1931	Japan invades China and captures the northern province of Manchuria.
October 1935	Italy invades Ethiopia. Mussolini's army, using modern weapons, attacks and defeats the Ethiopian army. The Ethiopian army fights back with spears and bows and arrows.
March 1936	The German army marches into the Rhineland. The Rhineland is a part of western Germany near the French border. (The Treaty of Versailles had made the Rhineland a demilitarized zone, off limits to any nation's army.) Hitler meets no serious Allied opposition despite Germany's then limited strength.
July 1936-early 1939	Civil war breaks out in Spain. Francisco Franco leads the Fascist troops known as the <i>Nationalists</i> against Spain's liberal Socialist government. Great Britain and France remain neutral. Russia sends supplies to help the Spanish government fight Franco. Germany and Italy help Franco and the Fascists overthrow the Spanish government. Franco becomes Spain's fascist dictator.
July 1937	Japan invades China.
March 1938	Germany annexes Austria.
September 1938	Germany takes the Sudetenland.
March 1939	Germany seizes Czechoslovakia.
April 1939	Italy conquers Albania.
September 1939	Germany invades Poland—World War II begins.



Allied Countries Watch as Hitler Continues Germany's Aggression

By 1937 Hitler realized that France and Great Britain were unwilling to fight. The suffering France and Great Britain experienced in World War I made them unwilling to begin any military action. Hitler then began making alliances with other countries. In 1940 Italy, Germany, and Japan formed the Rome-Berlin-Tokyo Axis. The stated purpose of this alliance was to stop communism. The truth is that Mussolini, Hitler, and the military leaders in Japan wanted an excuse to take more foreign territory.

In 1938 Hitler invaded and *annexed* Austria, or made Austria a part of Germany. Austria had many German-speaking people, and Hitler claimed that all German-speaking people belonged within one German nation. *Anschluss* (the union) of Germany and Austria violated World War I peace treaties. Hitler, however, was no longer concerned with any treaties Germany had signed after its defeat in World War I.



Later in 1938, Hitler demanded the *Sudetenland*. The Sudetenland was a region in Czechoslovakia that shared a border with Germany. It, like Austria, was inhabited by German-speaking people. Czechoslovakia, a democracy, refused to give up its territory. It counted on its alliance (Munich Conference, see page 302) with Russia and France and expected British support. However, Britain and France allowed Germany to annex this territory as well.



The Allies Respond

In 1939 Mussolini invaded and annexed Albania, giving Italy control of the Adriatic Sea. On September 1, 1939, German troops invaded Poland. Two days later, Britain and France honored their alliance with Poland and declared war on Germany. World War II had started.

By the time the United States, France, and Great Britain (the Allies) began responding to the Nazi threat in Europe, it was too late to avoid a world war. The Allies were also late in responding to Japanese aggression in Asia. Consequently, the world war would also be fought in Asia. It had taken until 1939 for the Allies to realize that they had to use their own military power to stop Germany and Japan from conquering the world.





Practice

Write **True** if the statement is correct. Write **False** if the statement is not correct.

- _____ 1. By 1939 the Allies began using their own military forces to stop the aggression by Japan, Germany, and Italy.
- _____ 2. Japan invaded and captured Austria in 1931.
- _____ 3. Italy invaded and defeated Ethiopia in 1935.
- _____ 4. Under the Treaty of Versailles, the German army was allowed to march into the Rhineland.
- _____ 5. By letting the German army occupy the Rhineland, the Allies gave up a golden opportunity to put an end to Hitler's aggression.
- _____ 6. When civil war broke out in Spain, Russia sent in troops to help Franco.
- _____ 7. Hitler thought that France and Great Britain were unwilling to stop him.
- _____ 8. Italy, Germany, and the United States agreed to form the Rome-Berlin-Tokyo Axis.
- _____ 9. Hitler, Mussolini, and the leaders of Japan used communism as an excuse to take foreign territory.
- _____ 10. In 1938 Hitler demanded the Sudetenland, a region in Czechoslovakia that bordered Germany.



Hitler's Foreign Policy (1938–1939)

Adolf Hitler's plan was to control all of Europe. Austria, Hitler's homeland, was the first country to fall under Hitler's plan. Czechoslovakia was the next. Each time Hitler attacked and took a country, Great Britain and France hoped Hitler would be satisfied and halt his march through Europe. They wanted to avoid war at all costs. When Hitler attacked Poland, however, France and Great Britain had no choice but to use their military forces to stop the spread of Hitler and Nazi Germany.

Hitler Takes Austria

During 1937 and 1938, Hitler sent the *Gestapo*—the German state police—into Austria to **undermine** its government. In addition, Hitler demanded that Nazi Party members be made members of the Austrian cabinet. The Austrian government was too weak to resist demands made by Hitler. By 1938 Austria could not defend itself against the German army. Hitler's army marched into Austria without resistance, and Hitler announced that Austria was part of the German Empire. Great Britain and France did no more than protest Hitler's actions.

Austria was an important conquest for Hitler. Austria's wealth included gold and timber. The country bordered both Germany and Italy—the two Fascist countries were now connected by Austria and formed a wall dividing Western Europe from Eastern Europe. In addition, Germany's and Austria's borders nearly encircled all of Czechoslovakia. This made it easier for Hitler to continue his plan and take control of Czechoslovakia (see map on page 298.)

Appeasement at Munich

Following the takeover of Austria, Hitler told his staff that Czechoslovakia would *disappear* from the map. He began the takeover by sending the Gestapo to Czechoslovakia to destabilize, or disrupt, the Czech government. To the rest of the world, Hitler made the claim that the three million Germans living in the Sudetenland, Czechoslovakia, needed to be **liberated** and become part of Germany. The Czechs depended on the support of the British and French against a German invasion. Both the British and French were unwilling to use their military and enter into military entanglements. British prime minister Neville Chamberlain did,



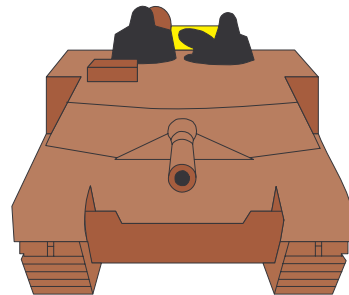
however, tell Hitler that his claim would not be permitted. In response, Hitler announced that the Sudetenland would be his last European territorial demand.

Hitler suggested that the European leaders hold a conference in Munich, Germany, to work out a compromise. He invited the leaders of Great Britain and France, as well as Mussolini of Italy, to join in the *Munich Conference*. At the Munich Conference, the representatives of Great Britain and France were eager to avoid war at any cost. Hitler again claimed that the rest of Czechoslovakia would be safe *if* the Sudetenland were given to Germany. Once again Hitler got his way as British Prime Minister Neville Chamberlain and French Premier Edouard Daladier agreed to let Hitler seize the Sudetenland.

The leaders of Great Britain and France had used a policy known as *appeasement* in order to avoid war with Hitler. In other words, to avoid fighting, they just gave Hitler what he wanted. When they returned to Great Britain and France, both leaders were proud that they had avoided war. British Prime Minister Chamberlain returned to Britain and proclaimed that he had preserved “peace in our time.” In fact, his decision at the Munich Conference was one more step leading to a world war.

Hitler Prepares for War

Six months after Hitler took part of Czechoslovakia, he ordered the German army to seize the Slavic-inhabited remainder of Czechoslovakia. Finally, the leaders of Great Britain and France realized that Hitler could not be trusted to keep his promises. In the meantime, Hitler made plans to invade Poland.



Hitler knew that France had signed an agreement with Poland to come to its defense if attacked. However, because France had let him take Czechoslovakia, Hitler believed that France would not respond to a march on Poland.



The Nazi-Soviet Pact

In August 1939, Nazi Germany and Communist Soviet Union announced a 10-year nonaggression pact. The world was stunned by the pact between Germany and the Soviet Union. Hitler had always preached hatred of communism, and Stalin, the leader of the Soviet Union, had always condemned fascism. The pact was particularly costly to the Western nations. They had lost the Soviet Union as a possible ally against Germany.



Stalin, the leader of the Soviet Union

Courtesy of
National Archives
and Records
Administration

The pact enabled the Soviet Union to avoid (for the time being) involvement in a major war. The pact also had secret clauses which divided Eastern Europe between Hitler and Stalin. Stalin would take control of eastern Poland and the Baltic states. The rest of Eastern Europe would go to Hitler. The pact also secretly promised Hitler foodstuffs and war supplies from the Soviet Union. The pact meant that Germany would not have to fight a war on its Eastern Front. Hitler, however, never intended to keep his promise of peace with the Soviet Union. Hitler was simply buying time to take care of Great Britain and France before he turned his military on the Soviet Union.

Hitler's real plan was to make the dictator Stalin think Germany would never attack the Soviet Union. First, Hitler was going to take Poland. Then, Hitler was going to attack France and other Western European countries. Hitler felt that Great Britain would sign a peace treaty with Germany once Great Britain saw how successful the German army was. Following the capture of Western Europe, Hitler planned to invade the Soviet Union.

Hitler Prepares to Attack Poland

By August 1939, Hitler's plan was working very well. He had obtained Austria and Czechoslovakia without a fight. He had managed to get the Soviet Union to sign a nonaggression treaty with Germany. In September, Hitler planned to attack Poland. Hitler's own army generals, though, advised Hitler not to attack Poland. The generals feared that France would honor its promise to protect Poland from a Nazi takeover. Hitler solved



this problem by making himself head of all the armed forces in Germany. He also placed his Nazi followers in top command posts. Hitler was now ready to risk war over Poland.





Practice

Answer the following using complete sentences.

1. How did Hitler use the Gestapo in Austria and Czechoslovakia? _____

2. What advantage did Germany gain for its plan to conquer Europe when it took Austria? _____

3. At the Munich Conference, what did Hitler want? _____

4. Why did Great Britain and France allow Hitler to take over the Sudetenland in Czechoslovakia? _____

5. What did Hitler learn at the Munich Conference? _____

6. What is meant by a *policy of appeasement*? _____

7. Why did Hitler want a nonaggression pact with Stalin? _____



The War Begins (1939-1941)

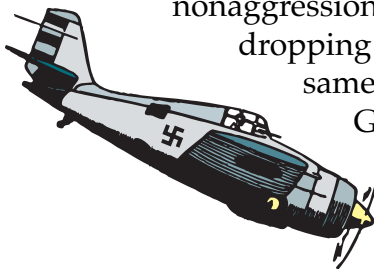
The Invasion of Poland

After signing the nonaggression pact with Stalin, Hitler's concern about fighting a war on its Eastern Front was put to rest. Hitler now felt that he could turn his attention to taking Poland. Hitler's conflict with Poland first began over the port city of Danzig (now known as Gdansk) and the Polish Corridor. Danzig had been declared a free city after World War I, but many Germans still lived there. Once again Hitler demanded that this city be given to Germany to unite all Germans. To both Germany and Poland, Danzig was a key city as a port on the Baltic Sea.

Poland was connected with Danzig by a small strip of land that had been taken from Germany under the Versailles treaty. Claiming that Germans in the Polish Corridor had been mistreated by Poland, Hitler also demanded that the German army occupy a strip of land through the Polish Corridor.

On September 1, 1939 (only two days after Germany signed the nonaggression pact with Stalin), German airplanes began dropping bombs on the cities and towns of Poland. At the same time, tanks and troops invaded Poland. The German invasion of Poland was the first test of Germany's newest military strategy, the **blitzkrieg**, or "lightning war." The Germans had developed methods of combining the speed and fire power of tanks with the precise bombing of fighter planes. They carried out invasions swiftly and with great force. Polish people who lived on the border with Germany watched as German tanks (Panzers) rolled across the western border and crushed everything in sight. In the middle of September, Polish people on the eastern border of Poland stood helplessly as Soviet tanks rolled into Poland. Many Polish people resisted in any way they could, but they were no match for the Soviet and German armies. By the end of September, with Poland's cities in ruins and with no army to resist, the Soviet Union and Germany divided Poland.

Poland now faced one of the cruelest occupations any country had ever endured. Germans and Soviets murdered Poles for no reason.



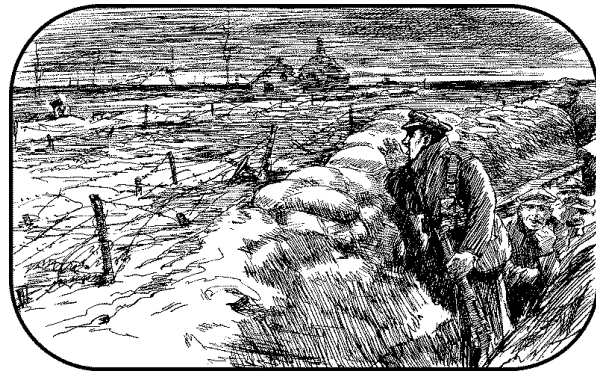


Two days after Germany began the invasion of Poland, France and Great Britain declared war on Germany. World War II had begun. During the fall of 1939 and the winter and spring of 1940, France and Great Britain were involved in what was called the *phony war* with Germany. It was called the phony war because for the next seven months after war had been declared, France and Great Britain were not yet actually fighting against Germany. The French and British had mobilized their troops and waited for Germany to attack. On April 9, 1940, the phony war ended when Germany invaded Denmark and Norway.

In November of 1939, Stalin decided to attack Finland. For three months, the people of Finland were able to resist the much larger Soviet Union. Eventually, however, the Soviets forced the government of Finland to give up much land. Hitler learned a lesson from watching the Soviet Union attempt to defeat Finland: If the Soviet army had difficulty defeating the small army of Finland, then the Soviet army would be no match for his German forces.

German Victories on the Western Front

Leaders of the government in France were very surprised by the lightning-quick victories of the German army in Poland. French military leaders thought that this war would be like World War I. That is, the French generals thought that this war would be a **defensive** war, as with the trench warfare of World War I. So France built a series of **defensive fortifications** along its eastern border with Germany. This line of



The French generals thought that this war would be a defensive war, as with the trench warfare of World War I.

fortifications was called the *Maginot* (MA-zhuh-noh) *Line*. Only one of France's military leaders opposed this type of defense. His name was Charles de Gaulle. De Gaulle insisted that all the Germans would have to do to invade France was go around the Maginot Line. Unfortunately for France, de Gaulle was right. As they had in World War I, the German army swung north around the French defenses and struck through Belgium.



Charles de Gaulle (1890-1970)

Charles de Gaulle was a French general who became president of France. He fought in World War I and afterwards tried unsuccessfully to modernize the French Army. When Germany conquered France in 1940, de Gaulle fled to England where he became the leader of the “Free French,” the French people who resisted the Germans. In 1944 he led a liberation force into Paris. He was president from 1958-1969. De Gaulle granted independence to Algeria, sought to make France a leading world power by developing nuclear weapons and a space program, and followed an independent foreign policy, pulling France out of the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO).

In April, 1940, the German army invaded Denmark and Norway and gained easy victories. Control of Denmark and Norway was important to the German war plan, for now Germany controlled the North Sea and an outlet to the Atlantic Ocean. Denmark and Norway also provided the German air force (the *Luftwaffe*) and navy with bases from which to attack Great Britain’s cities and ships.

On the 10th of May, 1940, the German army invaded the Netherlands, Belgium, Luxembourg, and France. **Retreating** Allied forces were soon trapped between the advancing German army and the English Channel. In a daring rescue, 300,000 Allied soldiers were ferried to safety by every type of boat imaginable. Despite air attacks, the stranded troops were evacuated across the English Channel to Britain. The evacuation from Dunkirk was called the *Miracle of Dunkirk*. That same day, Italy declared war on France and Great Britain. The Netherlands, Belgium, and Luxembourg fell into German hands within 10 days. The Germans continued their march around the Maginot Line and captured Paris, the French capital, on June 14. The government leaders of France left Paris and moved the government to the city of Vichy (vee-Shee) in southern France. The Third Republic of France (1871–1940) had collapsed.

On June 22, 1940, an armistice was signed between Germany and France. France was divided into two parts. Southern France was unoccupied by the Germans and called the *Vichy Republic*. Although it was controlled by French Marshal Henri Pétain, it was forced to *collaborate*, or cooperate,



with Germany. The Germans occupied the northern two-thirds of France, including Paris and the coastline. De Gaulle went to Great Britain where he organized the Free French **resistance movement**, which operated **underground**, or secretly, to fight Nazi forces in France.

Hitler (along with Italy and the Soviet Union) now controlled most of Europe, including Austria, Czechoslovakia, Poland, France, the Baltics, Norway, Denmark, Finland, and much of northern Africa. Great Britain was now alone in the battle against Germany. At this point, an onlooker would have thought that Hitler would accomplish his goal of conquering all of Europe.

The Battle of Britain

Hitler now set his sights on an invasion of Great Britain. His plan was called "Operation Sea Lion." First, Hitler sent his *Luftwaffe* (air force) to bomb Britain's cities. The city of London suffered massive bombings for 57 consecutive nights. The *blitz*, or series of air raids, killed thousands of civilians and destroyed buildings, roads, and railways. From the summer of 1940 through the winter of 1941, German planes bombed Great Britain repeatedly. After Germany's air force caused major damage to Britain's cities, Hitler planned to invade Britain by sea. However, with Prime Minister Winston Churchill (who had succeeded Chamberlain in 1940) leading them, the British fought on. The new British prime minister had already declared that his nation would never give in. In a speech Churchill said, "We shall fight on the beaches, we shall fight on the landing grounds, we shall fight in the fields and in the streets....We shall never surrender." The British people were determined to survive. With equipment and food arriving from the United States and with skillful pilots in the Royal Air Force (RAF) battling the German *Luftwaffe* in the air, the British people survived the bombings. The Battle of Britain lasted until May of 1941. Hitler was never able to invade Great Britain. He eventually called off his attacks and focused his attention on Eastern Europe and the Mediterranean.



Winston Churchill (1874-1965)



Courtesy of National Archives and Records Administration

Winston Churchill was the leader of Great Britain during World War II. He was the son of a famous British politician and an American mother. His early career as an Army officer and as a combat journalist eventually led him to politics. Churchill rose quickly. During World War I, he was in charge of the British Navy. During the 1930s he warned Parliament about the growing danger from Nazi Germany and urged Britain to prepare for war. However, his views were very unpopular and largely ignored. Churchill became prime

minister in 1940 as Nazi Germany overran the rest of Europe. Britain stood alone against the Nazis, and Churchill's speeches rallied the British people in those dark days. He became one of the greatest war leaders ever.

Once the United States and the Soviet Union joined the war, Churchill worked closely with their leaders to shape a strategy to defeat the Nazis. At the end of the war, his party lost an election, and he was forced to resign as prime minister. In a speech in 1946, Churchill introduced the term "Iron Curtain" to describe the separation between Communist and non-Communist countries. Churchill became prime minister again from 1951-1955.

Churchill was knighted by Queen Elizabeth II and received the Nobel prize for literature. By an act of Congress in 1963, Churchill was made an honorary citizen of the United States. Sir Winston Churchill died in January 24, 1965, in London.



Practice

Use pages 306-309 and the list below to complete the following statements.
One or more terms will be used more than once.

declared	Great Britain	phony war
Charles de Gaulle	Hitler	Soviet Union
Finland	Italy	Third
France	Maginot Line	Vichy
Germany	North	World War II

In September 1, 1939, Poland was invaded from the west by

- (1) _____ and from the east by the
- (2) _____. France and
- (3) _____ declared war on Germany.
- (4) _____ had begun.

During the first few months of the war, France and Great Britain were involved in what has been called a

- (5) “_____.” War had been
- (6) _____ but France and Great Britain were not yet actually fighting against Germany.

When the Soviets invaded (7) _____

in November of 1939, they had difficulty defeating the much smaller army. The Soviets’ lack of a quick victory made Hitler believe that the Soviet army would be no match for his German forces. French military leaders thought that this would be a defensive war, like World War I. They built a series of fortifications



called the (8) _____ Line. The only French military leader who opposed this type of defensive line was (9) _____, but he was ignored.

In April 1940, the German army invaded Norway and Denmark. Germany now controlled the (10) _____ Sea and had air and navy bases from which to attack (11) _____.

On May 10, 1940, the German army went around the Maginot Line and invaded the Netherlands, Belgium, Luxembourg, and France. That same day, the Axis Powers country of (12) _____ declared war on (13) _____ and (14) _____.

When Paris fell on June 14, the leaders of France moved the government to southern France. Their government was called the (15) _____ Republic. The (16) _____ Republic of France had collapsed.

In the summer of 1940, Hitler began bombing Great Britain's cities. The German air force caused major damage but never weakened the British will to survive. Consequently, (17) _____ was never able to invade Great Britain.



The War Continues (1941)

The Balkan Campaign of 1941: More German Victories

Italy is largely bordered by the Mediterranean Sea. Mussolini imagined an Italy that controlled the Mediterranean Sea and the countries bordering it. But Mussolini's attempt to conquer Greece and Egypt failed. He was driven back by British forces and lost thousands of soldiers. However, when Hitler entered this region, the Axis Powers began to score victories. Hitler targeted the Balkan countries and began taking them one by one. The Balkans make up a region in southeast Europe that includes Greece, Albania, Yugoslavia, Romania, and Bulgaria.



Italy during World War II



The Balkans were important to Hitler for a number of reasons. Rich oil fields in Romania and other Balkan states would help to fuel Germany's military machines—tanks and bombers, for example. Capturing the Balkans also gave Hitler territory that had been under the influence of the Soviet Union. Hitler could take land with important resources and ports from Stalin and the Soviets. Hitler was now ready to invade the Soviet Union.

Operation Barbarossa: The Invasion of the Soviet Union

Remember your study of Napoleon and his attempt to take Russia? Napoleon led his well-trained, successful army into Russia in the early summer of 1812. By winter, Napoleon's army was trapped by Russian resistance, freezing weather, and poor supply lines. In the end, Napoleon's army was destroyed as it marched back to France. Hitler made the same mistakes as Napoleon had 130 years earlier. Like Napoleon, Hitler thought his army could never be defeated. Like Napoleon, Hitler was in for a big surprise.

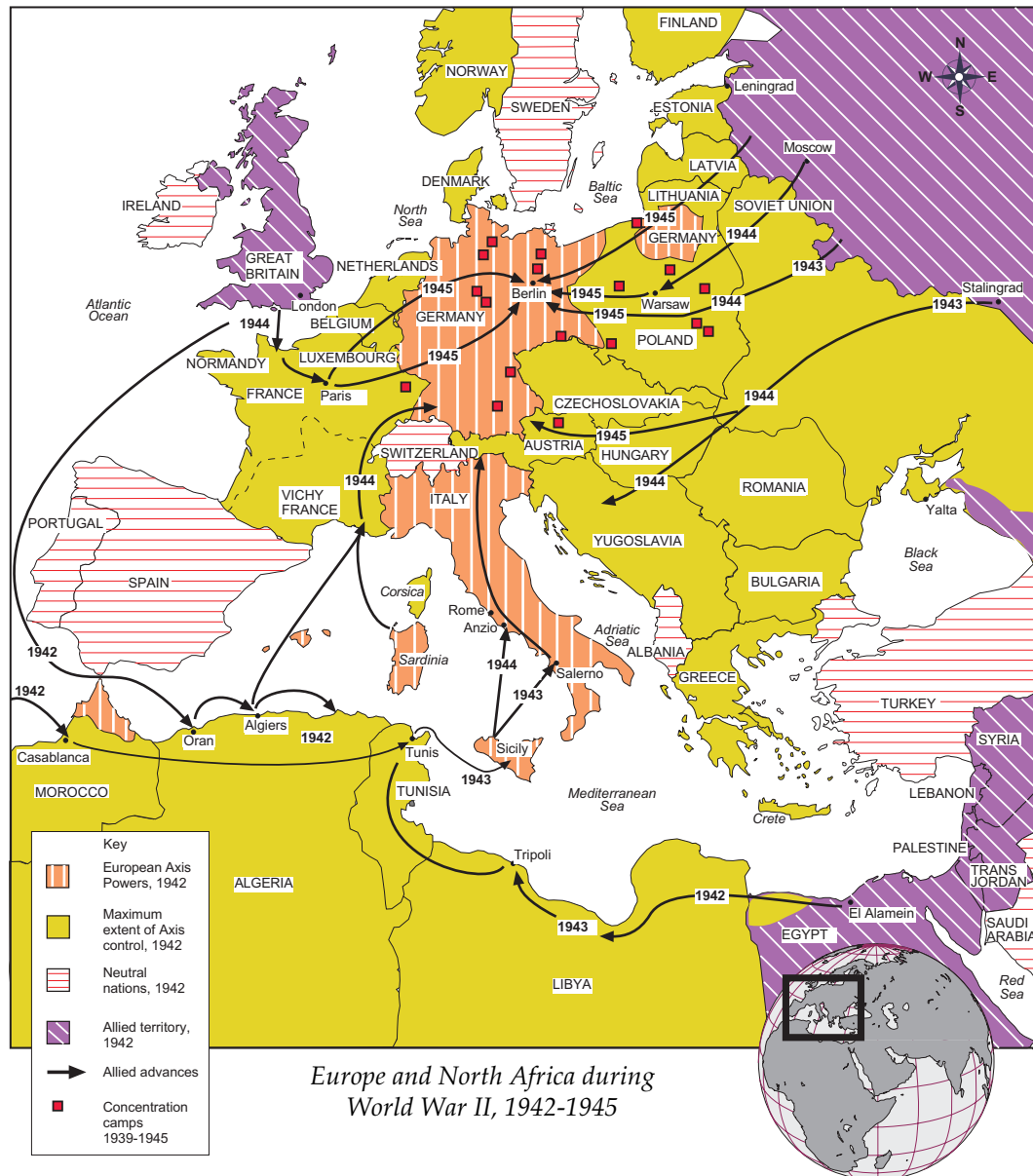
Hitler's **campaign** to invade the Soviet Union was called *Operation Barbarossa*. Even though Hitler and Stalin had signed a nonaggression agreement to keep peace, Hitler never planned to keep his word. Plans for the invasion of the Soviet Union began in the summer of 1940 after France was defeated.

Hitler's invasion of the Soviet Union involved the largest army and the most bloodshed in the history of the world. Hitler's plan was to conquer the entire Soviet Union. He planned to set up colonies in the Soviet Union where Germans would live in order to control valuable mineral resources.

The invasion of the Soviet Union began on June 22, 1941. The attack came as a complete surprise to the Soviets. At first, German armies easily overran the Soviet armies. The key Soviet cities of Moscow and Leningrad (now known as St. Petersburg) quickly came under **siege** by the Germans. As the Soviets retreated, they burned and destroyed everything in the Germans' path. (The Russians had successfully used this strategy against Napoleon.) The Soviets, however, were able to hold off the Nazi forces until the frigid winter came. Then Stalin and the Soviets launched a fierce and determined counterattack against the Nazis. The freezing Russian winter and the strong Soviet will to survive once more played important roles in defeating an invader. The people of Moscow, Leningrad, and



Stalingrad refused to surrender to the German armies even when things had looked hopeless. This *will to survive* was displayed throughout the Soviet Union. By the time it was over in March of 1943, the Germans had lost more than 500,000 soldiers at Stalingrad alone.





The United States Helps Its Allies

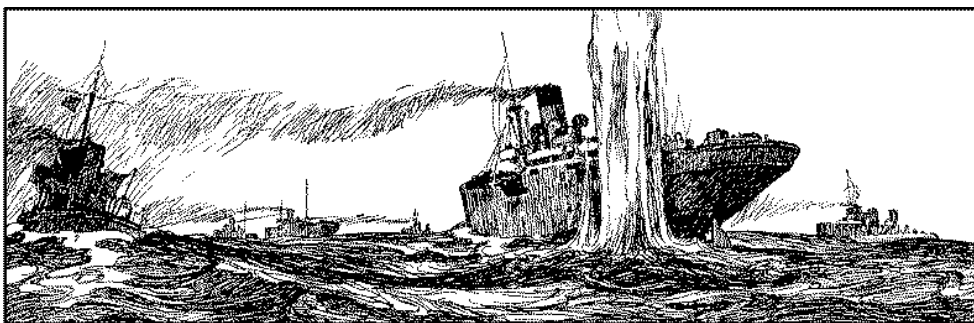
In the early years of the war, the United States remained neutral. Between 1935 and 1937, the United States Congress passed laws known as the *Neutrality Acts*. These laws made it illegal for the United States to sell armaments or lend money to any nation at war.

President Franklin D. Roosevelt believed that the Allies (Great Britain and France) would not be able to stop Hitler without help from the United States. Eventually, Roosevelt convinced Congress to allow the Allies to purchase American arms. In 1939 a cash-and-carry policy was enacted. This program allowed Great Britain to pay cash for American goods (food and armaments) and carry the goods on their own ships.

Because the cost of the war was rapidly draining the British treasury, the United States Congress approved a policy in 1941 known as the *Lend-Lease Act*. Under the Lend-Lease Act, the president could lend or lease arms to any country he thought was vital to the security of the United States. American ships helped the British transport arms from the United States to Britain. Hitler responded by ordering his submarines to sink any ships carrying cargo to the Allies.

President Roosevelt and British Prime Minister Winston Churchill secretly met on August 9 on a battleship off the coast of Newfoundland, Canada. They issued a joint declaration called the *Atlantic Charter*. This agreement would eventually become the Allies' peace plan at the end of World War II. The principles of the charter included free trade among nations and the right of people to choose their own government.

On September 4, 1941, a German submarine fired on a United States destroyer in the Atlantic. Roosevelt ordered his naval commanders to fire on any German submarines in sight. The United States was now involved in an undeclared naval war with Germany.



The United States was now involved in an undeclared naval war with Germany.



Practice

Answer the following using complete sentences.

1. Why was the victory in the Balkans important to Hitler? _____

2. What was *Operation Barbarossa*? _____

3. What did Hitler plan to do with the Soviet Union once he conquered it? _____

4. When Germany first invaded the Soviet Union in June 1941, the German army easily defeated the Soviet army. What two things stopped the German invasion? _____

5. How did the United States policy known as Lend-Lease help the Allies stop Hitler? _____

6. Explain the principles stated in the Atlantic Charter. _____



Practice

Match each description with the correct item. Write the letter on the line provided.

- | | | |
|-------|---|------------------------|
| _____ | 1. an organization of people, often underground, working to gain national freedom from an occupying power | A. appeasement |
| _____ | 2. protecting against attack or aggression | B. blitzkrieg |
| _____ | 3. to weaken something | C. campaign |
| _____ | 4. a series of military moves carried out to achieve a specific goal | D. defensive |
| _____ | 5. the surrounding of a place in order to capture it | E. fortification |
| _____ | 6. a structure (like a fort) for defending against an attack | F. liberate |
| _____ | 7. the act of giving in to demands to avoid conflict | G. resistance movement |
| _____ | 8. hidden or secret; not open | H. siege |
| _____ | 9. to set free | I. underground |
| _____ | 10. a war conducted with great speed and force | J. undermine |

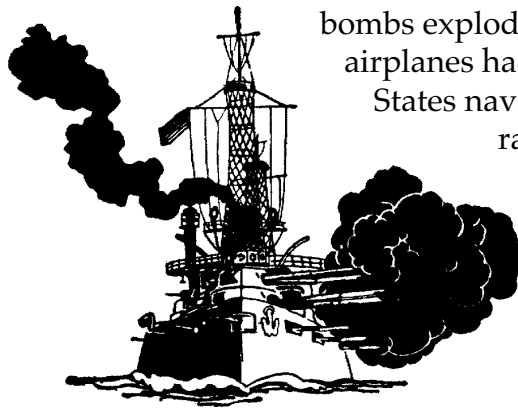


World War II Becomes a *Global War*

Pearl Harbor: The United States Enters the War

Five days after Stalin launched his counteroffensive against the Germans, an event took place which changed the entire war.

December 7, 1941, began as a typical, quiet Sunday morning at the United States Naval Base at Pearl Harbor in Hawaii. The entire Pacific **fleet** of the United States Navy was docked at Pearl Harbor. American sailors and their families tended to family activities or slept late. Suddenly, and



Americans were awakened to bombs exploding and ships burning.

without warning, Americans were awakened to bombs exploding and ships burning. Japanese airplanes had attacked the unprepared United States naval *fleet*. In addition to the bombing raid by Japanese planes, their submarines had entered the port and sunk ships at the entrance to Pearl Harbor. This made escape by American ships difficult. The United States Navy suffered terrible losses in lives and ships.

On December 8, 1941, Americans listened as President Franklin D.

Roosevelt told Congress that

December 7, 1941, was “a day that will live in infamy.” President Roosevelt then asked Congress to declare war on Japan. A few days later, Germany and Italy declared war on the United States. The United States had finally been drawn into World War II.

Americans responded to the war effort in ways which amazed the world. Almost overnight, the peacetime economy of the United States became a wartime economy. Planes, ships, guns, tanks, ammunition, and wartime supplies were produced in record time and in record number. Women went to work in factories, making everything necessary for the American soldiers to fight. All Americans pitched in to help the war effort.



Japanese Victories and American Fears

Japan gained an immediate advantage against the United States by destroying a number of ships in the Pacific fleet at Pearl Harbor. Using this advantage, Japanese military forces attacked and took the Philippines, Malaysia, many areas of Southeast Asia, and important islands in the Pacific. The Japanese planned to attack Australia next.

Bataan Death March

In December 1941, at the same time the Japanese attacked Pearl Harbor, they also attacked the Philippines. In the Philippines, the Japanese captured and made nearly 70,000 American and Filipino troops prisoners of war (POWs). Early in 1942, these POWs were forced to march 55 miles to camps in the interior. The *Bataan Death March* was one of the most brutal marches in history. The prisoners were bound, beaten, or killed by their Japanese captors. Some were bayoneted when they fell from exhaustion; others were shot. Some were forced to dig their own graves and were then buried alive. Some prisoners heroically carried others to help them survive the brutality. Only 54,000 made it to the camp. It is estimated that seven to 10 thousand died along the way and the rest escaped into the jungle. Thousands later died from malnutrition and disease. This brutal treatment of POWs was one of the worst war crimes of World War II.

Fearing a Japanese attack on the mainland of the United States, the United States government took action. All Japanese Americans living on or near the West Coast of the United States were imprisoned in **internment camps** for the rest of the war because they were considered a threat to the country. Although they were United States citizens, they faced severe discrimination. Many Americans feared Japanese Americans would act as spies for Japan. Some Americans and government officials suspected them of planning to sabotage, or destroy, American war plants.

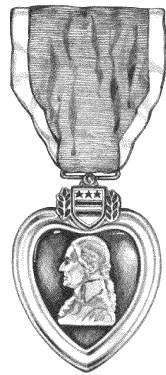
There was no evidence that Japanese Americans had worked against the United States. However, frightened politicians and military men pressured President Roosevelt into removing them from the West Coast. In 1942 there were 112,000 Japanese Americans who were sent into *internment*



camps in the West. Two-thirds of the Japanese Americans sent to internment camps were native-born United States citizens.

Internment camps differed from the **concentration camps** of Nazi Germany. Japanese Americans were not tortured or murdered. However, the internment camps were like prisons. They were wooden shacks and had only the barest necessities. Food, medical care, and schools were inadequate. The internment camps were also surrounded by barbed-wire fences. Japanese Americans were kept under armed guard until 1944.

Japanese Americans had to sell their homes and businesses at a financial loss. Life in American camps was extremely unpleasant. The people suffered and were humiliated by the government's actions. Without just



Japanese-American men served heroically as a unit in the 442nd Regimental Combat Team in Italy and France. This unit received more awards than any other division in the history of the United States.

cause, the government had violated these people's rights. Japanese Americans were as loyal to the American war effort as German Americans or Italian Americans. Emotions, however, clouded many Americans' judgment, and Japanese Americans suffered unjustly.

Despite this harsh treatment, 25,000 Japanese American men volunteered

to fight for the United States. One-third of the men were from the internment camps; the rest were United States Japanese Americans from Hawaii where there was no internment policy. They served heroically as a unit in the **442nd Regimental Combat Team** in Italy and France. The second generation Japanese Americans were called *Nisei* (ne sa). The Nisei suffered 9,000 casualties and earned more than 18,000 individual awards. This unit received more awards than any other division in the history of the United States. President Harry S Truman welcomed the 442nd home in 1946 with these words: "You fought not only the enemy, you fought prejudice—and you won."

Many Americans were ashamed of the treatment of the Japanese Americans during the war. In recent years, the government has attempted to make up for the discrimination. In 1988 a sum of \$20,000 was paid to each survivor of the internment camps along with an apology from President George H. W. Bush for the harm caused in violating their civil rights during World War II. Their personal and financial losses, however, were far greater.



1942: Axis Victories

In 1942 the Axis Powers—Germany, Italy, and Japan—held the advantage in the war. Country by country, continent by continent, they were beginning to persuade the world that they could not be stopped. Below is a summary of the gains the Axis Powers had made by 1942 in their quest to rule the world.

1. German soldiers occupied all of Western Europe except Great Britain.
2. The German army, led by Erwin Rommel, was sweeping across North Africa, gaining victory after victory.
3. The German navy, using U-boats (submarines), was sinking many ships in the North Atlantic. This made it difficult for the United States to send supplies to help Great Britain and the Soviet Union.
4. The German army had captured important territory in the Soviet Union.
5. The Japanese were making rapid advances throughout the South Pacific Ocean and in Asia. Australia looked like a “sitting duck” waiting for the Japanese to attack.

By 1942 the United States was the only country in the world that could possibly stop the German and Japanese armies.



Erwin Rommel (1891-1944)

Erwin Rommel was the German field marshal during World War II. Rommel was born in Heidenheim, Germany. He planned to be an engineer but joined the army in 1910. He fought in World War I, where he rose in rank and received his first decoration for bravery—an Iron Cross Class I. In 1929 he taught at Dresden Military Academy and published a book titled *Infantry Attacks*, which was based on his experiences in World War I.

Rommel, an early Nazi sympathizer, commanded Hitler's headquarters guard. Next, he led the 7th Panzer Division, and became known as an unconventional military leader who used unique methods of command. He then commanded the *Afrika Korps* (German Africa Corps), where he achieved major successes and was nicknamed the "Desert Fox." On March 11, 1943, Hitler awarded Rommel the Knight's Cross with Oakleaves, Swords, and Diamonds. Eventually driven into retreat by strongly reinforced Allied troops, he was physically and morally shaken.

When he returned home wounded in 1944, it is thought by some that he helped to plot against Hitler's life. Discovered, Rommel was given the choice of dying at his own hand or being executed as a traitor. Rommel died by his own hand, taking poison, and was buried with full military honors. Rommel is one of the few commanders who was not involved in any war crimes.



Practice

Write **True** if the statement is correct. Write **False** if the statement is not correct.

- _____ 1. On December 7, 1941, the United States attacked Pearl Harbor.
- _____ 2. Franklin D. Roosevelt asked Congress to declare war on Japan.
- _____ 3. The war effort made by people in the United States amazed the world.
- _____ 4. Japan gained an immediate advantage against the United States by destroying the Atlantic fleet.
- _____ 5. The Japanese captured many Pacific islands in preparation for an attack against Australia.
- _____ 6. The American government imprisoned all Japanese Americans living on the West Coast of the United States.
- _____ 7. In 1942 the Allies held the advantage in the war.
- _____ 8. In 1942 German soldiers occupied all of Western Europe except Great Britain.
- _____ 9. It was difficult for the United States to send supplies to help Great Britain and the Soviet Union because the German navy was sinking many ships in the North Atlantic.
- _____ 10. The German army had not captured any Soviet territory by 1942.



Turning Points in World War II: The Tide of the War Changes

The Battle of the North Atlantic

German U-boats (submarines) patrolled the waters of the North Atlantic, threatening supply ships carrying food and vital war supplies to Britain. By the end of 1939, U-boats and German air attacks had sunk over 100 Allied and neutral ships. In May of 1941, the British sank the German battleship *Bismarck* when it was spotted off the coast of France. This victory was a turning point in the war because it put an end to German efforts to control the North Atlantic with surface ships. Eventually, methods were developed to help the Allies protect their ships against U-boat attacks, as well.

After gaining control of the North Atlantic, the Allies began an air offensive against Germany. They flew many missions against Germany, destroying railways, factories, and oil refineries.

The Battle of Stalingrad: The Soviet Union Breaks the Back of the German Military Machine

In the winter of 1941, the German Sixth Army surrounded the battered city of Stalingrad. In turn, the German army found itself trapped by the Soviet winter. The *Battle of Stalingrad* had begun. Hitler had given orders to German generals that they were not to retreat. What developed was one of the world's greatest battles. Soviet civilians and soldiers and German soldiers fought with determination. By February 1943, little was left of Stalingrad and little was left of the German Sixth Army.

The Soviet victory at Stalingrad changed the tide of the war. The Soviets realized that, with help from nature and a strong desire to survive, they could defeat the German army. The Allies were beginning to change certain defeat at the hands of the Axis Powers into victories.

The Battle of El Alamein: The Allies Force Germany to Surrender in North Africa

In North Africa, the German General Erwin Rommel and his troops had scored many victories. Rommel, nicknamed the "Desert Fox," was commander of the *Afrika Korps*. He had successfully used *blitzkrieg*, or "lightning war," tactics to gain control of North Africa. But in the summer



of 1942, British General Bernard Montgomery and Allied troops stopped the Germans at El Alamein, Egypt and forced them to retreat across the desert. In November 1942, American General Dwight D. Eisenhower led American and British troops towards the retreating Germans in French North Africa. Rommel and the German troops were caught between the Allied forces of Montgomery and Eisenhower. In May 1943, Allied troops forced the German and Italian forces to surrender.

Dwight David Eisenhower (1890-1969)



Courtesy of National Archives and Records Administration

Dwight David Eisenhower was born in Denison, Texas. He graduated from Abilene High School in 1909, worked for more than a year to support a brother's college education, and then entered the United States Military Academy at West Point, a decision that left his mother, a pacifist, in tears. After graduating from West Point in 1915, he was commissioned a second lieutenant and was sent to San Antonio, Texas, where he met Mary (Mamie) Geneva Doud, daughter of a successful Colorado meat packer. They were married in 1916.

During World War I, Eisenhower commanded a tank training center, was promoted to captain, and received the Distinguished Service Medal. The war ended just before he was to be sent overseas.

From 1935-1939, he was an assistant to General Douglas MacArthur in the Philippines. As World War II progressed, he was promoted to the rank of lieutenant colonel. In March 1941, he became a full colonel. Three months later, he was given command of the 3rd Army. He was assigned to command the Allied forces during their invasions of North Africa, Sicily, and Italy (1942-1943). He was named supreme commander of the Allied invasion of Normandy and directed the campaign from D-Day (June 6, 1944) to the surrender of Germany (May 1945). After commanding the United States occupation forces in Germany, he returned to the United States to serve as army chief of staff from 1946 to 1948, before retiring from active duty. He ran for president as a Republican in 1952. Under the motto "I like Ike," he won by a landslide over Adlai Stevenson and became the 34th president. He won a second presidential election in 1956.



This Allied victory provided some important strategic positions. The Allies now held North Africa and the Suez Canal. The Fascist Italian government under Mussolini had lost all its territory in North Africa, and the Allies had turned the Mediterranean into a safe port for its navies.

A Second Front in Europe

Now that the Allies had defeated the Germans and Italians in North Africa, they needed to consider their next military move. The Allies considered these possibilities.

1. Churchill believed that since German strength was weakest in Greece and the Balkans, an Allied victory there would be easy. Churchill also pointed out that if Germany lost the Balkans, they would be cut off from their oil supply. Churchill also looked beyond the war. He felt that if the British and Americans controlled the Balkans and Eastern Europe, it would prevent a Soviet takeover in the area after the war. Churchill did not trust Stalin and the Soviet Union.
2. Charles de Gaulle, leader of the Free French resistance movement, wanted the Allies to attack the Germans in France from Great Britain. Joseph Stalin also believed that if the Allies invaded France from Great Britain, Hitler would be forced to move most of his troops from the Eastern Front (Soviet Union) to the Western Front. This would take some pressure off of Stalin's forces in the Eastern Front. Churchill told Stalin that such a second front in Europe was a year away. Soviet troops were left to face Germany alone.
3. Churchill and Roosevelt wanted the invasion of Europe to take place through Italy, which Churchill called the *soft underbelly* of Europe. British and American forces wanted to strike a blow to defeat Germany's Fascist neighbor to the south. They felt that defeating Italy would put the Allies in a good position from which to attack Germany.

In January 1943, Franklin Roosevelt met with Winston Churchill at Casablanca in North Africa. The two leaders of the Allied war effort discussed invasion plans. In the end, the Allies began making plans for an invasion of Italy.



The United States Navy Gains Victories in the Pacific (1942-1945)

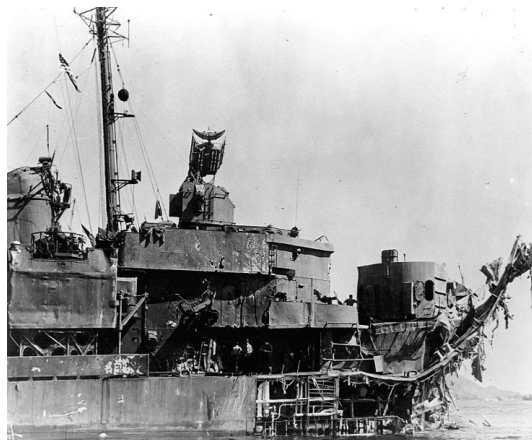
The United States quickly recovered from the shock of Japan's attack on Pearl Harbor. In May 1942, the United States battled the Japanese navy as it moved towards Australia. In what is known as the *Battle of the Coral Sea*, the United States Navy stopped Japan from invading Australia.

Next the Japanese navy attempted to take the Midway Islands, just west of the Hawaiian Islands in the Pacific. In June 1942, under Admiral Chester Nimitz, the United States Navy fought and defeated Japan in the *Battle of Midway* near the Hawaiian Islands. This was the turning point of the war in the Pacific. The defeat of the Japanese at Midway ended Japanese naval superiority in the Pacific.

Following the Battle of Midway, United States General Douglas MacArthur began a military operation known as *island hopping*. American troops took some islands and cut others off from Japanese supplies. In effect, the Americans had taken control of most of the Pacific while only fighting on some of the islands. The Pacific Islands were both mountainous and jungle-covered. Many American soldiers died in the difficult jungle fighting.

The Battle of Guadalcanal in the Solomon Islands was fought on the ground, at sea, and in the air beginning in August of 1942. After six months of a long and bloody battle with high casualties on both sides, Allied forces captured Guadalcanal. The Allies were able to overcome Japanese resistance to capture the Gilbert, Marshall, Caroline islands, and Guam, also.

In 1944 while the American navy was winning at Leyte Gulf, American forces, led by General MacArthur, island-hopped toward the Philippines and Japan. In early 1945, they captured Iwo Jima and Okinawa. From these islands, Allied pilots could launch

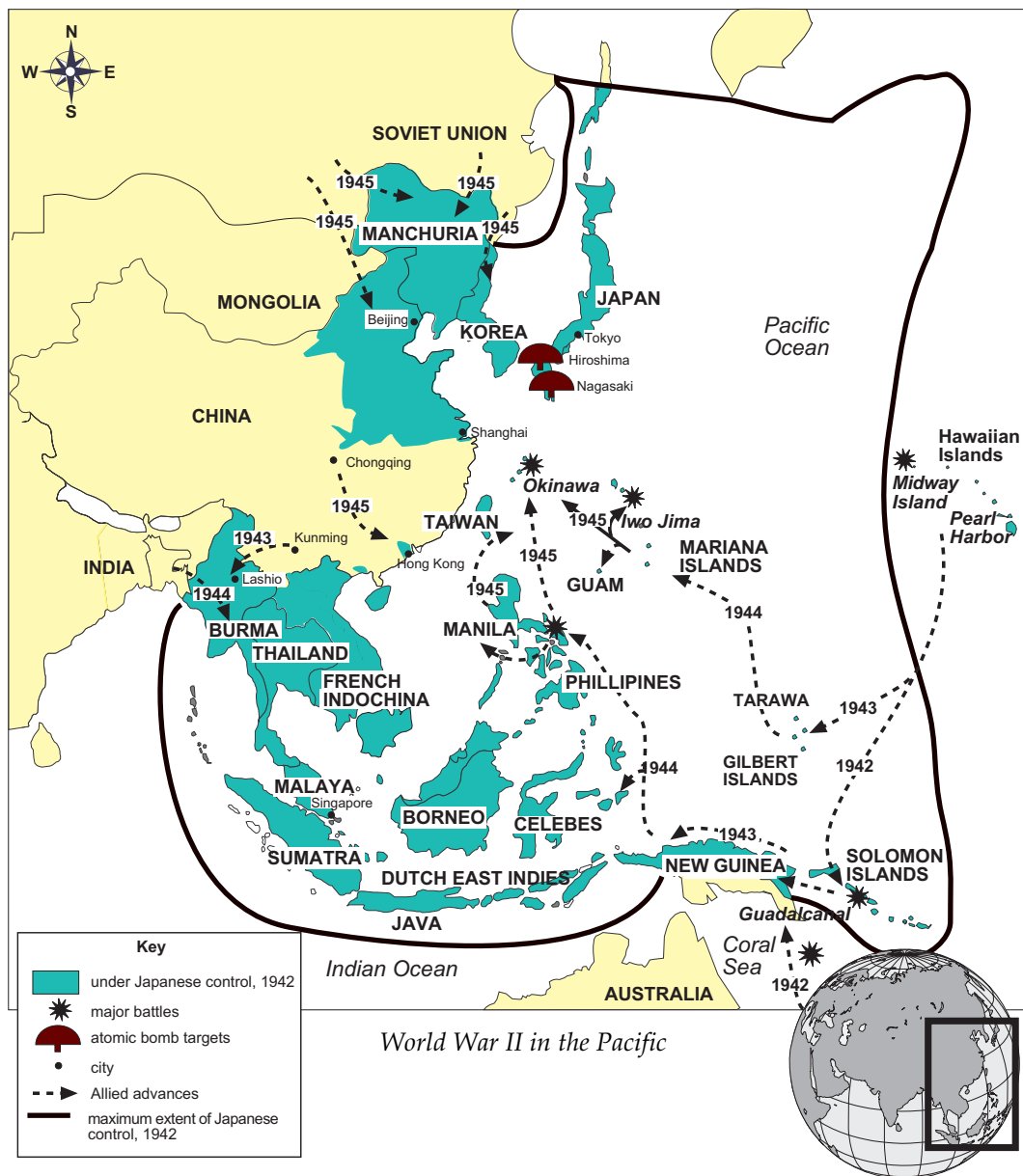


View of extensive damage to the USS Lindsey, struck by two kamikaze planes off Okinawa on April 12, 1945.

Courtesy of the Department of the Navy,
Naval Historical Center



destructive attacks on Japan. The Japanese leaders were not ready to surrender. Japanese pilots known as *kamikazes* volunteered for suicide missions, crashing their airplanes into Allied ships and bases.





Douglas MacArthur (1880-1964)



Courtesy of National Archives and Records Administration

Douglas MacArthur was born in Little Rock, Arkansas. He graduated from West Point in 1903 with the highest honors in his class. MacArthur served the next 10 years as an aide and a junior engineering officer and then four years on the general staff. MacArthur married Louise Cromwell Brooks in 1922 but divorced seven years later. In 1937 he married Jean Faircloth. They had one child, Arthur.

In 1917-1919, MacArthur served as chief of staff, brigade commander, and divisional commander for combat operations in France during World War I and in the Rhine occupation that followed. In 1918, MacArthur advanced in rank to brigadier general and to major general seven years later.

MacArthur was promoted to general when he was selected as army chief of staff in 1930. In 1935 through 1941, he served as Philippines military adviser (and field marshal). He also commanded the United Nations (UN) forces in the Korean War. In 1951 United States President Harry Truman dismissed MacArthur from his command of UN forces in Korea after MacArthur defied Truman's war policy.

The Allies Take Control of the War in the Air

From the summer of 1940 through the winter of 1941, German planes bombed Great Britain's cities. But Great Britain's air force—the Royal Air Force—was particularly skillful. Although outnumbered, the Royal Air Force downed many German planes during the *Battle of Britain*. By 1943 the Allies were bombing German cities, industrial plants, and munitions factories (where guns and ammunition are made) almost at will. The German *Luftwaffe* (air force) could not stop the Allied air strikes over Germany.

The Axis Powers Go on the Defensive (1943)

By the middle of 1943, Germany and Japan were on the defensive. Only a year or two earlier, victory seemed within their grasp. Now, with the United States having joined the Allies, the Axis Powers were losing. However, it would take two more years of bitter fighting to end the war.



Practice

Use pages 325-330 and the list below to complete the following statements.

One or more terms will be used more than once.

Allies	Coral Sea	Italy	North Atlantic
Australia	Eastern	Montgomery	Roosevelt
Bismarck	France	munitions	Stalingrad
Britain	Germany	North Africa	surface ships
Churchill	Great Britain		

German U-boats patrolled the waters of the

(1) _____, threatening supply ships carrying food and vital war supplies to (2) _____. The sinking of the German battleship (3) _____ was a turning point in history because it put an end to German efforts to control the (4) _____ with (5) _____.

After gaining control of the North Atlantic, the

(6) _____ began an offensive against (7) _____.

In the winter of 1941, the German Sixth Army surrounded the city of

(8) _____ in the Soviet Union. Though trapped by the Soviet winter, the German army was ordered by Hitler not to retreat. By February 1943, little was left of the German Sixth Army.



The Soviets learned that the German army could be defeated. The German and Italian forces in (9) _____ were caught between Allied forces led by British General (10) _____ and United States General Eisenhower. After their success in North Africa, the Allies considered their next military move against the Axis Powers. Joseph Stalin wanted the Allies to open a second front in (11) _____. Stalin wanted to force Hitler to send troops from the (12) _____ Front (along the Soviet Union) to the Western Front.

Winston Churchill and Franklin Roosevelt had a different idea. They wanted to invade Europe through (13) _____, or what Churchill called the *soft underbelly* of Europe. Charles de Gaulle, however, wanted to attack the Germans in (14) _____ from the country of (15) _____.

In January 1943, the American President (16) _____ met with Great Britain's Prime Minister (17) _____ to discuss the invasion plans. The Allies began making plans for the invasion of (18) _____.



In the Pacific, the United States fought Japan in the Battle of the (19) _____ in May 1942. This American victory stopped Japan from invading (20) _____. Great Britain survived the German *Luftwaffe* attack on its cities in what is called the Battle of (21) _____. Britain's survival was owed in large part to its skillful Royal Air Force. By 1943, the Allies were bombing German cities and destroying industrial plants and (22) _____ factories, where guns and other munitions were made. By the middle of 1943, Germany and Japan were on the defensive.



The Allies Begin to Take Back Europe (1943)

The Allies agreed to make an all-out effort to defeat Germany first before moving on to defeat Japan. To defeat Germany, the Allies would have to take control of Europe and force Germany out of the many countries it had annexed and conquered.

The Allies Invade Italy

In July 1943, the Allied forces invaded Italy. Under the command of General Eisenhower, the Allies began an air and sea attack of Sicily. During the invasion, Mussolini was removed from office by King Victor Emmanuel III. He was also arrested and detained by the new Italian government. The new Italian Prime Minister Marshall, Pietro Badoglio, dissolved the Fascist Party and signed a secret treaty of surrender. Italy was now on the Allies' side fighting against Hitler. Hitler, however, still held northern Italy with some of his best troops. The Germans rescued Mussolini and put him in control of northern Italy. The Allies' battle against the Germans in Italy was difficult. Italy's mountainous geography slowed Allied progress. The fighting in Italy lasted for a year and a half. It took the Allies until May 1944 to finally liberate Italy from German occupation.

The Soviet Union Forces Germany to Retreat

At the beginning of 1943, the Soviet army went on the offensive against the German invaders. As the Soviet army liberated their own cities, it heard horrible stories about the way the Germans had treated the Soviet people. These horror stories strengthened the Soviet will to defeat the Germans. The United States government helped the Soviet army through the *lend-lease* plan. They sent military equipment and food to help the Soviet army. Slowly but surely, the German army was driven from the Soviet Union. By January 1944, the Soviets had liberated the Ukraine and were advancing steadily towards Germany from the east.



Hitler, like Napoleon before him, had been blinded by his desire to conquer the Soviet Union. The German army was defeated in the Soviet Union for several reasons.

1. Hitler had too many troops in other places. German soldiers were fighting in Africa, the Balkans, and Western Europe. When German generals needed additional troops in the Soviet Union, the men were not available.
2. The Soviet Union's wide, open territories gave the Soviet army room in which to move. The Soviets used the geography of the Soviet Union to their advantage.
3. The Soviet winter of 1943 was severe. German troops were already tired. They did not have equipment, supplies, or clothing to survive the intensely cold Soviet winter.
4. Hitler insisted on running the Soviet campaign from Germany. He often overruled his generals in the field. German generals found it difficult to run the day-to-day operations of war, because they couldn't make on-the-spot decisions.
5. Soviet resistance increased as reports spread about German mistreatment of Russian civilians.
6. Food, clothing, and weapons from the United States helped Soviet soldiers continue their battle against the German invaders.



Practice

Answer the following using short answers.

1. Which country in the Axis Powers did the Allies think should be defeated *first*, Japan or Germany? _____

2. What Fascist leader was overthrown after the Allies invaded his country in 1943? _____
3. Why did it take the Allies so long to liberate Italy from Germany?

4. When did the Soviets go on the offensive against the German invaders? _____

5. How did the *lend-lease* plan help the Soviet army and people? _____



The Invasion of Europe

Operation Overlord

In 1942, with the Allies losing the war, it would have been impossible for them to attack and defeat the German army in Europe. But by 1943, the Allies had scored important victories against Germany in Europe, the Mediterranean, and North Africa. Allied forces began planning a large and daring invasion of Europe. At a conference in Washington, D.C. in May 1943, President Franklin D. Roosevelt and British Prime Minister Winston Churchill decided that the Allies would invade Normandy the following spring. Roosevelt and Churchill met with Stalin in Teheran, Iran, in November 1943. Stalin promised to launch an invasion on the Eastern Front at the same time. The secret name for the invasion of Europe was *Operation Overlord*. The American General Dwight D. Eisenhower was the Supreme Commander of all Allied forces. He was in charge of drawing up the plans for this large-scale invasion of Europe.

Hitler and his generals knew that the Allies would have to send their troops from Great Britain across the English Channel to invade France. Their question was, “Where in France would the Allies land and begin their attack?”

Victory in Europe

The Allies used deception to outwit the Germans. The American General George S. Patton, a brilliant and heroic military commander, spent time in Great Britain acting as if he were planning the invasion. The deception worked. Hitler was convinced that Patton would lead the troops during the invasion. Patton’s job was also to deceive the German spies about where the invasion would take place. The Allies set *D-Day*, or the day of attack, for June 5, but bad weather forced them to postpone the invasion for 24 hours.

On June 6, 1944, under General Eisenhower’s command, one of the world’s greatest and riskiest military invasions began. The Allies crossed the English Channel at night and landed on the beaches of Normandy, France. The German army dug in to stop the invasion, and many soldiers on both sides were killed. Within a few weeks, more than a million Allied troops had landed in France. At the same time that Allied troops were landing on the beaches, Charles de Gaulle and the French resistance fighters attacked Germans throughout France. By the end of June, it was clear that Operation Overlord was a success—Germany had to retreat from France.

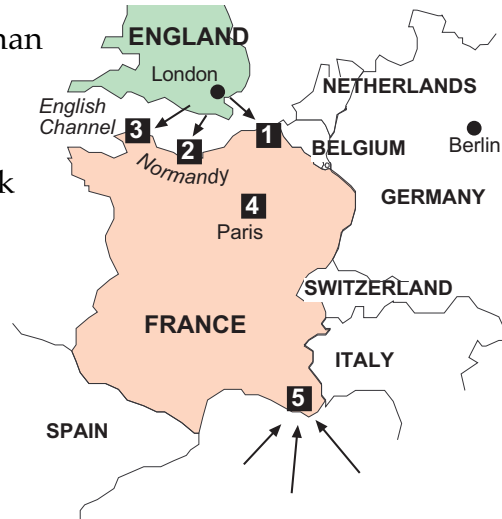


Operation Overlord: The Invasion of Europe (June 6, 1944)

Each item refers to a numbered place on the map below.

1. Hitler's generals thought this was where the invasion would take place. They thought this for three main reasons.
 - It was the shortest distance between France and Great Britain.
 - Most of Germany's V-1 and V-2 missiles used to attack Britain's cities were located here.
 - General Patton tricked German spies into believing that this was the invasion site.

2. This was where the invasion took place: the Normandy Coast. Today, the landing sites have names like Utah Beach and Omaha Beach. Large cemeteries, where thousands of American, French, English, and other Allied soldiers who died in the invasion have been buried, are located here. Over one million Allied soldiers took part in the invasion.



With success in Normandy and the rest of France, the Allied troops were on their way to winning the war.

3. On June 27, 1944, Cherbourg was captured by the Allies. General Eisenhower knew that the invasion was successful.
4. Paris was liberated by the Allies in August 1944. Over half a million French resistance fighters helped the Allies liberate France from the Nazis.
5. Allied soldiers invaded France from the south in August 1944.

Although the Allies were on their way to winning the war, destruction on both sides was severe. Hitler began using the new V-1 and V-2 missiles, which were very accurate in hitting targets. Once again, Germany bombed



cities in Great Britain and the Allies continued their air strikes on German cities. At the war's end, many cities in both Great Britain and Germany would lie in **rubble**.

By the close of the summer of 1944, the Allies had freed France from German occupation. German generals realized that they had lost the war. Hitler, however, refused to believe it. A group of generals tried to kill Hitler but failed. Instead, Hitler had the generals killed.

George Smith Patton, Jr. (1885-1945)



Courtesy of National Archives and Records Administration

George Smith Patton, Jr. was born in San Gabriel, California and was a descendant of an old Virginia family. Patton's love of the military was inherited. His grandfather graduated from Virginia Military Institute (VMI) and had been a colonel in the Confederate army. His father, a lawyer, also graduated from VMI. George Patton went one year to VMI but transferred and graduated from West Point.

He was an aide to General Pershing in the expedition to Mexico in 1916 and then accompanied him to France in 1917. In France he learned how to employ a new weapon, the tank, and distinguished himself by leading his tank brigade through battle. Patton believed that tanks were the weapon system of the future. By April 1941, he had become the commander of the Second Armored Division. In July 1943, he commanded the United States Seventh Army in the Allied invasion of Sicily. With a bold campaign, he got to Palermo before the British. One of his sayings, "We shall attack and attack until we are exhausted, and then we shall attack again," is symbolic of the hard-driving leadership that Patton used. However, an incident in which he slapped an ailing soldier nearly cost him his career.

He was eventually assigned to lead the Third Army, where in less than 10 months his armored division and infantry went through six countries—France, Luxembourg, Belgium, Germany, Austria, and Czechoslovakia—capturing over 750,000 Nazis and killing or wounding half a million more.

He was removed from command of the Third Army when he argued for keeping former Nazis in administrative and other positions. On December 21, 1945, Patton died as a result of an automobile accident.



Heroes of Operation Overlord and the Invasion of Europe

General Eisenhower proved that he was a military genius. He was later elected president of the United States (1952–1960). Charles de Gaulle was also hailed as a hero and later elected president of France. The soldiers who landed on the beaches of Normandy were the real heroes, however. If you visit Normandy today, you will see a very large cemetery honoring the dead soldiers who gave their lives so Europe could live in freedom.

The Battle of Germany

In the fall and winter of 1944, the German army was being squeezed on all sides. On the Eastern Front, the Soviet army pushed the Germans out of the Soviet Union. In the west, Allied forces liberated France and headed for the German border. General George S. Patton raced his tank divisions toward Germany with much success. Allied planes bombed Germany without much resistance, but Hitler still refused to surrender.

The Battle of the Bulge: Germany's Last Chance at Victory

In 1944, the Allies thought that the war in Europe would be over before the end of the year. On December 16, 1944, Hitler made a last attempt to win the war. Thirty-eight German divisions attacked the six American and British divisions in Belgium. This was known as the *Battle of the Bulge*. The Germans cut through the center of the American forces, creating a great *bulge* in the Allied line of troops.

The Americans were completely surprised. In the first few days of the battle, 8,000 Americans were taken prisoner. The German army moved quickly. American soldiers were surrounded at Bastogne, a city in southeastern Belgium. When the Germans asked the Americans to surrender, the American commander sent a message back which said, "Nuts." Racing up from the south with his tank division, General Patton arrived in time to save the Americans and defeat the Germans at Bastogne.

The German army knew that the Battle of the Bulge would be its last chance to change the tide of the war. When the battle was over at the end of December 1944, more than 77,000 American soldiers and 100,000 German soldiers had been killed. With the German army defeated, the Allies moved into Germany.



Allied Victory

Allied victory was at hand. On April 19, 1945, Soviet troops entered what was left of Berlin, the capital of Germany. Germans, fearing the Soviets (with good reason), fled from the Soviet army to avoid capture. Germans feared that the Soviets would mistreat them because the Germans had mistreated the people of the Soviet Union.

On April 30, 1945, with Soviet soldiers nearby, Hitler committed suicide. By this time, Mussolini, the overthrown Fascist dictator of Italy, was also dead. He had been assassinated on April 28 by his own people. The Allies also lost a leader that month. On April 12, 1945, President Franklin D. Roosevelt died. He had not lived to see the victory for which he had worked so hard. However, he died knowing that the Allies would win the war. Roosevelt's successor, Harry S. Truman, was president when the German Reich collapsed. On May 7, 1945, Germany surrendered to the Soviet army. The next day, May 8, is celebrated as *V-E Day*—the day of victory in Europe. May 9 is celebrated as Victory Day in Russia. The war in Europe was over.



Practice

Use pages 327-341 and the list below to write the correct name by each description. Write the name on the line provided. **One or more names will be used more than once.**

Charles de Gaulle	Franklin D. Roosevelt
Dwight D. Eisenhower	Joseph Stalin
Adolf Hitler	Harry S Truman
George S. Patton	

- _____ 1. the commander of all Allied forces
- _____ 2. did not live to see the Allied victory for which he had worked so hard
- _____ 3. acted as if he were planning the invasion of Europe
- _____ 4. leader of the Free French resistance movement
- _____ 5. in charge of drawing up plans for the invasion of Europe
- _____ 6. committed suicide rather than surrender
- _____ 7. thought Patton would lead the troops during the invasion of Europe
- _____ 8. Soviet leader who wanted the Allies to open a second front in Europe
- _____ 9. president of the United States when the war in Europe was over



Practice

Match each description with the correct item. Write the letter on the line provided.

- | | | |
|--------|--|------------------------|
| ___ 1. | the day of victory in Europe | A. Battle of the Bulge |
| ___ 2. | Germany's last effort to win the war | B. D-Day |
| ___ 3. | where the Allied invasion of Europe took place | C. Normandy coast |
| ___ 4. | code name for the Allied invasion of Europe | D. Operation Overlord |
| ___ 5. | day of the attack or invasion of Normandy | E. V-E Day |



Concentration Camps

When the Allies entered Germany, they discovered more than 100 *concentration camps* like Auschwitz and Maidanek, and **death camps** like Treblinka and Chelmno and their horrifying truth. These concentration camps served as death prisons and *death camps*, or killing centers, with large gas chambers and crematoriums, or ovens, to burn the bodies of the victims.

The healthy Jews, or about 10 percent of the new arrivals, had been made to work as slaves and were then eventually starved and killed. All others, including all children and older people, were sent immediately to be killed at death camps.

The Genocide

By 1945 two out of every three European Jews had been tortured, gassed, shot, or burned, as were five million Gentiles (non-Jews) or other targeted groups considered “undesirables.” Between 1933 and 1945, more than three million Soviet prisoners of war were killed because of their nationality.

Poles, as were other Slavs, were targeted for slave labor, and almost two million died. Up to a half million Roma and Sinti (Gypsies) and at least 250,000 people who were mentally and physically challenged were also victims of **genocide**. Homosexuals and others considered to be “antisocial” were also persecuted and often murdered. In addition, thousands of political and religious dissidents such as Communists, Socialists, trade unionists, and Jehovah’s Witnesses were persecuted for their beliefs and behavior, and many died as a result of maltreatment.

Over 11 million people had died; six million of them were Jews, and between one and a half million and two million were Jewish children. The Jews were not the only victims of Hitler but they were the only group the Nazis wanted to destroy



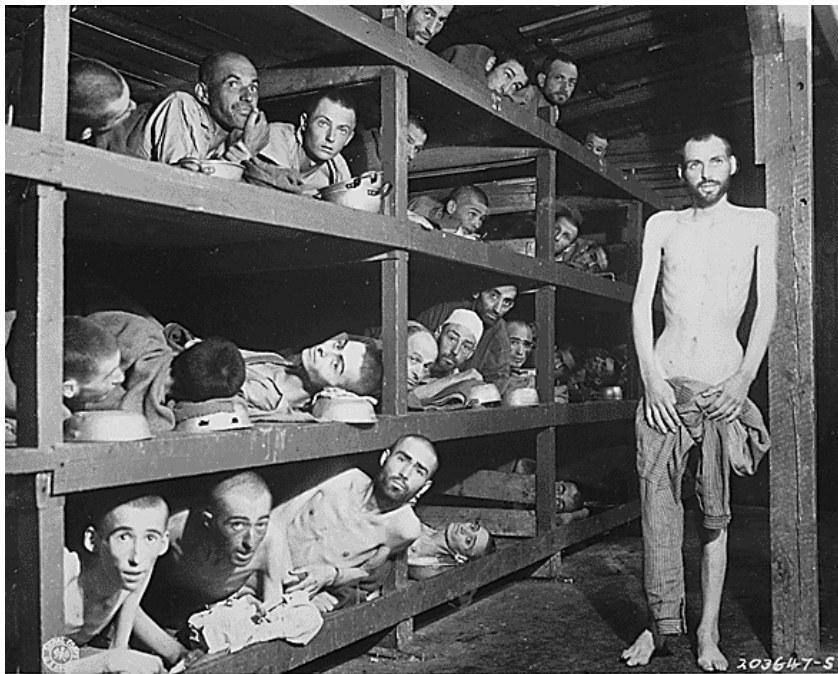
A few of the 40,000 Polish children imprisoned in Auschwitz before being deported to Germany.

Main Commission for the Investigation of Nazi War Crimes in Poland, courtesy of the USHMM Photo Archives



entirely. Most of the systematic *genocide*, or deliberate killing of a particular group of people, took place in only four years. Each person was an individual, an individual who had dreams, who had a life, who had a family.

The **Holocaust**, as the mass murders became known, shocked the world as its gruesome details were discovered. The Nazis had deliberately set out to destroy the Jews for no other reason than their religious and ethnic heritage. The record of the *Holocaust's* mass murders serves as a reminder of the monstrous results of prejudice and intolerance.



Inmates at Buchenwald concentration camp a few days after their liberation, April 16, 1945.

Courtesy of the USHMM Photo Archives

German doctors had dictated life or death at the railroad sites carrying trainloads of Jews. The doctors chose adults and children (many twins) on which to perform horrifying criminal medical experiments that were certain to kill their subjects (see *Joseph Mengele* on the next page). The experiments had little scientific value except to discover how much torture a victim could endure until death. No place on Earth had such a preselected group of people whose cries went unheard.



Joseph Mengele (1911-1979)

Joseph Mengele was a German war criminal. From 1943 to 1944, he was a chief physician at Auschwitz concentration camp. There Mengele selected 400,000 persons to be killed. Inmates called him “The Angel of Death.” He conducted terrifying, inhumane experiments on Jews, twins, dwarfs, giants, and many others. Some of the experiments were to see how long someone could survive in ice cold water. He also tried to change children’s eye color by injecting chemicals into their eyes.

After World War II, Mengele was captured but escaped to South America. Despite international efforts to track him down, he was never captured again. He lived in Argentina, Paraguay, and Brazil under various aliases. In 1985 an international team of forensic scientists identified the body of a man who had drowned at a Brazilian beach in 1979. While the body was identified as Mengele’s, many do not believe he is dead because the evidence was inconclusive.

In 1945 and 1946, the Allies held war crime trials in Nuremberg, Germany. As a result of the Nuremberg Trials (see pages 427-428), 12 Nazi leaders were sentenced to death. Thousands of other Nazis were found guilty of war crimes. One such Nazi war criminal was Adolf Eichmann (see Appendix A for excerpts from his prison diary).

Holocaust Survivor Testimonies: From the Nuremberg Laws to Liberation

Nuremberg Laws Affected Rudy Herz

Rudy Herz

Rudy Herz was born in a very small town called Stommeln on the outskirts of Cologne, Germany in 1925. He came from a family of six children. In the years before Hitler came to power, Rudy rarely experienced any open anti-Semitism. In the following reading, Rudy describes how the Nuremberg Laws affected his family and explains why the family moved from Frankfurt, Germany to the even larger city of Cologne. (See pages 351-369, Unit 7 pages 278-282, Appendix B, and Appendix C for other personal Holocaust and liberator accounts.)



Rudy and the Nuremberg Laws

In 1936 the Nuremberg Laws decreed that Jews could no longer have a German, an Aryan, of childbearing age in the house. You had to hire a woman over 45. We had some young girls cleaning the house for us. They had to leave.

The treatment we got in school also changed. We were not permitted to join the youth groups. Our textbooks changed as well. The textbooks no longer agreed with what my parents and my grandparents told us about world history. The new textbooks took a nationalistic slant. They emphasized the Germanic heritage. We did not have the judgement to know that much of what was in our books was false. Its only purpose was to glorify the Germans. We accepted it because, thinking of ourselves as Germans, we felt that we also had been fighting the Romans with the German national hero Herman the Cherusk. We pictured ourselves among the brave German fighters in the Teutonberg Forest, defeating the Roman General Varus and his superior army.

Before long the local Nazi authorities told my father it would be healthier for us if we moved into the larger Jewish community in Cologne. Those that didn't move voluntarily were forced to do so in 1938 by an edict from the Reich, the German government. The law stated that all Jews must leave villages of less than 80,000 or 100,000 and move to larger population centers.

In Cologne, my father was no longer allowed to have his grain business. He took over a small transport business. We had two small pick-up trucks and we did hauling until 1940 when all business activity was forbidden to Jews by the German government.

We began seeing signs in the store windows: swastikas and the words, *Jews Are Not Welcome Here*. People who did not wish to say that on their windows said instead, *Aryan Proprietors* or *Aryan Business*. Most merchants had small flags with swastikas flying in front of their stores.

Courtesy of the South Carolina Department of Education



Practice

Answer the following using complete sentences to discuss how the **Nuremberg Laws** affected **Rudy Herz** on pages 346-347.

1. What was the purpose of these changes? Why might such changes have been popular among the German people, particularly after the signing of the Versailles Treaty? _____

2. What did Rudy think about the way German history had been rewritten in his textbooks? _____



3. Examine both the positive and negative aspects of strong nationalistic feelings. Consider ways nationalism helps a nation grow by uniting its people. Then consider the negative consequences intense nationalism might have for minorities within a nation.

4. In what ways was the daily life of Rudy and his family changing?



5. Why do you think merchants agreed to put up signs saying *Aryan Business* or *Aryan Proprietor*? What effect did these signs have on the way people thought about Germans who were Jewish? How did such actions help the Nazis build support for anti-Semitism?

6. What might have happened if all the merchants in a community had agreed not to put such signs in their windows and had taken a stand against this treatment of the Jews? Were the merchants who put signs in their store windows in any way responsible for the growth of anti-Semitism?



Rudy's Life as a Teenager in a Ghetto

When the war began, Rudy and his family were living in Cologne, Germany. In this account, Rudy describes his family's forced move to the ghetto and their separation from other family members.

Rudy in the Ghetto

On September 1, 1939, the newspaper on the corner proclaimed that Germany was at war with Poland. Three days later Germany was fighting France and England as well. I had just turned 14 and to me this was all marvelously exciting. There was a small overpass near my house and I saw a German sentry guarding the railroad with bayonet and rifle.

We had many relatives in Cologne. My father had three sisters. My cousins were also there. In 1941 the resettlement orders began coming. All of our relatives were taken away. We were spared to about the beginning of 1942.

On May 30, 1942, Cologne suffered a devastating bombing raid by Allied forces. Around 1,000 British and American bombers took part. Cologne turned into a *rubble* heap.

Two months later we received our notice to report to the railhead with 50 pounds of personal baggage. They had old railroad cars with wooden seats, and we were given one compartment for ourselves. We did not know where we were going. We were nervous, but we were still together. My grandmother was with us. We had my small baby sister with us. We had a baby carriage and food. We had taken some water.

I don't think the train stopped anywhere in Germany for anything: for food, for water, anything. It reached its destination in about three days.

We arrived somewhere in Czechoslovakia. We were told to get out of the railroad car. None of us knew where we were. We got out and started marching. Each of us marched with 50 pounds of baggage. We trudged some five miles to an old fortress where we were met by Czech militia. All of our belongings were inspected for valuables. They were very thorough. Not very many people came through with anything but the bare belongings and some food.



It was still daylight when we passed through the outer gates. We had to pass through a checkpoint. At the other end, families were separated, male and female. My mother with the two youngest children went one way. My father, three brothers, and I went another way. We were sent to an old, two-story house with six or seven rooms. We were assigned a room in which there were already eight men. Several days later we learned that our mother and the two younger children were in a large stone barrack for women.

We did not know where we were until the next day when we saw Czech writing on old stores. We were in Czechoslovakia in the Theresienstadt (Tur-Ray-Zen-Stat) ghetto. Over 60,000 people were crowded into a space that had never housed more than 8,000. By the end of 1944 around 120,000 people were crammed into this ghetto. No privacy whatsoever. We did have our small, assigned space. Our suitcases were there and a few blankets that we put on the floor.

The next morning we were given a ration card for food. A man stood there and clipped our coupons. We were given one cup of coffee, a pat of margarine, two slices of coarse bread, and a teaspoon of marmalade for our breakfast.

After two or three days we were assigned work. All the new male arrivals that were capable had one assignment—grave digger. Because we were young and able to lift a spade, we were marched out to the huge burial grounds. There we dug graves. People, especially the older people, 80- and 90-year-olds, were dying like flies. No food or medical attention. We did this job just long enough to learn the ropes. In the ghetto we learned the ropes very fast. You had to know what to do and where to trade what for what.

Then I found out about a separate building within the ghetto where young people ages six to 18 lived and worked. The work was less horrible than our first job. I was able to get into this with my brothers. My father did not go with us. My mother was still in a barracks for women, with the smaller children.



We made the best of our new life. Books were smuggled in to us by Czechoslovakian Jews newly arrived in the ghetto. We had sort of a library. But we were very much restricted in what we could do. We thought that now that we were in the ghetto we would no longer have to wear the yellow star as we had been forced to do in Germany. But no, even in the ghetto with only Jews around, we still had to wear that hateful yellow star.

Courtesy of the South Carolina Department of Education



Practice

Answer the following using complete sentences to discuss **Rudy's life as a teenager in a ghetto** on pages 352-353.

1. Who sent Rudy to a ghetto? What happened to his personal belongings and household goods when he was forced into the ghetto? _____

2. Where was the ghetto located? How did Rudy get there?

3. What kept Jews from leaving the ghetto? Why was it difficult to escape? _____

4. What rights, if any, did Rudy have in the ghetto? _____

5. What were the most serious problems the people in the ghetto faced? How did they get food? What kind of work did they do?



6. What strategies if any did Rudy use to stay alive and to keep his spirits up? _____

7. What do you think would be the worst part of ghetto life for you—loss of home, isolation from friends, lack of privacy, crowding, hunger, or fear of the future? _____

8. What contact did ghetto residents have with people living outside the ghetto? What can you infer about how non-Jews, living in the communities where ghettos existed, felt about the treatment of the Jews? Why might non-Jews have been reluctant to help Jews in the ghetto? Were the non-Jews in the communities where ghettos existed responsible in any way for loss of the rights of those held captive in the ghettos?



Rudy's Life at Auschwitz and His Liberation

Rudy and his family stayed in the Theresienstadt ghetto for almost two years. Then in 1944, they were told to prepare to move. In the selection below, Rudy describes what happened next.

Rudy at Auschwitz

In March or April, 1944, we got the dreaded notice that we had been selected for resettlement farther east. The train cars they took us in were actually cattle cars. We entered the cars and sat on our baggage. There was not very much room between us and the roof of the cattle car. Our car had from 80 to 100 people in it so it was quite crowded. We were sitting tight on tight. We had some water and some food but no comfort whatsoever. The cars were sealed. We could not open them from the inside. The windows were small, open rectangles. Perhaps we could have jumped off the train and run into the countryside, but we did not know if anyone on the outside would help us. We thought most civilians would probably turn us in. We could not speak the Czech language. It seemed better to go along with the SS and do what they wanted. By that time the war had been going on four or five years. We thought the end might be in sight and we would be liberated.

Our train left the ghetto at six o'clock in the evening. At night as we traveled, we heard gun shots. We did not know why these shots were fired. After the war, I learned the SS troops were on the roofs of the cattle cars shooting past the windows to discourage people from sticking their heads out. The train was moving at a fairly great speed. We did not know what country we were going through. There was no stopping.

At four o'clock the next afternoon, we arrived in Auschwitz (Ow-Switch) in Poland. When the train stopped, we again thought of trying to escape. But we knew that in Germany most Germans would turn us over to the local authorities for a reward of money or food. We had no way of knowing if the Poles would be any different. Someone would have to hide us or bring us food. We had no money to pay for our keep. So in the end, to keep our family together, we dropped any plans of attempting to escape.



The doors of the cattle car were yanked opened. The first thing we heard was shouts of, “Out, as soon as you can, out. Your belongings you leave there!” Despite this we grabbed what we could and assembled outside. Before us stood an immense rectangle of land surrounded by electrically-charged barbed wire. This was the Auschwitz death camp.

We were assembled in long rows and marched between the troops of the SS special death-head division into the camp. We were marched up and down a broad avenue for four or five hours between posts of barbed wire with a huge sign, EXTREME DANGER, HIGH VOLTAGE ELECTRICAL WIRES. We saw guard towers high above us. We saw men with machine guns inside them, but even then we did not know that we were in a death camp. Back and forth and back and forth, they just kept us in motion. As it got closer to one o’clock in the morning, we were more and more desperate. You could hear more and more cries for food.

Finally they set out large boxes. Everybody had to put in their valuables. Women and men were forced to strip off their wedding rings and hand over their prized possessions like locket of relatives no longer there. Whatever we had, we lost. Those who did not give up their possessions willingly or quickly were beaten. Then we were separated into male and female groups and walked to what they called the B camp of Auschwitz. The women’s camp was separated from the men’s camp by a wide road. There were about 24 barracks for men and the same number for women.

The men in charge were called barracks’ elders or capos. They were German criminals taken from German prisons and sent to oversee the people in the barracks. They made us walk by a crate again and put in our valuables. The only thing I had that they wanted was a leather jacket. I told my father that I regretted having to give my jacket. He said, “Child, if we ever get out of here, I’ll buy you 10 of these.”

The bunks we slept in were in three tiers, lower, middle, and upper. The mattress was just burlap filled with straw. We had not eaten at that time, and we were not to get anything to eat until the next morning.



The Daily Routine at Auschwitz

In the morning we got metal cups and spoons. We were each given two slices of bread and sometimes a pat of margarine or a little bit of marmalade. The coffee was toasted acorns ground up. It tasted terrible. The midday meal was potato soup with maybe a little bit of meat. Potatoes were the main ingredient and the kind of beets you normally feed to cattle. We were already hungry in the Theresienstadt ghetto because we did not get enough to eat. In Auschwitz we were beginning to starve. In the evening we got another slice of bread, some coffee, no marmalade, no butter, no nothing.

Every morning we had the counting of the prisoners. We were arranged in groups of five with just small distances between us. The SS trooper would come by and start counting one, two, three, four, five. If he miscounted, he went over it again. Sometimes we stood there two hours. I kept wondering why none of us tried to overpower this lone guard who had just a small pistol. But what could we have done? There were guardposts on either end and high tension wires in between. We would all have been killed.

We did not know that Auschwitz was an extermination camp or that we could be put to death. We did know that there was always this sickly sweet smell in the air. We saw a large chimney belching smoke 24 hours a day. We saw German military ambulances with the Red Cross symbol on them going back and forth. The Germans had painted the symbol on the vehicles to hide their true purposes from the camp prisoners and from overflying airplanes. Much later we found out these ambulances were carrying military personnel or cyanide poison gas canisters for use in the gas chambers.

We made the best we could of the situation. My younger brother had hidden a book by the German poet Goethe. We read it twice. We read it three times. We memorized it. We quoted from it. We had a deck of cards. We played card games. There wasn't anything else we could do. Eventually my brother got a job laying a stone road. They gave him a half a portion of food more. But the work was excruciating.



Nothing grew in Auschwitz. There was not a bird, not a living thing, no grass or anything. A drainage ditch ran through the B camp. Daily the SS guards sent prisoners from other camps to lay sod along the banks of this ditch. We were desperate for food. My mother remembered seeing in our small village the geese eating the wild grasses. She knew there were plants growing in the sod that we could eat. She gathered them and whenever we could we ate them. We were starving. We were dreaming of food. We were talking about food. We had not had enough to eat for three or four months already. Yet we hoped in 1944 that the end of the war was in sight.

At Auschwitz people died of hunger because they had come to the camps already weakened. The people who had died were thrown or stacked at the very end of the barracks row underneath the watchtower. They were stacked like cordwood, naked, without dignity. Nobody to close their eyes. They were stacked four feet high. Every 24 hours a cart came. People were simply grabbed by the hand and foot and tossed on there. We knew they were taken to the crematory to be incinerated, but we still had no knowledge of the gas chambers and that people were killed or gassed in such numbers as they were.

Rudy Is Liberated

Around April 24 or 25, officials at the underground factory in Gusen, where we were working, started to burn and destroy documents. We knew then the end was near. The first Red Cross packages began to arrive and the SS disappeared. They silently stole away. They were replaced by Austrian military police, who guarded the camp from then on. We still couldn't get out. We were prisoners, but there was no more work, and we waited.

On May 5, 1945, a tank came up to the barbed wire area where my barracks was located. The conversation was in Yiddish mixed with some English. "We are the American army. Your camp is being liberated. Stay here. You will get soup. The soup column is right behind us. You are free. The American army is behind me, but stay in the camps so that there is no confusion. We assure you that you will be fed." This tank was followed by some jeeps and trucks. The Americans picked up the Austrian military police and took them away. The guards' rifles were thrown on a pile and set afire by the American troops.



I felt truly like a bird who has flown out of a cage. I did not know what the future would bring. I made my way to Linz, Germany. I went to a hospital. I got number one American food. The first time I ate it, I could not even keep it down. After a while I could eat white bread, some toast. I gradually got a little bit of strength back.

Courtesy of the South Carolina Department of Education



Practice

Answer the following using complete sentences to discuss **Rudy's life at Auschwitz and his liberation** on pages 356-360.

1. What part did concentration camps play in Hitler's Final Solution?

2. What evidence can you find that the Nazis tried to hide what they were doing at these camps from both the prisoners and the outside world? Why do you think they tried to hide their actions?

3. What kept most people from trying to escape from the trains? From the camps? How successful do you think escape attempts were?

4. What experience seemed to be most unbearable for the survivors whose testimonies you have read? What parts do you think would be the most terrible for you? Other members of your family?

5. How do you think the liberators felt about what they saw?



Experiences of Pincus Kolender

Pincus Kolender

The following is an account by Pincus Kolender, a concentration camp survivor who lives in South Carolina today. Pincus and his wife Renee Kolender, also a concentration camp survivor, said,

“When our children were young, they always used to ask how come people have grandfathers and grandmothers and we don’t. So we explained to them our experiences and they understood.”

Pincus Kolender lived in Poland and came from a very religious, poor family. He was born in Bochnia, one of Poland’s largest cities, in 1926. He had two brothers and a sister. Bochnia had a large Jewish community with many synagogues, Jewish houses of worship, and many schools for Jewish children. Although his family always experienced some anti-Semitism, his early life was happy. Pincus was 14 years old when his family was forced to move to the Bochnia ghetto. Unlike some other families, his family was not required to move to another city because the ghetto was in his hometown.

In 1942 Pincus and his brother were taken from the Bochnia ghetto where they had lived for about two years to the Auschwitz (Ow-Switch) concentration camp in Poland. In the following reading he describes his life in Auschwitz and how he survived and eventually served in the United States Army.

Pincus at Auschwitz

When we left the ghetto, they put us on cattle trains. They packed 100 to 120 people into a sealed car. There was no food on the train. Fortunately it took us only about two days to get to the concentration camp. Trains from places farther east or south, like Greece, sometimes took 10 days. Many of the people on these trains did not survive the trip.

When we got to Auschwitz, we had to undress completely and line up before the gate. We had to line up in fives. A Nazi officer was pointing left, right, right, left. I was fortunate. I went to the right. The ones to the left went to the crematorium. The ones to the right went into the camp.



It was dark, but I could see the people to the left were mostly elderly or young children, so I realized that we were going into the camp. Inside the camp first they shaved our hair. We were stark naked and they tattooed us. I am 161253. They gave us cold showers. It was November. Bitter cold. Then they put us in striped uniforms and took us into Birkenau (Beer-Kin-Now), the killing center at Auschwitz. I was fortunate. After I had been there four weeks, they picked several hundred men to go to Bunno, another part of Auschwitz. It was a labor camp and they gave us a little better food. The barracks were a little nicer. There were about 300 or 400 men to a barrack. We had double or triple bunks. The bunks were actually single beds, but two people had to sleep on one bunk.

The capos woke us at five o'clock each morning. The capos were prisoners who were in charge of the barracks and the work groups. They were mostly Germans, Poles, and some Jews. The Nazis assigned them to guard us. In the morning they gave us one piece of bread mixed with sawdust to eat. We also got a piece of margarine and a cup of coffee. It was not real coffee. We had to work until the evening. In the evening we got soup. If we were fortunate, we might sometimes find a few potatoes and a piece of meat in the liquid. Most of the time it was just hot water and a few potatoes. For that we had to work nine or 10 hours a day. When we first came there, we worked unloading gravel and coal from trains. If you didn't finish your assigned task, you got a beating.

The first few months I thought I wouldn't make it. For me at Auschwitz the worst enemy was the cold. It was bitter cold. There was also hunger and there were the beatings. But the worst thing was the cold. I had one striped jacket, no sweater, just an undershirt and a thin, striped coat. We worked outside when it was often 10 to 15 below zero. People just froze to death.

The hunger was also terrible. We used to search for a potato peel and fight over it. We were constantly, 24 hours a day, always hungry. We would think about food and dream about it.

To survive in Auschwitz you had to get a break. My break came when I met a friend of mine from my hometown. He gave me the name of a man who had been in Auschwitz for a long time and was a good friend of my family. At Auschwitz, he supervised other inmates. I went to see him and asked if he could give my brother and me different jobs. Lucky for me, he gave us work making metal cabinets. Our job was to carry things. We were not cabinet makers, but we did the lifting. It was indoors. I don't think I could have survived the winter doing more outdoor work. I think he saved my life.



Every few months we had what they called a selection. They came into the barracks and picked out the people who looked very skinny and couldn't work anymore. They looked you over, and if they didn't see much fat on you, they put down your number. The next morning they came with trucks, picked up these people and put them right in the crematorium. It was heartbreaking.

In January, 1945, the Russian offensive started. When the Russians came close to Auschwitz, the Germans took us from the camp and marched us west away from the approaching army. They moved us out in a dead march. We marched a whole night to the Polish city of Gleiwitz, about 70 miles away. My brother kept saying to me, "Let's escape." I kept telling him that this was not the time because I knew we were still in German territory.

I said, "Where are you going to hide? The population, they are not friendly." But he wouldn't listen. Suddenly I didn't see him anymore. Since then I lost him. I was with him the whole time in Auschwitz.

They put us on a cattle train in Gleiwitz and took us to Germany. It took 10 days. They packed us about 150 people to a car with no food. Fortunately for us the cars were open. Everybody had eating utensils. I had a string. At night while the German guards were sleeping, we attached the string to a plate and scooped up snow. That kept us alive. You can live without bread for a long time but not without water. Finally we got to Nordhausen, a large German concentration camp. We were there about 10 days, and then they sent us to a camp called Dora in the mountains. The Germans were making V2 missiles there. We did hard labor, digging tunnels into the mountains. We worked there from the end of January until April, 1945.

Pincus Is Liberated

It was a Friday morning, April 20, Hitler's birthday. The SS came and gave us an extra pat of margarine in honor of the Führer. The British army was approaching so they began moving us again. We were on the train packed 100 to a car. All of a sudden we heard sirens. American fighter planes came and started strafing our train. [Strafing means to attack with machine gun fire from an airplane.] They didn't know there were prisoners on the train. While they were strafing us, the two SS guards hid under the wagon.

Something told me, maybe it was instinct, "This is your chance. Run." I jumped out of the train and ran about three miles. Several others jumped too. The fighter planes strafed us. I could see the bullets flying practically right by my nose. But I kept going. This was my only chance. All I had on was shorts. I didn't even have a shirt because it was very hot in the train and I was barefooted. But I kept running.



I met another fellow who had also escaped. We started walking. It was already late in the morning. We were hungry and cold. We saw a farmer's hut. We went into the farmhouse. The Czech farmer helped us a lot. He gave us food and clothes and kept us warm for about a day. We were skin and bones. If the Germans had caught the farmer hiding us, he would have been executed.

The next morning we had to leave because the Germans were searching for us. Although the war was almost over, they still came into the village looking for prisoners. The farmer found out about it. That night he took us into the forest and gave us a shovel. We dug a deep hole. He gave us blankets, and we slept there for two weeks. Every night he brought us food until the American soldiers came.

The Americans came on May 5, 1945 to Czechoslovakia. The Fifth Army, General Patton's army, liberated us. Five years later when I came to America, I was drafted. I served in the Fifth Army.

Courtesy of the South Carolina Department of Education



Practice

Answer the following using complete sentences to discuss the **experiences of Pincus Kolender** on pages 362-365.

1. In his account about life in the death camp, Pincus said, "To survive Auschwitz, you had to get a break." What did he mean?

2. What was his break? _____



American Soldiers Liberate Buchenwald Concentration Camp

The following reading is part of an interview with a South Carolinian who helped liberate concentration camps in Germany and Austria at the end of World War II. Most people know Strom Thurmond for his close to 40 years as a United States Senator from South Carolina. However, in 1944, he was serving his country in the army as a member of the 82nd Airborne Division. In the following interview he describes what he saw at Buchenwald (Boo-Kin-Wald) concentration camp in Germany.

Senator Thurmond at Buchenwald

Thurmond: I was with the First Army all through the war in Europe. The First Army uncovered the Buchenwald concentration camp, which is located some miles from Leipzig, Germany.

In looking over the camp, I was told that most people died from starving. There must of been several hundred people who had died from starvation stacked up like cordwood. A big pile of dead people and some of them were not dead. Some were barely living, and some of our doctors were able to save some of those people. I never saw such a sight in my life.

Interviewer: *When did you get over there?*

Thurmond: I landed on D-Day with the 82nd Airborne Division in Normandy, and we took that part of the country there in France. We went through Paris and into Belgium. That's when the Battle of the Bulge occurred. We were stopped in Belgium, and we had to drop back. That was a terrible fight, the Battle of the Bulge, but we stopped them.

Then we went back through Belgium and on from one place to another until we finally crossed the Rhine River into Germany. Then we got near Berlin and sat on the banks of the river while the Russians took it. That was the order General Eisenhower gave. We were disappointed we didn't have the honor of taking Berlin.



Interviewer: *Then you went on from Berlin to Buchenwald?*

Thurmond: That's right.

Interviewer: *The First Army came to Buchenwald and you liberated the camp.*

Thurmond: We got there right after it was liberated. Some troops ahead of us had just liberated it. That's when I witnessed these things I'm telling you about. I just can't imagine how any person could be so inhuman as to do to those people what I saw.

Interviewer: *At Buchenwald did you have an opportunity to speak to any of the survivors or have contact with any of the survivors?*

Thurmond: The survivors were lying on the ground and were so weak they couldn't talk. The doctors had a difficult time telling whether they were living or dead, but they could detect that a few of them were living, and, of course, they were taken and treated and helped anyway they could.

Interviewer: *Did you remain there some time?*

Thurmond: No, we remained there long enough to survey the situation and to determine it was stabilized. Then others came in and took over the actual work of removing the bodies. The medical corps was still trying to tell who was dead or alive among those who were piled up like cordwood, a great high wall of people, some barely living, others dead.

Interviewer: *Could you tell me some more about how people reacted in your group?*

Thurmond: We wondered why the German people in Leipzig didn't know what was going on. If they did know, why they didn't do something about it. Some of them claimed they didn't know about it, and they may not. But others were scared to do anything or take any part. Some of course were indifferent and were trying to save their own lives.



Interviewer: *Do you have any idea how many people were left there by the time you got there?*

Thurmond: They disposed of them as they died. This particular pile of people must of been several hundred.

Courtesy of the South Carolina Department of Education



The dead stacked in a cart.



The dead found by American soldiers.

Courtesy of Tallahassee Jewish Federation



Practice

Answer the following using complete sentences to discuss the **interview with Strom Thurmond** on pages 367-369.

1. Judging from Strom Thurmond's answers, how do you think he felt about what he saw? _____

2. What were some of the reactions of the people in his group?



Consequences of Acting or Not Acting

The Holocaust was not simply the logical and inevitable consequence of unchecked racism. Various factors contributed to the Holocaust and had been built upon gradually from racism:

- combined with century-old bigotry
- renewed by a Nationalist trend in Europe during the last half of the 19th century
- fueled by Germany's defeat in World War I and its national humiliation following the Treaty of Versailles after World War I
- made worse by worldwide economic hard times, the ineffectiveness of the German Weimar Republic (1919-1933), and international indifference
- ignited by the political charm, strong military control, and manipulative propaganda of Adolf Hitler's Nazi Germany.

Just because the Holocaust happened does not mean it was inevitable. The Holocaust took place because individuals, groups, and nations made decisions to act or not to act. At best, less than one-half of one percent of the total population of non-Jews under Nazi occupation helped to rescue Jews.

Decades later, the Holocaust stands to remind the world of the consequences and what can happen if hate, *xenophobia* (unreasonable fear and hatred of strangers and foreigners), and anti-Semitism are tolerated. Today, the world still receives reports of the suffering of innocent people at the hands of governments. No person or nation can afford to turn their eyes or ears away without expecting a repeat of genocide in some part of the world.



Raoul Wallenberg (1912-1947)

Raoul Wallenberg was born in Stockholm, Sweden. He received a bachelor degree of science in architecture from the University of Michigan at Ann Arbor. Because the market was limited for architects in Sweden, he eventually worked as the foreign representative of a European company run by a Hungarian Jew. When Hitler began deporting Hungarian Jews to concentration camps, he was sent to Hungary as a *diplomat* with the assistance of the United States and Swedish governments to rescue as many Jews as he could. He designed a Swedish protection passport and arranged *Swedish houses* offering Jews *refuge*, or protection from danger. He issued passports to 5,000 Jews to keep them out of Nazi hands. When Soviet troops occupied Hungary in 1945, he was taken to Soviet headquarters and was arrested as a spy. Soviet authorities later produced a document stating that he had died in prison of a heart attack.



Practice

Use the **information** below to answer the following using complete sentences.

The Holocaust

The term *holocaust* refers to a total destruction and loss of life. Adolf Hitler wanted to develop a master race in Germany. He hated Jews and wanted to kill all of them. His special police rounded up Jews all over Europe and imprisoned them in concentration camps. The Nazis tortured and murdered Jews in the camps. Some were shot, hung, injected with poison. Others died as a result of horrible medical experiments by Nazi doctors in search for ways to improve the master race.

The Nazis used gas chambers to kill men, women, and children. They shaved the victims' heads and used the human hair to make blankets. They took the gold from the teeth of the dead people. They burned the bodies in huge crematoriums or ovens and used the ashes of the dead as fertilizer in the fields.

Six million Jews and millions of others considered undesirable were murdered in the Nazi concentration camps. The camps were discovered when the Allies entered Germany. The truth of the camps was so awful that many people refused to believe they existed. However, photographs and films revealed the horrors of the Holocaust in Nazi Germany. The record of the Holocaust continues to serve as a reminder of the devastating results of prejudice and intolerance. The lesson of the Holocaust cries out two words: *never again*.

1. What did Hitler want to do in Germany? _____



2. Whom did the Nazis force into the camps? _____

3. How were the prisoners of the camps treated? _____

4. About how many Jewish people died? _____

5. What factual evidence is there that these camps existed? _____

6. Why do you think this period was called the Holocaust? _____



Practice

Read the **poem** below written by **Martin Niemöeller**, a German clergyman, after his release from Dachau, and answer the following using complete sentences.

First they came for the Communists
and I did not speak out—
because I was not a Communist.
Then they came for the Socialists
and I did not speak out—
because I was not a Socialist.
Then they came for the trade unionists
and I did not speak out—
because I was not a trade unionist.
Then they came for the Jews
and I did not speak out—
because I was not a Jew.
Then they came for me—
and there was no one left
to speak out for me.

1. According to Niemöeller, why do you think it is important to speak up when injustice is being done? _____

2. What are the risks of speaking up? _____



3. What are the benefits of speaking up? _____

4. Why should groups that are unpopular or seen as immoral be protected by the American Constitution? _____

5. At what point should a certain group not receive constitutional protection? _____

6. Should hate groups such as the Ku Klux Klan and the American Nazi Party receive protection to exist and speak out under the First Amendment? Support your answer with examples from history and if possible from court cases that have commented on these topics.



Practice

Read the **article** below to answer the following pages using complete sentences.

One Vote: One Person Can Make a Difference

Elections are losing popularity, though they have become more important than ever. One reason people often give for not voting is that they believe that one vote won't make a difference. They are *wrong*. In England, King Charles I was beheaded in 1610, and King George I was placed on the throne in 1714, both by *one* vote. Six American Presidents were placed in office by *one* electoral vote or by *one* vote cast in a handful of election precincts: Thomas Jefferson, John Quincy Adams, Rutherford Hayes, Woodrow Wilson, Harry S Truman, and John F. Kennedy. *One* vote saved President Andrew Johnson from impeachment. The United States Senate approved a Declaration of War by *one* vote sending America to war against Mexico back in 1846. The military draft was approved by Congress in 1941 by *one* vote. In one year, 1962, Maine, Rhode Island, and North Dakota all elected governors by a margin of, you guessed, *one* vote per precinct.

Adolf Hitler, a man whose evil destiny set the world on fire, was elected head of Germany's fledgling Nazi party by *one* single vote.

It has been said that people should "act as if the whole election depended on *your* single vote.... History shows that it occasionally does."

Abraham Lincoln, in his Gettysburg Address, said that we have a "government of the people, by the people, and for the people." But if government is truly to belong to the people—rather than the reverse—the people must take an active and educated role in shaping their government.

Source: The March of the Living, Central Agency for Jewish Education, Miami, Florida.
Reprinted by permission.



1. Is one vote important? _____

Explain. _____

2. Can one voice make a difference? _____

Explain. _____

3. How does this reading relate to Holocaust studies? _____



Victory Over Japan

The Allies had agreed that they would first win the war in Europe before attempting to win the war against Japan. Even so, the United States had made many gains in the Pacific War against Japan during 1943 and 1944.

In October of 1944, under the command of General Douglas MacArthur, the United States liberated the Philippines from the Japanese. During this liberation, Americans fought a large naval battle with Japan known as the *Battle of Leyte Gulf*. During this victory, the United States nearly crippled Japan's navy.

After liberating the Philippines (see Bataan Death March, page 320), the United States began taking islands closer to Japan. In 1945 Americans defeated Japan at Iwo Jima and then Okinawa. These battles were particularly fierce. The closer the Americans got to Japan, the more determined the Japanese troops became in their fighting.

The United States Drops the *Atomic Bomb*

In the spring of 1945, it became clear that the Japanese would not surrender until the United States invaded Japan. But an invasion of Japan would have cost about a million American and Japanese lives—the Japanese would fight to the death. Americans knew of this determination as they saw the Japanese *kamikaze* pilots commit suicide by crashing their planes into American ships.

In April 1945, American President Harry S Truman was told about a new weapon which had been developed during the war. This new weapon was called the *atomic bomb*.

In April 1945, American President Harry S Truman was told about a new weapon which had been developed during the war. This new weapon was called the atomic bomb.

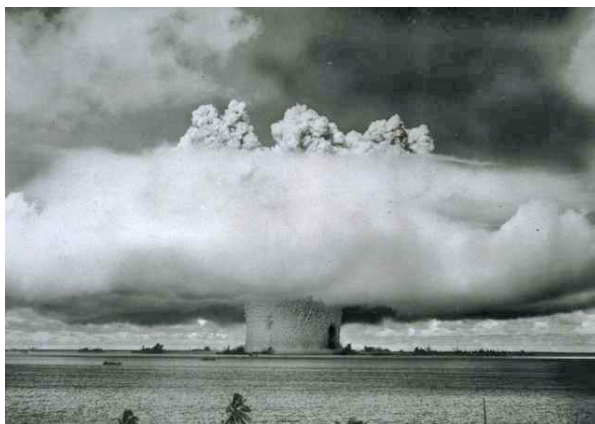




President Truman had a very serious decision to make. He had to choose between using this new weapon of mass destruction or invading Japan. Truman knew that invading Japan would cost hundreds of thousands of American lives. He did not know how much damage this new bomb would do.

On July 26, 1945, the United States issued an **ultimatum** to Japan demanding unconditional surrender. When the Japanese refused, Truman decided to use the bomb. He ordered the air force to drop the atomic bomb on Hiroshima, Japan. On August 6, 1945, the people of Hiroshima fell victim to the first atomic bomb used in war. Two-thirds of Hiroshima was instantly destroyed by the blast (see Appendix D for eye-witness accounts of the bombing of Hiroshima). About 80,000 Japanese died instantly in the blast. By the end of 1945, more than 140,000 people would die as a result of the attack.

Three days later, a second atomic bomb was dropped on Nagasaki. In that bombing, 35,000 died instantly. By the end of 1945, more than 200,000 had died as a result of injuries and radiation poisoning caused by the atomic blasts. The environmental and psychological effects of these bombings are still felt today. However, if the United States had invaded Japan, the loss of American and Japanese lives would have been even greater. After the bombings, Japan's Emperor Hirohito proclaimed that "the unendurable must be endured," and on August 14, 1945, Japan surrendered. Truman declared August 15, 1945, V-J Day—Victory over Japan Day. The official Japanese surrender ceremony took place on September 2, 1945, on the deck of the American battleship *Missouri* in Tokyo Bay. World War II was over!



President Truman ordered the United States Air Force to drop the atomic bomb on Hiroshima, Japan on August 6, 1945.



Practice

Answer the following using short answers.

1. In 1943 and 1944, which country was beginning to win the war in the Pacific? _____
2. Which general led the American forces in the war against Japan? _____
3. What military act by Japanese pilots convinced the United States they would have to invade Japan to make the Japanese surrender? _____

4. What did President Truman decide to do to end the war against Japan? _____

5. Why did he make this decision? _____

6. What effect did President Truman's decision have on the outcome of the war? _____



Review

The Axis Powers—Japan, Germany, and Italy—set out to conquer the world in the 1930s. They did this in order to gain resources for their industries and to become “great” nations. The Allies—France, Great Britain, the Soviet Union, and the United States—tried to avoid war at almost all costs. Eventually, however, the Allies had to take military action to stop the expansion of the Axis Powers. World War II began in 1939, twenty-one years after World War I ended.

The Axis Powers conquered many nations between 1939 and 1942. An onlooker in 1942 probably would have thought that the Axis Powers would indeed win the war and perhaps rule the world. The United States entered the war in 1941 after being bombed at Pearl Harbor in the Hawaiian Islands. During this time, unfounded fears caused the rights of Japanese Americans to be violated, and they were sent to internment camps.

With United States involvement, the Allies began taking control of the war in 1943. In 1945 the Allies defeated Germany and Japan, and World War II had ended.

World War II was one of the most costly conflicts in modern history. Both the Allies and the Axis Powers used *new* methods of mass destruction. Bombing raids on cities killed hundreds of thousands of men, women, and children. This terrible loss of human life was highest in the Soviet Union.

Hitler’s racist policy, the *Holocaust*, led to the genocide or the mass murder of six million Jews and millions of others in concentration camps, including Poles, Gypsies (Roma and Sinti), Soviet prisoners of war, Jehovah’s Witnesses, homosexuals, and people with disabilities. Decades later, the record of the Holocaust stands to remind the world of the consequences of hate and what can happen if racism, *xenophobia* (fear and hatred of strangers or foreigners), and anti-Semitism are tolerated.



Practice

Use the list below to write the correct term for each definition on the line provided.

442nd Regimental Combat Team	fleet	retreat
blitzkrieg	genocide	rubble
concentration camps	Holocaust	ultimatum
death camps	internment camps	

- _____ 1. the attempted extermination of all Jews in Europe and other groups by the Nazis
- _____ 2. to pull back; to withdraw
- _____ 3. prisons operated by Nazi Germany in which Jews and other groups were tortured and murdered
- _____ 4. a number of warships acting together under one command
- _____ 5. Nazi extermination centers where Jews and non-Jews were brought to be put to death as part of Hitler's Final Solution
- _____ 6. final set of demands
- _____ 7. the deliberate and systematic extermination of a particular racial, national, or religious group
- _____ 8. broken fragments from destroyed buildings and other structures and left in piles
- _____ 9. segregated unit of Japanese Americans which fought heroically in Italy and France
- _____ 10. a war conducted with great speed and force
- _____ 11. camps that Japanese Americans on the West Coast were shipped to during World War II due to unfounded fears of sabotage

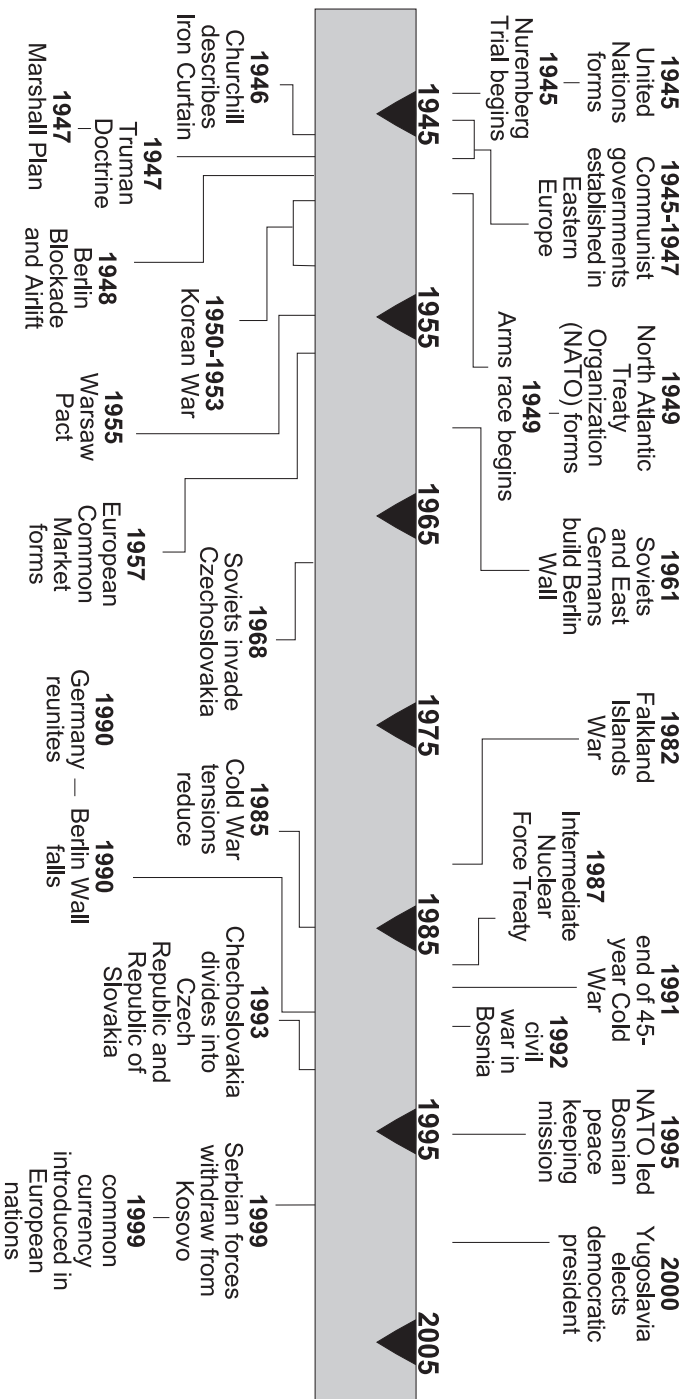
Unit 9: The Cold War and the Postwar Period in Europe (1945-Present)

This unit emphasizes the events that led up to the Cold War, the rivalry between Communist governments and the free world, reform movements that led to the collapse of communism in the Eastern European bloc, and the postwar recovery of Europe.

Unit Focus

- four major active bodies of the United Nations (UN) and their functions
- Germany and the Nuremberg Trials
- postwar recovery in Western and Eastern Europe
- nations of Europe that resisted Soviet domination
- features and purpose of the Marshall Plan, the Truman Doctrine, and the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO)
- why NATO and the Warsaw Pact were formed
- events that caused and intensified the Cold War
- events that led to the end of the Cold War and the collapse of communism in the Eastern European bloc

Unit 9 Timeline





Vocabulary

Use the vocabulary words and definitions below as a reference for this unit.

- aggression** hostile, unprovoked action
- alliance** an agreement between countries, groups, or people to work together in doing something
- allies** nations or persons that join together for a specific purpose
- annex** to increase a nation's borders or land by taking control of a foreign territory, state, or nation
- apartheid** the policy of segregation and discrimination against non-European groups in the Republic of South Africa from 1948 to the early 1990s
- arms race** a rivalry among nations to gain the greatest military power; the Cold War competition between the United States and the Soviet Union to build up their armed forces and weapons
- ban** to prohibit or stop
- Berlin Airlift** in 1948 the United States and Great Britain flew supplies into West Berlin to break the Soviet blockade of roads and waterways leading into the city



- Berlin Wall** a wall built by East German and Soviet soldiers to keep East Germans from escaping to West Berlin
- bloc** a group united for common action
- blockade** the surrounding of land or harbor so that food and other supplies cannot get in or out
- buffer zone** region that lies between two rival countries, cutting down threat of conflict
- capitalism** an economic system in which land, factories, and other means of producing goods are privately owned and controlled by an individual or groups of individuals for a profit
- cease** to stop
- civilian** a person not on active duty in the military
- coalition** temporary alliance of various political parties
- Cold War** battle for influence and control of smaller and weaker nations between the United States and the Soviet Union after World War II; stopped short of armed conflict



- collectivism** the political principle of centralized social and economic control of all the means of production and distribution
- colony** a region or country controlled by another country
- communism** a theory of government in which wealth and property are owned in common, and production and labor are shared equally among the people; in reality, the means of production and distribution are owned and controlled by the state
- condemn** to be against or to disapprove of
- containment** United States policy designed to prevent the spread of communism
- defied** opposed or challenged boldly
- democracy** a system of government in which power comes from the people
- deportation** the removal of a person or group of people from their homeland
- economic depression** occurs when a country has little economic business or business activity
- ethnic cleansing** a term used in the Bosnian conflict for a policy of forcibly removing or killing members of another ethnic group
- ethnic group** large group of people who share the same language and cultural background



- expel** force out
- free enterprise** the freedom to do business in a competitive market with little regulation or interference by government; also called *private enterprise* or *market economy*
- General Assembly** the main body of the United Nations
- hostilities** feelings or displays of hatred or dislike
- ideology** a system of beliefs and attitudes that guide the actions of a group or nation
- immigrant** a person who comes to live in a country in which he or she was not born
- imperialism** the practice of establishing colonies; extending the rule of one country over other countries or colonies
- inflation** a sharp increase in prices while the value of money decreases
- intelligence** news or information, especially secret information, gathered by a government
- international** relating to or affecting two or more countries
- invasion** the act of entering and trying to conquer a territory
- Iron Curtain** an imaginary line separating the Communist and non-Communist countries in Europe



- Marshall Plan**..... a program that sent economic aid to war-torn European countries after World War II; also called *European Recovery Program* (ERP)
- massacre** a brutal, bloody killing of many people or animals
- migrate** to move from one country, region, or place to settle in another
- monarchy** a government or state in which a king or queen has supreme power
- nationalize** to bring private industry under government control
- negotiation** working out or settling upon by meetings and agreements or compromises
- North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO)** alliance between United States and 11 Western European nations to protect one another, particularly from threat of communism
- occupation zone** an area controlled by military forces
- partition** the division of a country into two or more parts
- propaganda** information designed to convince people of certain beliefs or ideas



- province** one of the parts a country is divided into; territory
- racist** based on prejudice against people because of the race they belong to
- reform** change made for the better
- refugee** a person who flees to a foreign country to escape danger
- repression** the act of keeping persons under control by using fear or force
- republic** system of government in which officials are elected by the citizens
- resolution** formal decision or conclusion
- rivalry** competition or striving for the same thing
- sanction** a measure used to punish a specific action
- Security Council** body of the United Nations made up of five permanent member nations and 10 other countries
- Solidarity** an independent trade union organized in Poland to work for political reforms
- strike** stopping of work and services by a group of people to protest certain conditions



- superpowers** nations so powerful that their actions and policies greatly affect smaller, less powerful nations; usually refers to the United States and the former Soviet Union
- suppress** put an end to
- terrorists** groups who use violence to intimidate a government into granting their demands
- totalitarianism** a political system in which the government has total control over the lives of individual citizens
- truce** agreement to stop fighting
- Truman Doctrine** United States foreign policy of sending economic and military support to countries resisting communism after World War II
- United Nations (UN)** an organization of nations that works for peace in the world and tries to solve world problems
- veto** to reject or refuse to approve
- Warsaw Pact** mutual defense agreement signed in 1955 by the Soviet Union and seven neighboring Communist countries; dissolved in 1991



The Cold War and Postwar Period in Europe (1945-Present)

Effects of World War II

Approximately 50 million people died as a result of World War II. This is a number almost beyond imagination. The Soviet Union alone lost over 20 million people. Almost two million Japanese were killed, and nearly eight million Germans died. Many who died during World War II were **civilians**; they were *not* soldiers on active duty. To grasp this number of deaths, imagine everyone living in Florida, Texas, and New York in 1999 disappearing.

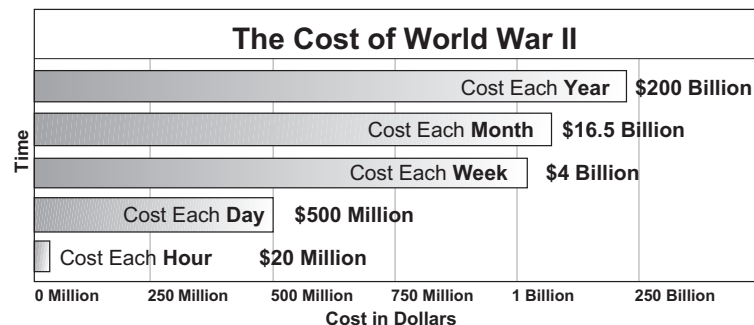
Casualties in World War II

Population	Military Dead	Civilian Dead	Total Dead
American	292,000	*	292,000
English	389,000	65,000	454,000
French	211,000	108,000	319,000
Russian	7,500,000	15,000,000	22,500,000
German	2,850,000	5,000,000	7,850,000
Italian	77,500	100,000	177,000
Japanese	1,576,000	300,000	1,876,000

All figures are estimates.
* Very small number of civilian dead.

Loss of life was not the war's only cost. Large areas of France, Germany, and the Soviet Union were completely destroyed. The war made rubble of hundreds of cities in Europe and Asia. Survivors found themselves homeless, hungry, and sick. Millions of Asians and Europeans were faced with uncertain futures. Almost every person in North America, Europe, Australia, and Asia lost relatives or friends in the war.

World War II was also the most *expensive* war in human history. A good estimate of the total cost of World War II is about \$1.2 trillion. For some idea of how much money this is broken down into years, months, weeks, days, and hours, see the following chart.





Building a Peaceful Future after World War II

The period right after a war is particularly important for building future peace. This is true for two reasons. First, world leaders are aware of how much the war cost and are usually committed to avoiding another war. Second, new relationships between nations are being built. These relationships will determine whether the future holds peace or war.

World leaders after World War I did not build a peaceful future. Rather than create peace, the 1919 *Treaty of Versailles* (see Unit 4) only produced **hostilities** between the winners and losers. After World War I, the world economy suffered. The Treaty of Versailles and the world **economic depression** were two major causes of World War II.

However, world leaders after World War II had a vision for the future. They were, for the most part, effective leaders. They included President Harry S Truman and Dwight D. Eisenhower in the United States, Prime Minister Clement Attlee in Great Britain, Chancellor Konrad Adenauer in the Federal Republic of Germany (West Germany), and President Charles de Gaulle in France. Through the efforts of these leaders and others like them, it was possible for people to rebuild their lives in the years following World War II.

Postwar Developments

In June of 1945, fifty of the world's nations came together to create the **United Nations** (UN). This **international** organization was intended to help nations prevent future wars, maintain peace around the world, and try to solve world problems. Other UN missions were to help end disease and give aid to nations in times of disaster.

At the end of World War II, the world learned that the Nazis had killed more than six million Jews (see Units 7 and 8). The *Holocaust*, as the mass murders came to be known, shocked the world, as the gruesome details were revealed. Most of the nations around the world felt a tremendous amount of sympathy for the Jewish people. Consequently, most nations in the UN supported the creation of a Jewish homeland called *Israel* in the Middle East. Israel was created as a nation where Jewish people could live and feel safe.



Not all postwar developments were peaceful. The two **superpowers**, the United States and the Soviet Union, began challenging each other in many parts of the world. The **rivalry** or *competition* between the Soviet Union and the United States became known as the **Cold War**. The *Cold War* was a struggle between the two *superpowers* for power and influence in many parts of the world.



Our World after the Next Atomic Bomb War

Courtesy of the J. N. "Ding" Darling Foundation



Practice

Answer the following using complete sentences.

1. About how many soldiers and civilians died as a result of

World War II? _____

2. What happened to many areas of land, particularly in France, the Soviet Union, and Germany, as a result of the fighting in

World War II? _____

3. Why is the period after a war important for building future peace? _____



Practice

Match the **leader** with the correct **nation**. Write the letter on the line provided.

	leaders	nations
_____	1. Harry S Truman and Dwight D. Eisenhower	A. France
_____	2. Konrad Adenauer	B. Great Britain
_____	3. Charles de Gaulle	C. United States
_____	4. Clement Attlee	D. West Germany

Match the **description** with the correct **new development**. Write the letter on the line provided.

	description	new development
_____	5. Soviet Union and the United States	A. Cold War
_____	6. the struggle between the superpowers for power and influence	B. Israel
_____	7. works to help nations prevent future wars, maintain peace around the world, and tries to solve world problems	C. superpowers
_____	8. a Jewish homeland in the Middle East	D. United Nations



Practice

Use the list below to write the correct term for each definition on the line provided.

civilian	international
Cold War	rivalry
economic depression	superpowers
hostilities	

- _____ 1. nations so powerful that their actions and policies greatly affect smaller, less powerful nations; usually refers to the United States and the former Soviet Union
- _____ 2. battle for influence and control of smaller and weaker nations between the United States and the Soviet Union after World War II; stopped short of armed conflict
- _____ 3. feelings or displays of hatred or dislike
- _____ 4. a person not on active duty in the military
- _____ 5. relating or affecting two or more countries
- _____ 6. competition or striving for the same thing
- _____ 7. occurs when a country has little economic business or business activity



The United Nations

After World War I, many of the world's nations set up the League of Nations. The Allied leaders intended this worldwide organization to help keep peace and to prevent another major war. World War II is convincing evidence that the League of Nations failed.

Toward the end of World War II, leaders of the Allied powers began to develop another worldwide organization. This organization was meant to help keep the peace that many people had died to secure. At a meeting near Washington, D.C., a plan for the United Nations was written. The plan was approved by Roosevelt, Churchill, and Stalin in early 1945. The United Nations was to be an organization of nations working for peace and promoting equal rights and the self-determination of peoples throughout the world. In June 1945, in San Francisco, California, the United Nations Charter was signed, and the United Nations (UN) was born. The UN today is located in New York City.

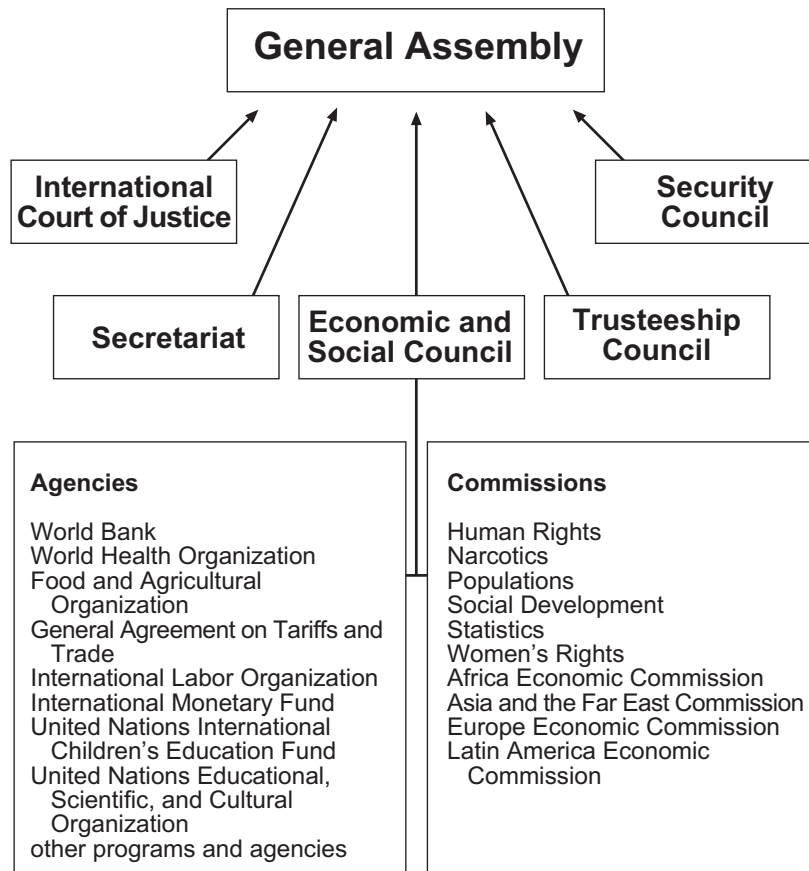


United Nations emblem

The Structure of the UN

The UN has four active major divisions: the **General Assembly**, the **Security Council**, the International Court of Justice, and the Secretariat. The other two inactive divisions are the Trusteeship Council and the Economic and Social Council. All member nations belong to the *General Assembly*, with each nation having one vote. The General Assembly, the policy-making body, approves new members, discusses a broad range of issues, and makes recommendations and agreements. The General Assembly functions like an international town meeting.

The *Security Council*, the peacekeeping division, currently has 15 members. The five permanent members are the United States, Russia, Great Britain, France, and China. The other 10 members serve two-year terms. The main purpose of the Security Council is to keep peace in the world. It helps solve diplomatic, political, and military disputes. Each permanent member of the Security Council has **veto** power—the right to cast a vote prohibiting action on issues taken up by the Security Council. Each member can *veto* any Security Council action. This prevents any members of the Council from voting as a **bloc** to override the others. The Security Council is the most powerful branch of the UN.



Another important branch of the UN is the Secretariat. The Secretariat, headed by the Secretary General, runs the day-to-day affairs of the UN. The Secretary General is chosen by the members of the UN. The major job of the Secretary General is to act as a peacemaker in disputes among nations.

Functions of the UN

Although the UN's major task is to preserve world peace, since 1945 the UN has helped many poor and war-torn countries. For example, the UN's Economic and Social Council has helped feed starving people around the world. It has sent doctors throughout the world to help fight disease. The UN also has sent experts to help the Third World or developing nations improve their industries and agriculture. The International Court of Justice handles international legal disputes. The Trusteeship Council promotes the welfare of people in colonial territories and guides them towards self-rule.



During the postwar period, the UN helped resolve many crises. The first real test of the UN came at the end of the 1940s. Soldiers from the Communist country of North Korea attacked South Korea. The UN sent soldiers to protect South Korea. Most of these soldiers were American. However, soldiers from Greece, Turkey, Australia, New Zealand, and Great Britain went to Korea as well. The Korean War ended in 1953 when the UN got both sides to stop fighting. The UN established a border—the 38th parallel of latitude (also known as the *demilitarized zone*)—that both the North Koreans and the South Koreans agreed not to cross.

The UN also has been involved in trying to keep the peace in many Middle East conflicts. The UN, however, is only as effective as its members choose to make it. If a member nation chooses not to cooperate, then the UN cannot work. Nevertheless, the UN provides a place where member nations can debate their views on world problems.

Actions Taken by the UN

The UN has helped to resolve many international problems. Since its creation in 1945, the UN has used its military strength to stop armed **aggression**. It has also used its peacekeeping troops to preserve the peace. Listed below are some actions taken by the UN to help resolve some international problems.

- **1946**
Iran The Security Council pressured the Soviets into removing their troops from Iranian territory.
- **1946**
Greece The Greek government charged that Yugoslavia, Albania, and Bulgaria were helping Communist revolutionaries in Northern Greece. A UN commission demanded that Communist nations stop aiding Communist rebels.
- **1947-1948**
Palestine The General Assembly approved the **partition** of Palestine into Arab and Jewish states.
- **1947-1949**
Indonesia The UN arranged a **truce** or *agreement* ending hostilities between Dutch and Indonesian forces, which eventually led to Indonesia's independence.



- **1948**
Kashmir The UN tried to end hostilities between India and Pakistan over the **province** (or *territory*) of Kashmir. India **defied** (or *went against*) the UN and **annexed** part of Kashmir.
- **1949, 1971**
India and Pakistan The UN supervised a **cease-fire** (or *stop-fire*) agreement between India and Pakistan in 1949 and again in 1971 when there were renewed hostilities.
- **1950**
Korea When North Korean Communists invaded South Korea, the Security Council demanded that they withdraw. When the North Koreans ignored this demand, the UN's Security Council provided military aid to South Korea. The North Koreans were eventually forced to withdraw their troops.
- **1956**
Hungary The UN General Assembly **condemned** the Soviets for **suppressing** (or *putting an end to*) a Hungarian revolt against the Soviet-dominated government of Hungary. The General Assembly demanded a withdrawal of Soviet forces, but Russia defied the UN.
- **1956**
Egypt The General Assembly condemned the **invasion** of Egypt by British, French, and Israeli troops. It demanded a *cease-fire* or truce and withdrawal of invading forces. The invaders withdrew and the UN sent peacekeeping forces to the area.
- **1960-1961, 1999-to the present**
Congo 1960-1961—The UN sent a *UN Emergency Force* (UNEF) to the Congo to restore order and prevent bloodshed when a civil war broke out between Communist and anti-Communist factions.

1999-2000—The Democratic Republic of the Congo and five regional states signed a cease-fire agreement, and the UN Security Council set up to expand the mission's orders in 2000.



- **1964, 1974**
Cyprus

1964—The UN sent a peacekeeping force after a civil war broke out between Greek Cypriot and Turkish Cypriot people.

1974—The UN demanded a cease-fire when Greek Cypriot forces attempted to unite Cyprus with Greece by overthrowing the government. Turkish and Greek Cypriot forces eventually *ceased* or stopped fighting.
- **1965-1979**
Rhodesia-Zimbabwe

UN **sanctions** (or *penalties*) were used to help Great Britain regain control of Rhodesia when the white-minority government refused to share power with the black majority. In 1980 Rhodesia became the independent country of Zimbabwe.
- **1966-1994**
South Africa

The UN used *sanctions* and **banned** (or *prohibited*) arms sales to South Africa to force South Africa to end **apartheid**, a **racist** policy that allowed the white minority to discriminate against the black majority.

The UN refused to allow South Africa to occupy a seat in the UN's General Assembly until it ended *apartheid* in the 1990s and held all race-free elections in 1994.

The UN also helped Namibia gain independence from South Africa and supervised a cease-fire. They supervised the first elections in this new nation.
- **1967, 1973**
The Arab-Israeli Wars

The UN security council ordered a cease-fire and urged **negotiations** between Israel and its Arab neighbors in both wars. Both times the UN demanded withdrawal of Israeli forces from occupied territories, a **resolution** of the Palestinian **refugee** problem, and a guarantee of freedom to travel on all waterways. The Security Council also approved the creation of a UNEF force of several thousand troops in the region. In 1974 the General Assembly approved a *resolution* that supported the right of the Palestinian people to have independence.



- **1978, to the present**
Israel's invasions of Lebanon
Tensions between Israel and Palestinian Liberation Organization (PLO) **terrorists** led Israel to twice invade southern Lebanon. Israel was condemned for the invasions. An immediate withdrawal and a cease-fire was ordered. Peacekeeping forces were sent to southern Lebanon to restore international peace and security and to assist the government of Lebanon in ensuring the return of its effective authority in the area.
- **1991, to the present**
Iraq and Kuwait
Following the forced withdrawal of Iraqi forces from Kuwait, the UN monitored the Iraq-Kuwait border to discourage border violations and report any hostile action.
- **1992-2000**
East Timor
After East Timor's independence from Indonesia in 2002, the UN helped administer the territory and exercised both legislative and executive authority during its transition to statehood.
- **1995, to the present**
Bosnia and Herzegovina
The UN performed a wide range of functions related to law enforcement in Bosnia and Herzegovina. The Security Council also coordinated other UN activities in the country relating to human rights, elections, and economic recovery.
- **1999, to the present**
Kosovo
The UN Security Council set up a mission to help the people of Kosovo to rebuild their lives and heal the wounds of conflict. This was the UN's most far-reaching mission ever, designed to turn war-torn Kosovo into a functioning, democratic society. Among the key tasks were to help Kosovo establish self-government, promote human rights, maintain civil law and order, conduct elections, and begin economic recovery.
- **1999, 2000, to the present**
Sierra Leone
The Security Council established a mission to assist in the Lomé Peace Agreement in 1999. The Security Council expanded the mission in 2000.
- **2000, to the present**
Ethiopia and Eritrea
Ethiopia and Eritrea signed an agreement to stop hostilities, and the UN Security Council sent a mission to maintain cooperation between the countries.



Practice

Answer the following using short answers.

1. What is the main purpose of the UN? _____

2. In what city today could you visit the UN? _____

3. What are the six main divisions of the UN? _____

4. To which two areas of the world has the UN sent peacekeeping forces? _____

5. Even though the UN is not always successful in its missions, why is it important to have a UN? _____



Practice

Use the list below to write the correct term for each definition on the line provided.

aggression	General Assembly	suppress
annex	partition	truce
bloc	province	United Nations (UN)
condemn	Security Council	veto
defied		

- _____ 1. an organization of nations that works for peace and tries to solve world problems
- _____ 2. to increase a nation's borders or land by taking control of a foreign territory, state, or nation
- _____ 3. the division of a country into two or more parts
- _____ 4. to reject or refuse to approve
- _____ 5. hostile, unprovoked action
- _____ 6. body of the United Nations made up of five permanent member nations and 10 other countries
- _____ 7. agreement to stop fighting
- _____ 8. a group united for common action
- _____ 9. opposed or challenged boldly
- _____ 10. put an end to
- _____ 11. to be against or to disapprove of
- _____ 12. the main body of the United Nations
- _____ 13. one of the parts a country is divided into; territory



Practice

Match each description with the correct item. Write the letter on the line provided.


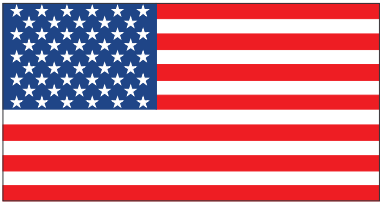
- | | | |
|-----------|---|----------------|
| _____ 1. | the policy of segregation and discrimination against non-European groups in the Republic of South Africa from 1948 to the early 1990s | A. apartheid |
| _____ 2. | a measure used to punish a specific action | B. ban |
| _____ 3. | the act of entering and trying to conquer a territory | C. cease |
| _____ 4. | groups who use violence to intimidate a government into granting their demands | D. invasion |
| _____ 5. | to prohibit | E. negotiation |
| _____ 6. | formal decision or conclusion | F. racist |
| _____ 7. | based on prejudice against people because of the race they belong to | G. refugee |
| _____ 8. | to stop | H. resolution |
| _____ 9. | working out or settling upon by meetings and agreements or compromises | I. sanction |
| _____ 10. | a person who flees to a foreign country to escape danger | J. terrorists |



The Cold War

At the end of World War II, the United States and Soviet Union were the two most powerful countries in the world. Their wartime **alliance**, however, had ended. Conflicting **ideologies** and distrust divided the former **allies** and soon led to increased tensions between the two countries. These two countries, or *superpowers*, began a struggle to influence other countries around the world. The Soviet Union wanted to spread **communism** and also create a defensive **buffer zone** of friendly governments between itself and Germany. Germany had invaded Russia during both World War I and World War II. The United States wanted other countries to have free elections and to develop democratic governments. In this conflict, the two nations did not use military force against one another. Instead, this was a war of *ideas*. The state of tension and hostility that existed between the United States and the Soviet Union was called the *Cold War*.

The Cold War

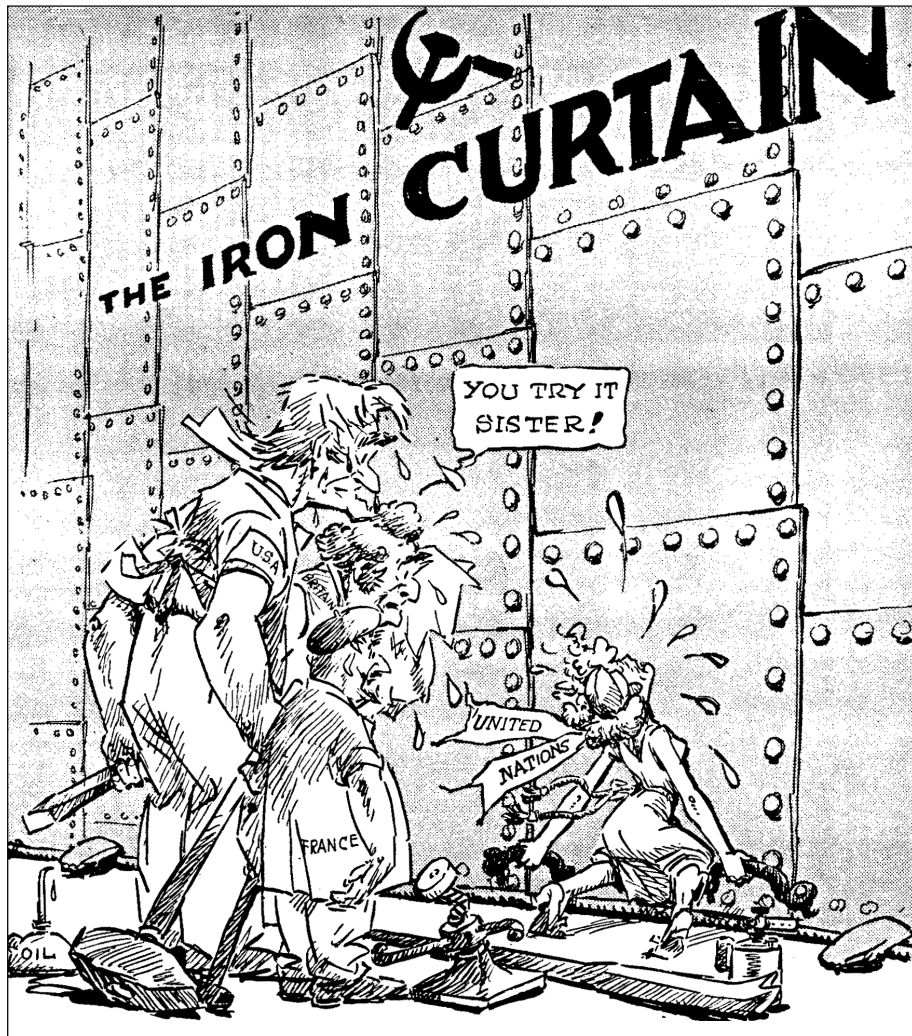
 <p>The Soviet Union wanted to spread communism.</p>	<p>The two countries did not use military force, since this was a war of ideas.</p>	 <p>The United States wanted other countries to develop democratic governments.</p>
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The Iron Curtain Goes Up

In March of 1946, Winston Churchill described the political barrier between Eastern and Western Europe: “An *iron curtain* has descended across the continents.” The Soviet Union controlled almost every nation to the east of the **Iron Curtain**, which was an imaginary line separating Communist and non-Communist countries that could never be crossed. This included most of Eastern Europe and part of Germany. Churchill also warned that the Soviets would try to push their Iron Curtain farther west. Churchill felt that unless they were stopped, the Soviets would try to take over Western Europe and Southern Europe (mainly Greece and Turkey), as well. Churchill’s belief was correct. Presidents Truman and Eisenhower, however, took action that prevented the Soviets from taking Greece and



Turkey. Both presidents told the Soviets that the United States would take military action if the Soviet Union tried to expand into Southern Europe. The policy of *halting* or *stopping* the spread of Communist influence was known as **containment**.



The conflict between the United States and the Soviet Union developed gradually. Each side tried to win over other countries to their way of government. Both the United States and the Soviet Union built many nuclear weapons, which they pointed at each other. The Cold War lasted from the end of World War II until 1989, when Soviet Communism ended and the Berlin Wall was torn down.

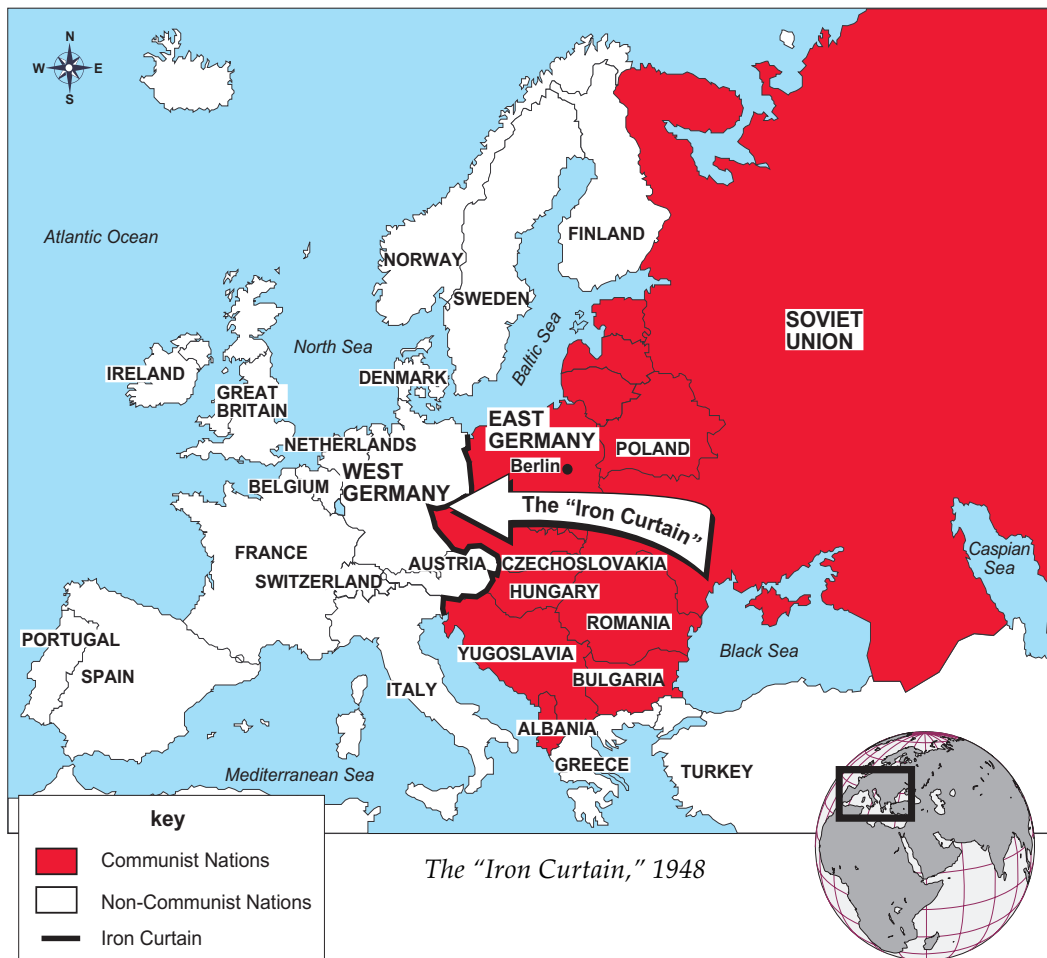
Courtesy of the J. N. "Ding" Darling Foundation



The Truman Doctrine of 1947

In 1947 the Soviet Union put pressure on Greece and Turkey. Greece was under attack from Soviet-backed Communist rebels. Turkey was being forced to grant control of the Dardanelles, which is the body of water connecting the Black Sea and the Mediterranean.

President Truman wanted to prevent the spread of Communist influence in the eastern Mediterranean. On March 12, 1947, he announced that it must be the policy of the United States to support free peoples against direct and indirect Communist *aggression*. This policy became known as the **Truman Doctrine**. The United States sent military and economic aid to Greece and Turkey so that they could resist the Communist threat. The *Truman Doctrine* worked well because it helped *contain* communism. The doctrine helped to limit communism to areas already under Soviet control.





The Marshall Plan (1948-1951)

Secretary of State George C. Marshall created a massive economic assistance plan to help all European nations recover from the destruction of World War II. Marshall believed that economic aid to war-torn Europe would strengthen democratic governments and help countries rebuild their economies. Billions of dollars spent on the rapid recovery of European nations helped to reduce the risk of Communist influence. The **Marshall Plan** aided most of the non-Communist nations of Europe. President Truman also offered aid to the Soviet Union and Eastern Europe, but Stalin *prohibited* Eastern European nations from accepting American aid. He promised that the Soviet Union would give them economic assistance.

Military Alliances

The North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO) of 1949. Increased tensions between the superpowers and several Soviet acts of aggression led the free nations of Europe to form a defensive military alliance called the **North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO)** in April 1949. The United States, Great Britain, France, Belgium, the Netherlands, Italy, Luxembourg, Portugal, Denmark, Iceland, Norway, and Canada were the original members. In 1952 Turkey and Greece joined, and in 1955 West Germany joined. Members of the NATO alliance agreed to help one another in the event that any one of them was attacked. An attack on one would be considered an attack on all. In 1950 the member nations created a NATO army. Throughout the Cold War, NATO successfully stopped the Soviets from taking any acts of aggression in Western Europe. During the 1980s, the United States stationed more than 300,000 military personnel in Europe and supplied vast quantities of weapons to support NATO.

Warsaw Pact of 1955. In response to the creation of NATO, the Soviet Union and its Eastern European allies formed its own military alliance known as the **Warsaw Pact**. Member nations included the Soviet Union, Albania, Bulgaria, Czechoslovakia, East Germany, Hungary, Poland, and Romania. Its main purpose was to strengthen the Soviet Union's hold over Eastern European countries and to defend them. As a result of these alliances, Europe was again divided into hostile alliance systems as it was before World War I. In 1956 Soviet troops stationed in Hungary were used to suppress a rebellion there. In 1968, the Soviets used the treaty to justify invading Czechoslovakia when its government introduced liberal reforms.



Both the *Warsaw Pact* and the NATO alliance reached a major turning point in 1991. The system of alliances in opposition—with NATO in Western Europe opposing Warsaw Pact members in the East—was abandoned. With the end of the Cold War, NATO members decided to cut the overall size of their militaries and retain a much smaller military force. The Warsaw Pact was dissolved in March 1991 by mutual consent of the Soviet Union and the five Eastern European member nations.

The Arms Race

Both superpowers competed to strengthen their weapons systems. For a while, the United States had the advantage because it had the technology for producing the *atomic bomb*. By 1949 the Soviets had also developed their own atomic bomb. The **arms race** began as each side raced to arm itself to withstand an attack from the other. Over the course of four decades, the superpowers spent billions of dollars developing deadly nuclear weapons capable of mass destruction.



The arms race began as the United States and the Soviets raced to arm themselves to withstand an attack from the other.

The First Crisis between the Superpowers: The Berlin Airlift

In Germany, the Soviet Union tried to cut off West Berlin from the rest of West Germany. The Soviets blocked all roads to Berlin so its people could not receive food or other supplies. President Truman responded by ordering the army to fly supplies to the people of West Berlin. In the end, the Soviets backed down and reopened the roads. The Berlin Blockade and the resulting 1948 **Berlin Airlift** was the first major crisis between the Soviet Union and the United States since the end of World War II. It marked the beginning of the *Cold War*: a state of tension and hostility between the superpowers.

The Superpowers Use Propaganda in the Cold War

The Cold War was a war of **propaganda**. *Propaganda* is the spreading of ideas intended to influence people's beliefs or attitudes to promote a given cause or damage an opposing cause. Both sides in the Cold War tried to look good to other parts of the world. The United States promoted **capitalism** and **democracy** against *communism* and **totalitarianism**. The



Soviet Union claimed to support the rights of the weak in the struggle against Western **imperialism**. Both sides sought world power. Later, the United States and the Soviet Union took sides in wars involving the people of Asia and of Africa. Soviet and American soldiers did not actually shoot at each other. Instead, the two sides gave weapons to the local people. Since the end of World War II, Soviet and American weapons have been used by the soldiers of Vietnam, Central America, the Middle East, and Afghanistan. At times, United States or Soviet soldiers have fought directly in foreign countries. American soldiers fought in Vietnam and Soviet soldiers in Afghanistan.

The Cold War Stays Hot through the '60s, '70s, and '80s

Even though relations between the Soviet Union and the United States eventually improved, the Cold War continued until the early 1990s. Rivalries between the superpowers not only divided Europe but also spread around the world. During the late 1960s and 1970s, conflicts in Southeast Asia, Afghanistan, and Poland kept the Cold War alive. In the 1980s, President Ronald Reagan let the Soviet government know that the United States would defend communism and not sit back and watch as Soviets tried to spread communism around the world. One of the most important duties of every American president is to ensure that the United States military can preserve, protect, and defend the United States. The Soviet Union built up a powerful navy and placed warships in major oceans of the world. The United States, in response, began a major military buildup and would continue to build its defenses as long as the Soviets refused to talk peace.

The Cold War Begins to Cool Down

In 1985 Mikhail Gorbachev became the new Soviet leader. He began to restructure the Soviet government. He also began to reduce Cold War tensions. In 1987 Gorbachev and Reagan signed the *Intermediate Nuclear Force Treaty* calling for a reduction of American and Soviet long-range nuclear missiles.

Gorbachev took other steps to improve relations with the *Free World*. In 1988 he reduced the Soviet military and pulled Soviet troops out of Afghanistan. In addition, Gorbachev did *not* use Soviet troops to prevent the overthrow of Communist governments in the Warsaw Pact countries during 1989.



Mikhail Gorbachev



In 1989 George H. W. Bush became president of the United States. In response to Gorbachev's actions, Bush began to cut the size of the American military. The two leaders also met to work on new arms control agreements.



President George H. W. Bush

In the early 1990s, the Soviet Union began to crumble because of food shortages and its inefficient systems for producing and distributing consumer goods. Dissent threatened Soviet unity and eventually led to the collapse of the Soviet Union and of communism in Eastern Europe. In 1991 hard-line Communists staged an unsuccessful coup against Gorbachev.

One by one the 15 member republics of the former Soviet Union broke away and declared their independence. After 11 of the former Soviet republics created the *Commonwealth of Independent States* (CIS) in December of 1991, President Gorbachev resigned, and the Soviet Union ceased to exist. These startling changes in the Soviet Union signaled the end of the 45-year Cold War.

European Unity

After World War II, the countries of Western Europe realized that to promote free trade within Europe, they would have to cooperate with each other. As a result, in 1957 six Western European countries—Belgium, France, Italy, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, and West Germany—set up the *European Economic Community* (EEC) or *Common Market*. The purpose of the Common Market was to help member nations improve their economies through trade. They agreed to remove all trade barriers to the movement of goods, services, and money among member nations.

The Common Market benefited member nations by reducing the threat of conflict and by helping them to pursue cooperative technological programs in nuclear energy and space research. The Common Market enabled Europe to compete with North America and Asia in world markets on an equal basis.

Great Britain twice applied for Common Market membership but this was vetoed by France under President de Gaulle in the 1960s. France saw Great Britain as a threat to its leadership role in Europe. After de Gaulle's retirement, Great Britain was admitted in 1973. Five other European nations joined during the 1970s and 1980s: Ireland, Denmark, Greece, Spain, and Portugal. By 1986 there were 12 member nations of the



European Community (EC). When East and West Germany were reunited in 1990, EC further expanded its economic influence. In the 1980s and 1990s, EC countries wanted to further promote economic ties with each other. The *Treaty of European Union*, also known as the *Maastricht Treaty*, was a means by which to create a true economic and monetary union of all EC members. On January 1, 1994, the European Community became the *European Union* (EU). The EU wanted a common currency and to extend cooperation among its members in such areas as defense policy, immigration, and crime. By 1995 Austria, Sweden, and Finland joined the EU, increasing membership to 15. Plans to include some former Communist countries of Eastern Europe were underway.

In 1999 the EU created an *Economic and Monetary Union* (EMU). Its main goal was to create a common currency known as the *euro* and a central bank for all EU nations. On January 1, 1999, the EMU introduced the euro as the common currency for all the member countries. Twelve of the 15 EU nations adopted the euro as their nation's currency on January 1, 2002. In 2004 the EU expanded southward and eastward to include (the Greek part of) Cyprus, the Czech Republic, Estonia, Hungary, Latvia, Lithuania, Malta, Poland, Slovakia, and Slovenia. By 2020 the national currencies of participating member states will cease to exist.

Expansion and Constitution

In February of 2002, representatives of EU member nations met in Brussels to present the draft of a new constitution for the EU. The document consolidated many of the existing EU treaties. It also included a bill of rights, a single foreign minister, and majority voting in many policy areas such as energy, agriculture, immigration, and criminal law to deal with terrorism, corruption, and fraud. In 2005, despite support for the constitution by their government leaders, voters in both France and the Netherlands soundly defeated the constitution.

Many opponents to the EU constitution voted “no” because they feared a loss of national identity and sovereignty. Others worried that competition between EU nations would result in job migration to eastern Europe. Since approval of the EU constitution requires a unanimous vote, many believe it is unlikely that the constitution will be approved any time soon.



Practice

Answer the following using complete sentences.

1. Following World War II, why was the “war” between the United States and the Soviet Union called the *Cold War*? _____

2. What warning did Winston Churchill give the Americans after World War II? _____

3. Explain how each of the following helped to halt the spread of communism in Europe.

Truman Doctrine: _____

Marshall Plan: _____

NATO: _____



4. What was the first major crisis of the Cold War? _____

5. To what two countries did the United States and the Soviet Union send soldiers in the 1960s to 1990s? _____

6. What events led to the end of the Cold War? _____

7. What is the purpose of the Maastricht Treaty? _____

8. What are the goals of the European Union (EU)? _____



Practice

Look at the post-World War II map of Europe on the following page. Label the countries. Shade in the areas of the map to show which nations were under Communist control. Cross out each country on the list as you label it on the map.

Albania	East Germany	Netherlands	Spain
Austria	France	Poland	Switzerland
Belgium	Greece	Portugal	Turkey
Bulgaria	Hungary	Romania	West Germany
Czechoslovakia	Italy	Soviet Union	Yugoslavia
Denmark	Luxembourg		





Practice

Use the list below to write the correct term for each definition on the line provided.

alliance	containment	NATO
allies	ideology	reform
buffer zone	Iron Curtain	Truman Doctrine
communism	Marshall Plan	

- _____ 1. an imaginary line separating the Communist and non-Communist countries in Europe
- _____ 2. nations or persons that join together for a specific purpose
- _____ 3. United States foreign policy to support countries resisting communism after World War II
- _____ 4. the means of production and distribution are owned and controlled by the state
- _____ 5. alliance between United States and 11 Western European nations to protect one another, particularly from threat of communism
- _____ 6. United States policy designed to prevent the spread of communism
- _____ 7. an agreement between countries, groups, or people to work together
- _____ 8. a program that sent economic aid to war-torn European countries after World War II; also called *European Recovery Program* (ERP)
- _____ 9. region that lies between two rival countries, cutting down threat of conflict
- _____ 10. a system of beliefs and attitudes that guide the actions of a group or nation
- _____ 11. change made for the better



Practice

Match each definition with the correct term. Write the letter on the line provided.

- | | | |
|----------|---|--------------------|
| _____ 1. | the practice of establishing colonies; extending the rule of one country over other countries or colonies | A. arms race |
| _____ 2. | mutual defence agreement signed in 1955 by the Soviet Union and seven neighboring Communist countries; dissolved in 1991 | B. Berlin Airlift |
| _____ 3. | a rivalry among nations to gain the greatest military power; the Cold War competition between the United States and the Soviet Union to build up their armed forces and weapons | C. capitalism |
| _____ 4. | in 1948 the United States flew supplies into West Berlin to break the Soviet blockade of roads and waterways leading into the city | D. democracy |
| _____ 5. | a political system in which the government has total control over the lives of individual citizens | E. imperialism |
| _____ 6. | an economic system in which land, factories, and other means of producing goods are privately owned and controlled by an individual or groups of individuals for a profit | F. propaganda |
| _____ 7. | information designed to convince people of certain beliefs or ideas | G. totalitarianism |
| _____ 8. | a system of government in which power comes from the people | H. Warsaw Pact |



Political Changes in Western Europe

Following World War II, the Allied nations faced many difficult questions. What, for example, should be done with Germany? Germany was now a country with no government and had been destroyed by the war. What about Austria, Poland, and Czechoslovakia, countries that had been taken over by Germany during the war? Even France faced a difficult rebuilding period. Its government had been forced out when Germany occupied France. Like so many countries in Europe, France had also lost most of its industry during the fighting. Who would decide the answers to these questions? How would war-torn European nations begin to rebuild?

France: The Fourth and Fifth Republics

After the war, Charles de Gaulle became the leading political figure in France. He helped set up a democratic government known as the *Fourth French Republic* on December 24, 1946. The Fourth French Republic, however, was never stable. The National Assembly was strengthened, while the presidency was weakened. Different political parties wanted power. No single political party or leader could gather enough strength to rule France for more than a few months.

Coalitions (or *temporary alliances of several parties*) were formed. When these parties disagreed, a new government had to be formed. The Fourth French Republic lasted from 1946 to 1958. The threat of civil war in the French African **colony** of Algeria led to the downfall of France's weak Fourth Republic. In 1958, Charles de Gaulle helped to set up the *Fifth French Republic*. Under the Fifth French Republic, the French people elected a president for a term of seven years. The presidency was strengthened, and the National Assembly's powers were reduced. De Gaulle became the first president of the Fifth Republic on December 21, 1958.



France



A major problem facing postwar France was the breakup of its colonial empire. France's Asian and African colonies wanted their independence. For many years, the French Empire had included territory in Southeast Asia and North Africa. France resisted the independence movements in many of its colonies. It fought and lost bloody wars in North Africa and Indochina. In the end, however, these countries won their independence from France. In 1954 France lost its hold on Indochina. Indochina eventually was split into Laos, Cambodia, and Vietnam.

In North Africa, France controlled Morocco and Tunisia. These countries gained their independence in 1956. French West Africa was partitioned, and the new nations were given independence in 1960. France was less willing to give up its hold on Algeria. Algerian Nationalists won a seven-year-long war with France in 1962, and Algeria became an independent nation. After the loss of France's colonial empire, de Gaulle worked to expand France's cultural and economic influence throughout Europe. He angered other European countries and the United States when he withdrew French troops from NATO in 1967.

In 1968 de Gaulle's government was weakened when French students rioted and factory workers went on **strike** in protest against economic and social problems. De Gaulle resigned in 1969 when his plans to *reform* the economy were defeated by a popular vote. Throughout the 1970s, right-wing pro-business parties dominated French politics. However, at the same time, opposition parties grew in strength and number. The worsening conditions in France's economy led to a shift to the left. In 1981 the French people elected a Socialist president, François Mitterrand. Mitterrand began to **nationalize** more industries—that is, to put industries under government control—and to introduce new social reforms. He froze prices and wages in order to reduce the large budget deficit and high **inflation**. Minimum wages were increased, and higher taxes were placed on the rich.

The Socialists' policies during Mitterrand's first two years created even more economic problems for France. Support for Socialist policies began to decline. Eventually, the government returned some control of the economy to private business. France's economy continued to decline. The unemployment rate in 1993 was greater than 10 percent. In elections held that year, Socialists won only 28 percent of the vote. The Conservative coalition continued to gain support. In 1995, Jacques Chirac, a Conservative, won the presidency. His government worked to reduce France's high unemployment rate and improve the French economy.



Elections for the National Assembly in 1997 gave the Socialist coalition a majority. France caused widespread international protests when it resumed nuclear testing in the South Pacific. In January 1999, France adopted the *euro* as its currency.

France

In 2002, Jacques Chirac won reelection by a landslide. He declared that his top priority for his country was to reduce its 10 percent unemployment rate and France's chronic youth unemployment rate of 22 percent, which is more than twice the national average. In 2003, Chirac was a leading voice against the United States-led invasion of Iraq. He threatened to veto a resolution in the UN Security Council that would authorize the use of military force to rid Iraq of its alleged weapons of mass destruction. "Iraq today does not represent an immediate threat that justifies an immediate war," claimed Chirac. (See Unit 11.)

Chirac did not run again in 2007. His authority was weakened by the "no" vote of the EU constitution. It was also weakened by the protests in Paris against the new employment laws and the violent suburban riots involving thousands of North African **immigrants** who complained of widespread discrimination and unemployment.

Italy Declares Itself a Republic

After Benito Mussolini fell from power, he was arrested and shot, then hung as a war criminal on April 28, 1945. In June 1946, Italy rejected its **monarchy** and set up a parliamentary government and declared itself a **republic**. Unlike France, where the president has the most power, in Italy the prime minister (the leader of the most popular political party) runs the government. Although many different political parties existed, two stood out: the moderate conservative *Christian Democrats* and the *Communists*. In the

1960s, Italy became a major industrial power. In the 1970s, however, Italy suffered from high unemployment and *inflation*. Voters began to blame the ruling Christian Democrats. They had been in office since the 1960s.



Italy



Socialists and Communists began to gain strength. An outbreak of terrorist activities by the left-wing *Red Brigade* threatened the stability of Italy in the 1970s. By the 1980s, the terrorist groups were brought under control.

By the mid-1980s, Italy's government was run by a group of political parties operating as a *coalition government*. By the late 1980s, the Communist Party had gained enough support to influence the coalition government. Scandals brought the long rule of the Christian Democrats to an end. In 1993 a political scandal involving the Italian Mafia linked many high-ranking political officials in the Italian government to organized crime. This and other scandals led to the collapse of the old political parties. In the 1990s, a political party known as the *National Alliance* was formed. This *neo-Fascist* party, although small, was seen as evidence of a revival of Fascism. In 1996 Italians elected a government controlled by a center-left coalition for the first time since the creation of the Italian Republic.

Germany and the Nuremberg Trials

After the war, the Allies captured 22 surviving leaders of the Nazi Third Reich and charged them with “crimes against humanity”—the murder of 11 million people—and “crimes against peace.” The Führer, Adolf Hitler, SS chief Heinrich Himmler, and the Minister of Propaganda, Joseph Goebbels, had escaped trial by committing suicide. Other Nazi leaders made successful escapes. It is said that many war criminals fled to South America. Those charged with war crimes were tried in 1946 by an International Military Tribunal representing 23 nations in the south German town of Nuremberg, where Hitler had staged mass rallies in the 1930s. The *Nuremberg Trials* were publicized around the world. Twelve of the leading Nazis were sentenced to death. Seven Nazi leaders received long prison sentences, and three were *acquitted* (or *found not guilty*).



*Führer Adolf Hitler
escaped trial by
committing suicide.*

Courtesy of the United States
Holocaust Memorial Museum
(USHMM) Photo Archives



The testimony went on for 10 months. It revealed evidence of slave labor, medical experimentation on human beings, forced starvation, and mass murder. Trials of less important Nazi officials, such as guards at concentration camps, German military officers, and doctors who conducted medical experiments, continue to this day. Similar trials took place in Japan and Italy.

Germany: A Nation Divided

After the war, the Allies (Great Britain, France, the United States, and the Soviet Union) divided Germany into four zones of occupation. The Soviet zone became known as the *German Democratic Republic* (GDR), more commonly called *East Germany*. The remaining three zones were divided among and occupied by the Western Allies, the United States, France, and Great Britain. These three zones became known as the *Federal Republic of Germany* (FRG), or *West Germany*. After a period of time, occupation forces in West Germany turned over control of West Germany to the Germans. Free elections for local governments were held in the Western zones. East Germany remained under Soviet control. The Allies wanted to unite East Germany and West Germany. The Soviet Union, however, feared a strong, unified Germany and objected to the *unification* plan.

The Berlin Blockade (1948-1949)

Although the city of Berlin was located in the Soviet-controlled GDR, it too was divided among the four Allied countries. In an attempt to force the Western Allies to change their policy on a unified Germany, the Soviets blocked all land routes across the Soviet-occupied zone leading to West Berlin in June 1948. If no supplies could get in, West Berlin would be faced with starvation. President Truman of the United States and the leaders of Great Britain were having none of this. The United States and Great Britain organized a massive airlift to give the two million West Berliners food, medicine, and the necessities of life. Airplanes landed every three minutes in West Berlin. At its height, 13,000 tons of supplies were flown daily to West Berlin. The *Berlin Airlift* worked. The Soviets could not halt the airlift, except by shooting down Allied planes. They knew that shooting down Allied planes would have led to all-out war. Eleven months later, on May 12, 1949, the Soviet **blockade** of Berlin was lifted. Germany and Berlin remained split into East and West for many years, with West Berlin isolated deep inside Communist territory.



The Berlin Wall: An Ugly Symbol of the Cold War

Between 1949 and 1961, three million East Germans fled to West Germany.



A view looking up at the Berlin Wall.

Most of these people escaped by going from East Berlin to West Berlin. Life in East Germany was bleak. Whole blocks of bombed-out buildings stood as reminders of the war. East German stores and markets had few consumer goods. Meat and fresh vegetables were scarce. In contrast, the standard of living in West Berlin and West Germany had improved steadily.

In August of 1961, West Berliners awoke to the sound of East German and Soviet soldiers building a wall to separate the two sections of the city. The **Berlin Wall** was a 28-mile-long wall of concrete topped with barbed wire and patrolled by guards. It was built to keep East Berliners from fleeing to the West. The Berlin Wall stopped the flow of East Germans fleeing communism, but it intensified the East-West tensions. It became a symbol of the Cold War and of the hostility between democracy and communism.



The Division of Germany into Four Zones of Occupation, 1945



The Two Germanies

West Germany: The Economic Miracle. The Federal Republic of Germany (West Germany) was founded on May 23, 1949, with its capital at Bonn. During the postwar years, West Germany rapidly rebuilt its economy and became the industrial giant of Western Europe. A massive rebuilding program resulted in the rebuilding of its cities, factories, and trade. A welfare state similar to that of Great Britain was created. In 1949 West Germany's government was led by a strong leader, Konrad Adenauer. Two political parties, known as the Christian Democrats and the Social Democrats, dominated its democratic political system. During the Adenauer years, West Germany joined NATO and established its own army. Adenauer retired in 1963 and was succeeded as chancellor, the *chief minister of state*, by Ludwig Erhard until 1966. During the late 1960s, the Social Democrats, a moderate Socialist Party led by Willy Brandt, came to power.

Chancellor Brandt focused on easing tensions with the Communist nations in Eastern Europe, while still keeping close ties to the Western democracies. His policy, known as *Ostpolitik* or *Eastern policy*, resulted in West Germany reaching agreements to normalize relations with the Soviet Union and Poland in 1972. Diplomatic ties were also established between West and East Germany in 1973. Succeeding Brandt in 1974 was the moderate Social Democrat Helmut Schmidt. Schmidt, a strong supporter of the United States, backed the United States strategy of placing nuclear missiles in West Germany as a means of pressuring the Soviets to reduce its arsenal of missiles.

East Germany: Could Not Keep Pace Economically. The Soviet-occupied East German states became the *Democratic Republic of Germany* on October 7, 1949. Although the Soviets eventually dissolved its **occupation zone**, Soviet troops remained in East Germany. The Soviet Union had created a state controlled by the secret police with a single party known as the *Socialist Unity (Communist) Party*. The East German people resented Soviet control. Under the East German leader Walter Ulbricht, attempts were made to control agriculture and expand industrial development through **collectivism**.

In June of 1953, shortly after Stalin's death, East Berlin workers protested increased work quotas. They started a demonstration that led to an anti-Communist riot of 20,000 to 50,000 people. When the demonstrations



became a general strike involving 200,000 protestors, Soviet troops and tanks put down the revolt. In the years that followed, many East Germans **migrated** to the West through West Berlin. Many of these *immigrants* were



Many East Germans died trying to scale the Berlin Wall.

well-educated professionals attracted by West Germany's higher standard of living and greater freedoms. The *Berlin Wall* slowed the flood of immigrants into West Berlin. In order to escape to the West, East Germans had to survive mined trenches, guard dogs, and armed soldiers. Several East Germans made heroic escapes, but many more died trying to scale the Berlin Wall. During the decades that

followed, East Germany's standard of living could not keep pace with the thriving West German economy. During the 1970s, the two Germanies grew closer economically through increased trade. By 1973 normal relations were established between East and West Germany, and the two states entered the United Nations.

German Unification



Germany today

In 1982 Helmut Kohl of the Christian Democrat Party became chancellor of West Germany. Kohl, like many former German chancellors, wanted the two Germanies to reunite as one country. Since 1972 the two Germanies had been forming economic ties. By the 1980s, they were actively trading. In 1989 Communist governments in many Eastern European nations began to crumble. As political and economic troubles increased, the Communist government in East Germany was forced out of office. The Berlin Wall was torn down, and Germans began to plan the *reunification* of



their country. West German Chancellor Helmut Kohl helped organize free elections in East Germany and open East Germany's economy to a **free enterprise system** or *free market economy*. In March of 1990, East Germany held its first democratic elections. Formal unification took place on October 3, 1990. Helmut Kohl was elected chancellor of the newly united country.

Problems for the New Germany

While many Germans accepted German unification, few realized the serious problems that would have to be overcome. West Germans would have to pay higher taxes to finance the rebuilding of East Germany. The collapse of the economy in East Germany caused high unemployment. East Germans faced a long and difficult transition to a *free market economy*. Discontent with Eastern Germany's economy has led to the rise of several right-wing extremist political groups that support *neo-Nazi* ideas. Immigrants and foreign workers in Germany have become the targets of vicious attacks and racial hatred. With a record number of refugees seeking shelter in Germany, some Germans began to see foreigners as competitors for scarce jobs. Many of these neo-Nazis believe in Hitler's ideas of a pure Aryan race. Most Germans, however, have condemned their actions.

Germany Today

On September 27, 1998, Germans chose Social Democrat Gerhard Schröder as chancellor over Christian Democrat Helmut Kohl. This ended Kohl's 16-year-long rule. Schröder promised to reduce Germany's high unemployment rate of 10.6 percent. In September 1999, the German Parliament returned to its historic capital of Berlin. Germany joined other NATO countries in the military conflict in Kosovo in 1999. Before the crisis in Kosovo, Germans had not participated in an armed conflict since World War II. German troops were also sent to Afghanistan as part of NATO operations.

Gerhard Schröder was reelected as Chancellor of Germany in 2002 largely because of his opposition to the United States-led invasion of Iraq. (See Unit 11.) However, over time, his popularity declined because of Germany's high unemployment rate and the unpopularity of his tax reforms. In the 2005 election, Angela Merkel of the Christian Democratic Union party was elected Chancellor.



Great Britain: The Postwar Period

After World War II, Great Britain declined as a world power. During the 1950s and 1960s, many of its Asian and African colonies became independent. World War II had weakened the British economy. In the postwar years, British industries were too outdated and inefficient to compete on the world market with those of the United States and with the other European nations.

In 1945 Winston Churchill and the *Conservative Party* were replaced by the *Labour Party*. The new government formed by Clement Attlee focused on improving the economy. The Labour Party followed a moderate Socialist program. They nationalized the major industries, and greater freedoms were given to labor unions to strike and participate in politics. Britain created a *social welfare state*, a series of government programs that provide for the well-being of its citizens. Social security, free medical health benefits, and free public education were introduced by the government.

As the economy improved in the 1950s, the Conservative Party returned to power and ruled until 1964. The Conservatives lessened the government's control over the economy but did not eliminate the Social Welfare Programs established by the Labour Party. Between 1964 and 1979, the Conservative and Labour parties alternately controlled the government of Great Britain.

The Monarchy

The British Monarchy, which had endured since William the Conqueror, has remained an important symbol of traditional British values. When George VI died on February 6, 1952, he was succeeded by his daughter, Elizabeth II. While many Britons support the monarchy, some believe that it has outlived its usefulness with its attention to past glories and its failure to let go of an outdated class system. In recent years, the monarchy has been troubled by scandals. The divorces of Prince Charles, the future king, and his brother Prince Andrew, have caused speculation about the future of Britain's monarchy.

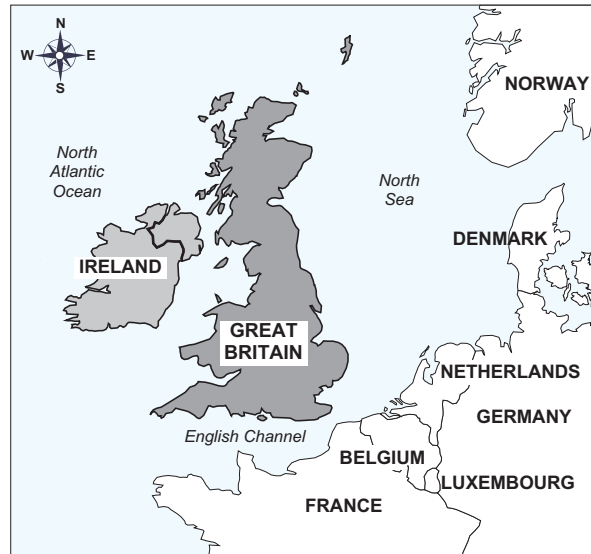


Queen Elizabeth II



“The Troubles” in Northern Ireland

From 1966 to 1969, rioting and street fighting broke out between Protestants and Catholics in Northern Ireland. When the British government established direct rule over Northern Ireland in 1972, the *Irish Republican Army (IRA)* began a series of terrorist acts. Both religious communities, Catholic and Protestant, became hostile armed camps. The goal of the IRA was to unite the British province of Northern Ireland with the Republic of Ireland in the south. The Protestants have remained loyal to the United Kingdom. The problems in Northern Ireland have not been solved. Riots, sniper fire, and terrorist attacks killed more than 3,200 people between 1969 to 1998. The Irish call their civil war “The Troubles.” During the 1990s, numerous attempts at a peaceful resolution to hostilities in Northern Ireland failed. In December 1998, the rival Northern Ireland politicians agreed on the organization of a new coalition government, but in June 1999, the peace process ended when the IRA refused to disarm. One year later, the peace process had begun again, and rival leaders were trying to reactivate the peace process.



Ireland and Great Britain

Great Britain under Margaret Thatcher

Margaret Thatcher became Britain’s first female prime minister as the Conservative Party won power on May 3, 1979. Thatcher’s government promised to lower taxes, to reduce government bureaucracy, and to end inflation. During her three consecutive terms as prime minister, the “Iron Lady,” as Thatcher was called, made some improvements to the British economy.

Britain’s major industries still lagged behind the rest of Europe. High unemployment still plagued Britain. In 1982 Britain went to war with Argentina over control of the Falkland Islands, one of the few remaining British colonies, located off the coast of Argentina.



The British victory in the Falkland War brought the Thatcher government strong patriotic support. The Conservatives dominated British politics throughout the 1980s. In 1990, the Conservatives began losing the support of the people when they tried to impose a flat-rate tax. Many argued that this tax would enable the rich to pay the same rate of tax as the poor. When an anti-tax riot broke out in 1990, Thatcher fell from power. She resigned as prime minister in



John Major

November 1990. John Major, a fellow Conservative, formed a new government that lasted until 1997. After 18 years of Conservative rule, Tony Blair and the Labour Party came to power in a landslide election on May 1, 1997. Blair produced constitutional *reforms* or *changes* that partially *decentralized* or *spread out* the United Kingdom's government, leading to the formation of separate Parliaments in Wales and Scotland in 1999. As part of this decentralization, in July 1997, the British colony of Hong Kong was returned to China.

Tony Blair's government actively pursued peace talks with the IRA until talks fell apart in 1999. The British have also taken an active role in foreign affairs. In December 1998, the British launched airstrikes against Iraq after Saddam Hussein **expelled** (or *forced out*) UN arms inspectors.

Great Britain under Tony Blair

After the September 11, 2001 attacks on New York and Washington, Tony Blair's government has been focused on the United States-led "War on Terror." As a close ally of the United States, the Blair government sent British troops to participate in the Afghanistan war since 2001 and in Iraq since 2003. (See Unit 11.)

In 2004, Blair decided to seek a third term of office but not a fourth. Serious problems concerning the **intelligence** accounts, or the gathering of the secret information, used to justify Britain's role in the unpopular Iraqi war have led to a general decline in his popularity among the British people. Many British think a terrorist attack in London in July of 2005 stemmed from Britain's role in the Iraqi war. In the spring of 1999, Great Britain participated in NATO operations in Kosovo. In June of 2007, Blair resigned from his job as leader of the Labour Party after 10 years in office. Blair was an important ally to the United States.



Spain

Following the death of Francisco Franco in 1975, who was dictator for 35 years, Spain moved towards establishing democratic institutions. The Spanish monarchy was reinstated with Juan Carlos I becoming Spain's new king. Because Spain is a *constitutional monarchy*, the king is the Head of State. The head of the government is known as the *prime minister*. However, in Spain, the prime minister may also be referred to as *president*. During the 1980s and 1990s, Prime Minister Felipe Gonzalez Marquez and his *Spanish Socialist Workers Party* ruled Spain. After years of **repression** (or *being forcefully controlled*) under the Franco administration, the Spanish government granted home rule to the Basque provinces and other regions of Spain. Nevertheless, Basque separatists continued to seek independence for their provinces. Terrorist bombings and kidnappings continue to the present day. In 2002, two important leaders of the Basque terrorist group Euskadi Ta Azkatasuna (ETA), whose name stands for Basque Homeland and Freedom, were captured. Spanish government officials believe that this would cripple the group, which was responsible for over 800 deaths.

Spain entered NATO in 1982. In 1986 Spain also joined the European Union. In 1996 Spain became a full member of NATO when a coalition of Conservative parties won power. Right before the 2004 elections, 10 bombs exploded on four Madrid commuter trains, killing more than 200 and wounding 1,400. The government blamed ETA, but it later became clear that it was the work of Islamic terrorists. This terrorist act has had a dramatic effect on the outcome of the elections by bringing the Socialists to power, which led to the eventual removal of Spanish troops from Iraq. Prime Minister José Maria Aznar's successor in March 2004 was José Luis Rodriguez Zapatero. (See Unit 11.)

Portugal

After decades of dictatorship, the Portuguese also embraced democracy. Following a 1974 revolution led by the military, the Portuguese eventually had their first free elections in over 50 years. It was during this time that Portugal granted independence to many of its colonies in Asia and Africa.

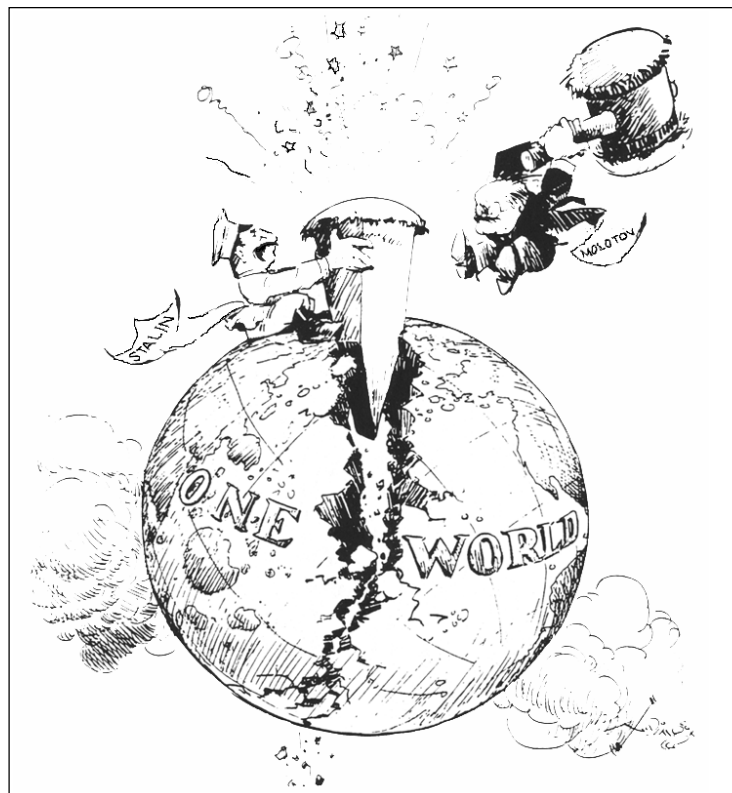
The *Socialist Party*, elected in 1983, focused on solving Portugal's economic problems. However, high unemployment and inflation continued to plague the country for the rest of the decade. Portugal's Socialist government nationalized banking, transportation, and heavy industries. In



January 1986, Portugal was admitted to the European Union. In general elections in January 1996, the Socialist Party, led by Jorge Sampaio, won the race for president. During the late 90s, Portuguese economic conditions showed marked improvement.

Eastern Europe Is Dominated by the Soviet Union

The Soviet army liberated most of the Eastern European countries from the Nazis. However, after World War II, Joseph Stalin decided to keep the Soviet army in many Eastern European countries. Stalin began forcing many Eastern Europeans to live under Communist rule. The countries of Poland, East Germany, Czechoslovakia, Romania, Bulgaria, Hungary, Yugoslavia, and Albania became Communist states within the Soviet Union. The people of these countries could do little to prevent the Soviet Union from setting up Communist governments. These countries were sometimes called *Soviet satellites*. A *satellite* is a country whose policies are dictated or heavily influenced by another country.



This cartoon summarized the post-World War II international situation and the division Stalin and Soviet Prime Minister Molotov created in the world.

Courtesy of the J. N. "Ding" Darling Foundation



Vyacheslav Mikhailovich Molotov (1890-1986)

Molotov was a Russian statesman and prime minister born in Kukaida, Russia. He was foreign minister from 1939-1949 and again from 1953-1956; he was Stalin's chief adviser, and he was present at the founding of the UN (1945). After World War II, he emerged as the tough champion of world Sovietism and supported the Cold War. He resigned in 1956 and was demoted by Nikita Krushchev. His name was given to the Molotov cocktail—a bottle of inflammable liquid used as a weapon—which he put into production during World War II.

Hungary: An Attempt at Democracy

On October 23, 1956, the people of Hungary revolted against their Communist government. Anti-Communist leaders declared Hungary a neutral power, withdrew from the Warsaw Pact, and appealed to the United States for help. The Soviet Union sent tanks and soldiers to put down the rebellion. The revolution was crushed. In 1989 Hungary's Communists abandoned their monopoly on power. A new constitution was amended in October 1999 to allow a multiparty state. Seeking to improve its ties with the West, Hungary startled the Communist world by tearing down the 150 mile barbed-wire barrier separating it from Austria. The last Soviet troops left Hungary in June 1991, ending 47 years of military presence. Hungary has since adopted a democratic government. In April 1999, it became a part of NATO and joined the European Union (EU) in 2004.

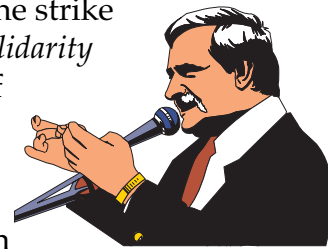
Czechoslovakia: Another Nation Adopts Democracy

In 1968 the people of Czechoslovakia revolted against their Communist government. As with Hungary, the Soviet army marched into Czechoslovakia to crush the rebellion. In the fall of 1989, the first antigovernment demonstrations in 20 years took place. In December 1989, the Communist government collapsed. By New Year's Day, 1990, a non-Communist president, Vaclav Havel, took the oath of office. Havel, a highly respected writer, had played a vital role in bringing down the government. In 1991 a Slovak Nationalist movement led to independence for Slovakia. Czech and Slovak political leaders agreed to separate their states into two fully independent nations. On January 11, 1993, the Czechoslovakian federation was dissolved. The two separate independent countries of the *Czech Republic* and *Slovakia* were established. In March 1999 the Czech Republic joined NATO and, in 2004, the EU.



Poland: The Trade Union *Solidarity* Establishes Free Elections

In the 1970s and 1980s, the people of Poland asked their Communist government for reforms. In 1979 the Polish people's national pride soared when the Roman Catholic Church selected a Pole, John Paul II, as the new Pope. Their national pride soon led the Poles to defy Soviet control of their country. When the Polish Communist government announced another increase in meat prices, protests broke out in several cities. Workers at a shipyard in Poland declared a strike in 1980. The workers shut themselves inside the shipyard and refused to work until the government recognized their union, called **Solidarity**. Both the union and the strike were illegal under Poland's Communist regime. *Solidarity* and its leader, Lech Walesa, received the support of millions of Poles. Even though the Polish government tried to cooperate with *Solidarity*, it was forced by the Soviet Union to punish the rebellious leaders. Thousands of people were put in prison, including Lech Walesa.



Lech Walesa

In an effort to frighten the Polish people, the Soviet Union threatened to invade Poland. In 1988, however, with the Polish economy near ruin, workers went on strike. The public pressure led the failing Communist government to recognize the union *Solidarity* led by Walesa. After elections were held in 1989, *Solidarity* members won nearly half the seats in the legislature. Walesa won the presidential election of 1990 with 74 percent of the vote. In 1991 Poland acquired the first non-Communist government in Eastern Europe since World War II. In the years that followed, Poland's economy suffered high unemployment as reform-minded leaders tried to push for a transition to a free market system.

In the second parliamentary election of September 1993, dissatisfied voters returned power to the ex-Communists. In 1995 Alexander Kwasniewski, a former Communist, defeated Walesa and became the new Polish President. The new president pledged to support democracy and a market economy. By 1997 the *Solidarity Electoral Action*, a coalition of 30 right-wing groups, defeated many of the former Communists. Pope John Paul II last visited Poland in 2002, two years before his death. Poland joined NATO in 1999 and the EU in 2004.

In October 2000, President Kwasniewski won a second term with 56 percent of the vote, avoiding a runoff in Poland's third presidential election since the country shed communism a decade ago. Kwasniewski defeated 11 challengers, including *Solidarity* founder Walesa. After September 11, 2001



attacks, Kwasniewski worked with the leaders of Central, Eastern, and Southern Europe to strengthen their abilities to fight international terrorism. Poland became a strong ally of the United States in the war on terror and sent troops to Iraq. (See Unit 11.) Kwasniewski's term ended in 2005, when he handed over power to his elected successor, the conservative Lech Kaczynski.

Violence in Romania

Communist dictator Nicolae Ceausescu ruled Romania for 24 years. Ceausescu's rule was marked by brutal repression of Romania's ethnic minorities. He violently crushed all opposition to his rule. During his reign (1965-1989), Romania had one of the lowest standards of living in Eastern Europe.

The end of Communist rule in Romania was sudden and violent. In December of 1989, a rebellion led to Ceausescu's overthrow, trial, and execution on Christmas Day. In May 1990, elections were won by the *National Salvation Front*, whose leaders called for a gradual transition to a *free market economy*. Growing dissatisfaction with the government's new economic policies led to continued unrest. Protests and riots by workers, students, and others rocked the country in 1997 and again in 1999.

However, in recent years, Romania has moved toward having closer ties with the West. Romania joined NATO in 2004, and in 2007, became part of the EU.

The Collapse of Yugoslavia

Postwar Yugoslavia was the only Communist state in Eastern Europe to resist Soviet control. Josip Broz Tito, the Yugoslav leader, pursued his own independent form of communism. He held together the different religious and **ethnic groups** in his country until his death in 1980. Yugoslavia, like many other former Communist nations, was caught up in the reform movements sweeping across Eastern Europe. The authority of the Communist Party collapsed. The end of communism led to the release of long-suppressed Nationalist demands for *autonomy* or *self-government*. In 1990 several of Yugoslavia's individual republics—*Slovenia*, *Croatia*, *Bosnia-Herzegovina*, and *Macedonia*—began to seek independence.



Slobodan Milosevic, who objected to the independence movements, became leader of the Yugoslav Republic of *Serbia* in 1987. He wanted new borders drawn up to take care of the Serb minorities in the other republics. These Serb minorities wanted to join their lands to Serbia. In 1981 Serbs made up 32 percent of Bosnia-Herzegovina's population and almost 12 percent of Croatia's population.

When Slovenia and Croatia proclaimed their independence in June 1991, Milosevic sent his Serb-led Yugoslav army into Slovenia and Croatia. Ethnic violence erupted immediately. By the time a cease-fire was arranged, Serbian forces had annexed over one-third of Croatia's territory. UN peacekeeping forces had to patrol the borders between Serb-held and Croat-held areas to keep the peace. In 1993 Serbian armies also conquered 70 percent of Bosnia's territory. The Serbian military adopted a policy of **ethnic cleansing**—*the killing or forced removal of an ethnic group from their homeland*—against Bosnian Muslims. Ethnic cleansing resulted in 250,000 Bosnian civilians being killed and more than two million driven from their homes in 1995. NATO airstrikes against the Serbian forces weakened the Serbian armies and eventually led both sides to negotiate a peace settlement. A formal treaty was signed in December 1995. The disputed territories were split into a Bosnian-Serb republic and a Muslim-Croat federation. NATO forces were sent to the area to monitor the boundaries between the new states.

In the late 1990s, a hostile climate developed in the Serbian provinces of *Montenegro* and *Kosovo*. Kosovo, a province of Serbia, had very few Serb inhabitants—90 percent of its population was ethnic Albanians. The Serb minority ruled over the ethnic Albanians in a heavyhanded and *oppressive* (or *cruel*) way for many years. This harsh treatment led to the formation of the *Kosovo Liberation Army* (KLA) by the ethnic Albanians who wanted to separate the province of Kosovo from Serbia. The KLA began attacks against the Serbian police and government officials. Fighting broke out between the Serbians and the KLA. Hundreds of Kosovars were killed, and hundreds of thousands were forced to flee their homeland. After negotiations in February and March 1999 failed, NATO was forced to use airstrikes to destroy Serbian military targets.

The Serbian military continued its civilian **massacres** and the **deportation** of ethnic Albanians from Kosovo. At least 850,000 people were forced to flee Kosovo. The refugee crisis put a heavy burden on the neighboring countries of Albania and Macedonia. These countries were unable to take



care of the massive groups of refugees escaping from the fighting. Finally, on June 3, 1999, Serbian forces withdrew, ending the 11-week war. A five-nation NATO peacekeeping force entered Kosovo and helped refugees return to their homeland. Milosevic was indicted as a war criminal by a UN *tribunal* (or *court of justice*) for the deportation of ethnic Albanians from Kosovo. It remains to be seen if a lasting peace can be achieved in the Balkans.

In September 2000, Milosevic was defeated in the presidential elections by Vojislav Kostunica, a law professor. This ended Milosevic's 13-year Cold War-style Communist dictatorship. Soon after Kostunica's new democratic administration took over, the United States and the European Union (EU) worked to lift sanctions imposed against Milosevic's government. Many nations sought to have Milosevic tried as a war criminal in the Hague for the horrible acts of violence against civilians in parts of Yugoslavia.

Slobodan Milosevic was turned over to the UN for trial on charges of war crimes and genocide, but died in early 2006, after five years in prison and with just 50 hours of testimony left before the conclusion of the trial. In early 2003, the name Yugoslavia was officially abolished. It was transformed into a commonwealth called Serbia and Montenegro. In 2006, both Montenegro and Serbia officially declared their independence, thus ending the last remnants of the Yugoslav federation.

Slobodan Milosevic (1941-2006)—His Early Years

Milosevic was born in the town of Pozarevac, Yugoslavia (today called Serbia) on August 29, 1941. He joined the Communist Party when he was 18 and studied law at Belgrade University. After graduation, he became a successful businessman and became the head of Beobanka, one of Yugoslavia's largest banks. His frequent trips to Paris and New York gave him the opportunity to learn English and French, both of which were considerable assets in his climb up the political ladder.

In 1989 he became president of Serbia. As president he resisted political and economic reforms. His actions increased tensions, which led to the breakup of the Yugoslav Republic and the eventual ethnic cleansing of Bosnian Muslims from the country.



Practice

Following World War II, European nations faced a difficult period of rebuilding. Use the list below to choose any **two European nations**. Then answer the following questions about each country. Be able to present this information orally in class.

Czechoslovakia	Hungary	Romania
East Germany	Italy	Spain
France	Poland	West Germany
Great Britain	Portugal	Yugoslavia

First country: _____

1. What problems did this European nation face after World War II?

2. Was this nation able to overcome these postwar problems? If so, how? If not, why? _____

3. What is the status of this European country today? _____



Second country: _____

4. What problems did this European nation face after World War II?

5. Was this nation able to overcome these postwar problems? If so, how? If not, why? _____

6. What is the status of this European country today? _____



Practice

Use pages 426-442 and the list below to complete the following statements.

Nicolae Ceaucescu	Great Britain
Czechoslovakia	Italy
Francisco Franco	Slobodan Milosevic

1. Although the Communists are the largest political party in _____, the nation still has a democratic form of government.
2. Fighting in Northern Ireland created problems in _____.
3. _____ ruled Spain for 35 years.
4. In 1993 the two largest ethnic groups in _____ decided to separate into two fully independent nations.
5. _____ was the Communist dictator of Romania for 24 years.
6. _____ was turned over to the UN for trial on charges of war crimes and genocide.



Practice

Match each definition with the correct term. Write the letter on the line provided.

- | | | |
|-----------|---|-----------------|
| _____ 1. | system of government in which officials are elected by the citizens | A. Berlin Wall |
| _____ 2. | a wall built by East German and Soviet soldiers to keep East Germans from escaping to West Berlin | B. blockade |
| _____ 3. | a sharp increase in prices while the value of money decreases | C. coalition |
| _____ 4. | a region or country controlled by another country | D. colony |
| _____ 5. | to bring private industry under government control | E. inflation |
| _____ 6. | the surrounding of land or harbor so that food and other supplies cannot get in or out | F. intelligence |
| _____ 7. | a government or state in which a king or queen has supreme power | G. monarchy |
| _____ 8. | temporary alliance of various political parties | H. nationalize |
| _____ 9. | stopping of work and services by a group of people to protest certain conditions | I. republic |
| _____ 10. | news or information, especially secret information, gathered by a government | J. strike |



Practice

Use the list below to write the correct term for each definition on the line provided.

collectivism	expel	migrate
deportation	free enterprise	occupation zone
ethnic cleansing	immigrant	repression
ethnic group	massacre	Solidarity

- _____ 1. to move from one country, region, or place to settle in another
- _____ 2. the political principle of centralized social and economic control of all the means of production and distribution
- _____ 3. the freedom to do business in a competitive market with little regulation or interference by government
- _____ 4. force out
- _____ 5. an independent trade union organized in Poland to work for political reforms
- _____ 6. a person who comes to live in a country in which he or she was not born
- _____ 7. large group of people who share the same language and cultural background
- _____ 8. the act of keeping persons under control by using fear or force
- _____ 9. a term used in the Bosnian conflict for a policy of forcibly removing or killing members of another ethnic group
- _____ 10. the removal of a person or group of people from their homeland
- _____ 11. a brutal, bloody killing of many people or animals
- _____ 12. an area controlled by military forces



Review

World War II had a staggering effect on Europe—approximately 50 million people were killed. Every country in Europe was ravaged by the war. World War II was the most expensive war in human history, costing about \$1.2 trillion. Throughout Europe, governments and societies would have to be rebuilt almost from scratch. The “Big Three”—the United States, Great Britain and the Soviet Union (allies during World War II)—came into conflict over the creation of a post-World War II Europe. Great Britain and the United States wanted European countries to have freely elected governments with free market economies. The Soviets wanted to impose Communist pro-Soviet governments with command economies in the Eastern European countries. The Soviets believed that it was in their best interest to have a *buffer zone* of friendly nations as a defense against Germany and the West.

The phrase “the Iron Curtain” was used to describe the separation of Eastern and Western Europe into Communist and free states. The Soviet Union controlled almost every nation east of the *Iron Curtain*. This territory included almost all of Eastern Europe and part of Germany. The two superpowers, the United States and the Soviet Union, struggled for power and influence in Europe and many other parts of the world. This worldwide confrontation between *communism* and the free world led to the increased tensions and hostilities known as the *Cold War*.



The United Nations emblem was approved on December 7, 1946. The olive branches symbolize peace. The world map represents the area of concern to the United Nations in achieving its main purpose—peace and security.

In June of 1945, the peace-keeping organization known as the *United Nations* (UN) was created. Fifty of the world’s nations joined the UN. The new nation of *Israel* was created with the support of the UN. It became a homeland for the Jewish people who had escaped death at the hands of Hitler. In the postwar world, the UN worked to promote equal rights and self-determination of peoples throughout the world. Unlike the *League of Nations*, the UN was designed to take military action to solve international crises. The first real test of the UN was the *Korean Conflict*. The UN



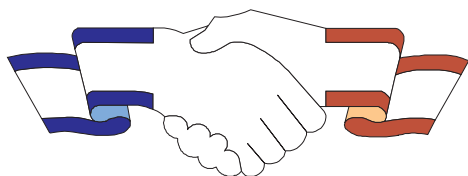
voted to send soldiers to South Korea to halt the armed invasion from the Communists in North Korea. The UN has also tried to resolve many other conflicts around the world.

To halt the spread of communism in Europe, the United States began a foreign policy known as *containment*. The United States promised military and financial support to any nation threatened with Communist aggression. With the *Truman Doctrine* and *Marshall Plan*, the United States helped the European nations resist Communist aggression and rebuild their war-torn economies. A defensive military alliance known as the *North Atlantic Treaty Organization* (NATO) was formed for Western Europe's defense against Communist aggression. The Soviets responded by creating their own defensive alliance known as the *Warsaw Pact*.

The *Berlin Blockade*, which led to the *Berlin Airlift*, was the first crisis of the Cold War. The Soviets tried to cut off West Berlin from the rest of West Germany. Unhappy with life under a Communist dictatorship, many people in East Berlin migrated to the west. To halt this mass migration, the Soviets built the *Berlin Wall* to prevent East Berliners from migrating to West Berlin. Many East Germans were killed trying to flee East Germany. The Soviets maintained a tight control on the East European nations, putting down resistance to Communist rule in Czechoslovakia and Hungary with armed force. The threat of Soviet intervention kept many Eastern Europeans from attempting to overthrow their Communist governments. The superpowers engaged in an arms race and a propaganda war against each other that lasted for decades.

The Cold War lasted from the end of World War II until the 1980s. While Eastern Europeans lived under the tight control of Communist dictatorships, Western Europeans established democratic governments and free market economies. The standard of living in Western Europe improved dramatically in the decades after World War II. In the Soviet Union and Eastern Europe, the government-controlled economy was an inefficient system for producing and distributing consumer goods. There

was a much lower standard of living in Eastern Europe. Food shortages and the inefficiency of the economy would lead to the eventual collapse of communism in Eastern Europe and the Soviet Union.





The Cold War began to cool down during the 1980s. Soviet leader Mikhail Gorbachev took steps to improve relations with the *free world*. He also attempted to establish democratic reforms in the Soviet Union. The Communist governments of the Soviet Union and Eastern Europe began to crumble during the late 1980s. In some Eastern European countries, there was a peaceful transition to democracy; in others, violence and unrest. Throughout Eastern Europe, Communist governments were overthrown. In most countries, newly democratic governments were eventually elected.

The transition from Communist dictatorships to Democratic systems has been a difficult process for many Eastern European nations. Many are still struggling to convert from command to market economies. Yugoslavia, like many other former Communist nations, was caught up in the reform movements that were sweeping across Eastern Europe. When the Communist government collapsed, long-suppressed Nationalist demands for autonomy led to the breakup of Yugoslavia into several independent republics. During the 1990s, civil war broke out among the former Yugoslavia's many ethnic nationalities. UN peacekeeping forces have had to remain in the former Yugoslavia to prevent renewed hostilities. In October 2000, Yugoslavia elected a democratic administration. Slobodan Milosevic, the former Yugoslav leader, was turned over to the UN to stand trial for war crimes and genocide. He died before the trial's conclusion in early 2006.

The year 1990 saw the formal unification of East Germany and West Germany. In the 1990s, Western European countries joined to form the *European Union* (EU). Under the *Maastricht Treaty*, European countries created an economic and monetary union. A common currency and cooperation among member nations in areas of defense policy, immigration, and crime would benefit member nations by reducing the threat of conflict and promoting economic prosperity. By 2005, the EU had become an enormous economic superpower, with a huge market of more than 425 million people in 25 nations, with many more nations eager to join. The main obstacle that the EU faces is adoption of its new constitution. Voters in France and the Netherlands voted "no" on ratification. Many voters feared a loss of national identity and sovereignty and worried that competition between EU members would result in job migration to Eastern Europe.



Practice

Match each definition with the correct term. Write the letter on the line provided.

- | | | |
|----------|--|--|
| _____ 1. | an organization of nations that works for peace in the world and tries to solve world problems | A. General Assembly |
| _____ 2. | the main body of the United Nations | B. North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO) |
| _____ 3. | body of the United Nations made up of five permanent member nations and 10 other countries | C. Security Council |
| _____ 4. | United States foreign policy of sending economic and military support to countries resisting communism after World War II | D. Truman Doctrine |
| _____ 5. | alliance between United States and 11 Western European nations to protect one another, particularly from threat of communism | E. United Nations (UN) |



Practice

Match each definition with the correct term. Write the letter on the line provided.

- | | | |
|----------|--|------------------|
| _____ 1. | mutual defence agreement signed in 1955 by the Soviet Union and seven neighboring Communist countries; dissolved in 1991 | A. Berlin Wall |
| _____ 2. | an independent trade union organized in Poland to work for political reforms | B. Iron Curtain |
| _____ 3. | a program that sent economic aid to war-torn European countries after World War II; also called <i>European Recovery Program</i> (ERP) | C. Marshall Plan |
| _____ 4. | an imaginary line separating the Communist and non-Communist countries in Europe | D. Solidarity |
| _____ 5. | a wall built by East Germans and Soviet soldiers to keep East Germans from escaping to West Berlin | E. Warsaw Pact |



Practice

Use the list below to write the correct term for each definition on the line provided.

alliance
allies
blockade

coalition
Cold War
communism

ethnic group
superpowers

- _____ 1. the surrounding of land or harbor so that food and other supplies cannot get in or out
- _____ 2. a theory of government in which wealth and property are owned in common, and production and labor are shared equally among the people; in reality, the means of production and distribution are owned and controlled by the state
- _____ 3. battle for influence and control of smaller and weaker nations between the United States and the Soviet Union after World War II; stopped short of armed conflict
- _____ 4. nations so powerful that their actions and policies greatly affect smaller, less powerful nations; usually refers to the United States and the former Soviet Union
- _____ 5. an agreement between countries, groups, or people to work together in doing something
- _____ 6. temporary alliance of various political parties
- _____ 7. large group of people who share the same language and cultural background
- _____ 8. nations or persons that join together for a specific purpose

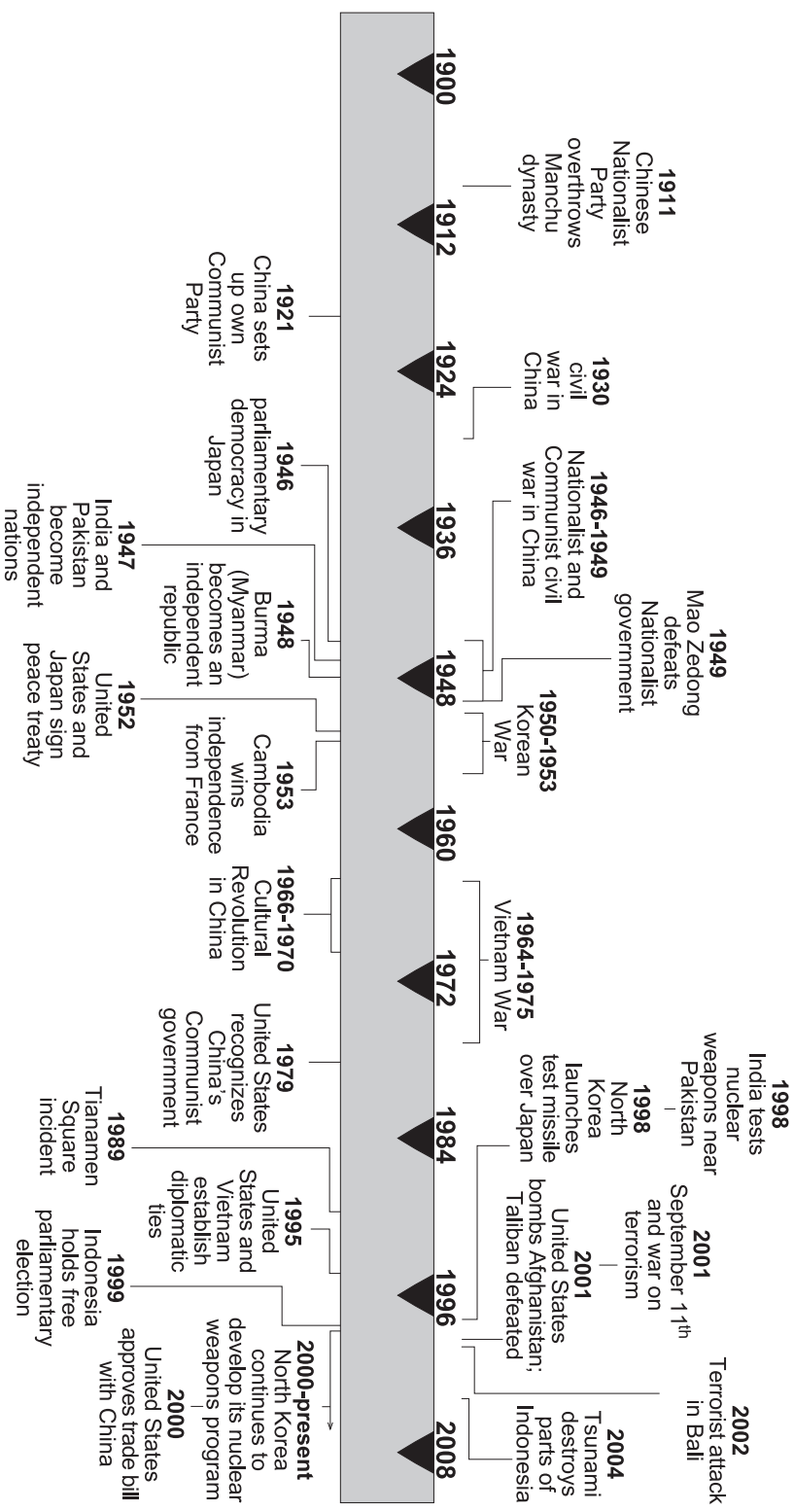
Unit 10: Asia (1900s-21st Century)

This unit emphasizes the struggle of Third World countries in Asia as they make the transition from colonies to independent countries.

Unit Focus

- growth of communism in China
- development of Communist dictatorships in Southeast Asian nations
- effect of the Korean War on Asian countries
- impact of Japan as an economic superpower
- effects of the Vietnam War on other Southeast Asian countries
- negative effects of colonialism in Asia
- major social and economic problems faced by Asian countries after World War II

Unit 10 Timeline





Vocabulary

Use the vocabulary words and definitions below as a reference for this unit.

- al Qaeda or al-Qaeda** a radical fundamentalist Muslim terror network organized by Osama bin Laden in the 1990s
- arsenal** a place of storage for arms and military equipment
- assassinate** to murder, usually for political reasons
- boycott** to refuse to buy or use as a means of protest
- capitalism** an economic system in which land, factories, and other means of producing goods are privately owned and controlled by an individual or groups of individuals for a profit
- caste system** a system of social classes in which the social life of members is restricted to the class into which they were born
- censorship** the act of examining printed materials, media broadcasts, and movies in order to possibly ban, alter, or delete information
- clan** group of related families
- coalition government** temporary alliance of various political parties



- collective farm** a large farm made up of many smaller farms and operated jointly by a group
- communism** a theory of government in which wealth and property are owned in common, and production and labor are shared equally among the people; in reality, the means of production and distribution are owned and controlled by the state
- constitutional monarchy** a government led by a ruler whose power is limited by law
- coup** a sudden takeover of a country's government
- demilitarize** to disband the armed forces and remove military equipment from a region
- democracy** a system of government in which power comes from the people
- demonstration** the act of showing ideas or feelings through public gatherings or parades
- dictatorship** a government ruled by a person who has complete control over the life of the people
- disarmament** the process of reducing the number of a country's weapon systems
- dissident** a person who openly expresses opinions that differ from those held by the general society



- domino theory** the idea that the fall of one nation to communism would lead to the fall of its neighbors
- drought** a period of dry weather; lack of rain
- embargo** a government's restriction or suspension of foreign trade with a particular country
- exile** banishment or expulsion from one's country
- export** to send goods from one country to another country
- guerrilla** one of a group of fighters—not part of a formal army—who attacks suddenly and withdraws swiftly
- guerrilla warfare** a type of warfare in which small groups of revolutionary fighters, not part of a regular army, use surprise attacks against their enemies
- imperialism** the practice of establishing colonies; extending the rule of one country over other countries or colonies
- import** to bring goods into one country from another country
- industrialization** the process of developing systems to manufacture goods by machine



left wing all political parties and groups who favor liberal reforms or radical, Socialist, or Communist policies

martial law temporary rule by military authorities, limiting the rights of citizens

Marxism a form of socialism in which workers own all land and all means of production (the final stage of socialism is communism)

military junta a group of military officers who rule a country after taking power by force

monarchy a government or state in which a king or queen has supreme power

mujahideen Islamic guerrilla fighters who fought against Soviets and the Communist government in Afghanistan

nationalism strong support for the survival, success, and self-rule of one's country and culture

nonaligned not allied with either side in a conflict, such as the Cold War

Nuclear Nonproliferation

Treaty an international treaty that limits the spread of nuclear weapons

Open Door Policy American position that made it possible for all countries to trade in China



- oppression** control or rule by unjust and cruel means of authority or power
- parliament** a group of people who have the duty and power to make the laws of a country
- peaceful coexistence** Soviet policy of competing with the United States while avoiding war
- recession** a period when business is bad; less serious than a depression
- refugee** a person who flees to a foreign country to escape danger
- regime** a government in power
- renounce** to give up by formal declaration
- repressive** cruel; keeping persons under control by use of fear or force
- republic** system of government in which officials are elected by the citizens
- sanction** a measure used to punish a specific action
- socialism** a political and economic theory in which the means of production—factories, machines, and the land—are controlled by the government or society rather than individuals, and the profits are shared equally among all its citizens



spheres of influence geographic areas controlled by a country and used for its own benefit

stalemate a deadlock, or situation in which neither of two opponents can move any further

Taliban a very conservative Islamic government in Afghanistan

terrorist a member of a group that uses violence to intimidate a government into granting their demands

tribunal a court of justice

tsunami a large destructive ocean wave caused by an underwater earthquake or volcanic eruption

World Trade Organization

(WTO) an international organization that establishes rules for the global trading system



Asia (1900s-21st Century)

European Nations Exploit Their Colonies

A *colony* is a region or territory controlled by a foreign power. Since the 1600s, European nations have had *colonies* in many parts of the world. The European nations of Belgium, Great Britain, France, Portugal, Spain, Germany, and Italy controlled many colonies worldwide. They developed colonial empires in Asia, Africa, and Latin America (see Unit 11). Europe saw its colonies as places from which to take valuable resources such as food, gold, rubber, and even the *labor* of the local people. Not only did they strip these colonial territories of their valuables, European rulers often forced the local people to work for little or no pay.

Imperialism is the policy of extending a nation's rule over other countries or territories. Countries that seek to conquer and extend their rule over other lands are called *imperialist nations*. People in imperialist nations believed that their way of life was superior to that of the people in their colonial territories. They considered native people living in their colonies to be "second-class" citizens. European nations did not respect the cultures or people in their colonies. The *parent country*, the country which controlled the colonial empires, used the local natives as a source of cheap labor in their factories, farms, and mines. Imperialist powers used their colonies to raise money from mining valuable resources and growing profitable agricultural products. From the beginning of imperialism in the late 19th century, native populations benefited very little from the wealth created by their countries. It was the parent country that benefited most from the local native labor.

In most colonial subject countries, the parent country had little respect for existing social structures (tribes, **clans**, kingdoms, etc.). In their place, the parent countries often set up European-style social structures and government. Those with the lightest skin, the most formal education, and European ancestry usually held the highest positions and had the most authority. The result was that the existing culture and traditions were ignored, and, in many colonies, local cultures nearly died out. In many countries, colonial practices disrupted community and family life. For example, natives were forced to work on farms or mines far from their homes, and families were separated for months or years at a time.



Colonies Gain Independence and Face Many Challenges

Many colonies in Asia and Africa (see Unit 11) demanded independence after World War II. In many instances, colonies used *armed* revolution to break free and force the parent countries from power. When colonies gained independence, their newly-gained freedom produced many difficult challenges. These colonies sometimes put aside some of their native culture and traditions, while some of their people may have accepted European ways. This often caused conflict between those who wanted to reestablish their native culture and those who wanted to continue with a European-styled culture.

Newly-freed countries were not always able to form stable governments and build productive economies. Their governments and economies had been controlled for many years by Europeans. Consequently, the native people may have had little experience in running a government or establishing an economy. For a time, following independence, the people often faced worse economic and political conditions than when they were ruled by the parent country.



Colonies sometimes put aside some of their native culture and traditions.

Civil war often broke out in the former colonies because their original boundaries had been changed by the parent country. The new boundaries might have enclosed rival groups or contained so many different groups that a sense of unity was almost impossible to develop. Different languages, customs, and beliefs often kept different groups apart. Poor rural people often migrated to the cities in search of jobs. This migration quickly overpopulated the cities and turned them into slums.

Third World Countries

Following World War II, the nations of the world were grouped politically into three “worlds.” The *First World* included the United States and other western industrial nations and Japan. The *Second World* included the Soviet Union and other Communist bloc countries. The nations of the First and Second Worlds were relatively modern and industrialized. The newly



independent countries, or developing countries with less-advanced technology than the First or Second World countries, make up what is called the *Third World*. After breaking away from their parent countries, these Third World nations did not side with either superpower and chose to remain **nonaligned**. They chose to remain separate. However, they have become a new influence in world affairs. Third World countries are found in Asia, Africa, and Latin America. Most of these countries have experienced political instability and poverty largely because of a long history of imperialism.

Throughout the Cold War, the superpowers used a number of strategies to gain influence in the Third World. The competing superpowers backed wars of revolution or liberation. Soviet and United States spies were involved in a wide variety of secret activities, from spying to assassinations. The United States gave military and financial aid to these countries. Programs to improve the education and health of the people in developing nations continue to this day. The Soviets also offered assistance to many developing nations as a means of gaining a foothold in a region.



Practice

Match each description with the correct term. Write the letter on the line provided.

- | | |
|--|--|
| _____ 1. nations that controlled huge empires of colonies worldwide | A. Asia, Africa, Latin America |
| _____ 2. continents with Third World countries | B. Belgium, Great Britain, France, Spain, Portugal, Germany, Italy |
| _____ 3. a region or territory controlled by a foreign power | C. colony |
| _____ 4. the political grouping of newly independent or developing countries that did not have advanced technology | D. imperialism |
| _____ 5. country which controls colonial empires | E. nonaligned |
| _____ 6. the practice of establishing colonies; extending the rule of one country over other countries or colonies | F. parent country |
| _____ 7. not allied to either side in a conflict | G. Third World countries |



Practice

Use pages 463-465 and the list below to complete the following statements.

**civil
colonies
economy**

**revolution
second
Third World**

1. Imperialist nations or parent countries exploited their colonies and looked on them as “_____ -class” citizens.
2. Following World War II, many _____ in Asia and Africa demanded independence.
3. In order to break free from their parent countries, colonies often had to use armed _____ .
4. After independence, rival groups often fought a _____ war in the former colonies.
5. Following their independence, newly-freed countries face difficult challenges because they have little experience in running a government or establishing a(n) _____ .
6. Many new, independent countries in Asia, Africa, and Latin America make up what is known as the _____ .



Practice

Answer the following using complete sentences.

1. What are three ways that parent countries exploited their colonies? _____

2. What are three challenges countries often face after gaining their independence? _____



Northeast Asia

China

The history of China is one of the longest and most complex of any nation in the world. Its written history goes back to 1500 B.C. From that time until the early 1900s, China was ruled by a series of *dynasties*. A dynasty in China began when a single ruler gained power and then passed it on through his family. Over time, a dynasty would begin to weaken and then be replaced by another dynasty. Sometimes, family dynasties ruled for hundreds of years before being overthrown by other *warlords* or military leaders within China.



China also has had many different cultures and languages at any single moment in its history. China is divided into many *provinces* (territories), and life in one province can look very different from life in another province. Its more than one billion people do not share a common language and do not observe the same customs.

During most of its history, China has remained cut off from the West. Until recently, just travelling the great distance to China was difficult. The



country is protected by natural borders. It is surrounded by both treacherous mountains and forbidding deserts.

During the mid 1800s, Europeans, Japanese, and Americans began to take an interest in China. Over the next 60 years, Great Britain, France, Germany, Japan, Russia, and the United States signed treaties with China that gave them control over China. They carved up China into **spheres of influence**. A *sphere of influence* is a particular land area or seaport that grants a foreign country exclusive trading rights. These countries used their advanced weapons to gain control of areas in China and to put down any rebellions by the Chinese people.

Nationalism and Civil War

After the Europeans, Japanese, and Americans opened up China, many Chinese people believed that their country's only chance for survival was through modernization and **nationalism**. Many Chinese believed that a modern **republic** should replace the Manchu dynasty. The only way to achieve this goal was through revolution. A new nationalistic spirit swept across China, and the Chinese people began trying to gain independence from foreign rule. They urged their government officials to strengthen the army and navy, to build modern factories, and to reform education.

The Chinese Nationalist Party Gains Power

In 1911 the Chinese Nationalist Party, also known as the *Guomindang* (gwoh min dawng), succeeded in overthrowing the Manchu dynasty, which had ruled China since 1644. Sun Yixian (soon yee-shyahn) became the president of the new *Republic of China*. The end of imperial rule, after 2,000 years, left China weak. Sun Yixian had little control over the many provinces that stretched across China. Civil war broke out as warlords and their armies fought each other for more land and control. They terrorized the countryside. Peasants suffered the most. Famine took the lives of millions. The civil war destroyed roads, bridges, and crops. This was the situation in China when World War I broke out in 1914.

World War I

Although the Sun Yixian government was powerless, it sided with the Allies against Germany in World War I. Sun Yixian hoped that the Allies would return control of China to the Chinese when the war was over.



However, this did not happen. The Allied leaders refused to give up their territories and commercial interests in China. Japan was allowed to keep the Chinese territory that it had seized during the war.

Sun Yixian (1866-1925)

Sun Yixian was known as the father of modern China and the founder and early leader of China's Nationalist Party. He was born in the province of Kwangtung. He was educated in Hawaii and in Hong Kong, where he trained as a doctor. Alarmed by the way China clung to its traditional ways, he founded the Society for the Revival of China. On a visit to London, he was kidnapped by Chinese officials. The British Foreign Office intervened, and when Sun was released, the publicity gave Sun's career a powerful boost. Sun returned to China after the 1911 Wuhan rising and was elected provisional president. He realized that his **regime** was weak, and he made a deal with Yuan Shikai and voluntarily handed over the office to Yuan Shikai.

After many struggles, Sun later set up a separate government at Guangzhou (Canton). In 1924 Sun reorganized the Kuomintang, so that authority descended from the top to the lower levels on the model of the Soviet Communist Party. Although these actions strengthened the Kuomintang, there was still considerable opposition to Sun's authority when he died in 1925.

Communists Battle the Nationalists for Power

In the early 1920s, the Soviet Union sent military advisors and equipment to China. China was in need of outside help to strengthen its government and feed its people. The Chinese Nationalist Party welcomed help from the Communist Soviet Union. By 1921, however, some Chinese had set up their own Communist Party modeled on **communism** in the Soviet Union. In 1923 the two parties, the Nationalists and the Communists, formed an alliance to oppose the warlords and drive imperialist powers out of China. For three years, the two parties overlooked their mutual distrust and worked together. With their combined armies, they were able to seize

control of China. By 1927 the Chinese Communists were competing with the Chinese Nationalists for control of the government. Eventually this split between Nationalists and Communists led to war. Many Communists were killed or forced to go into hiding. In 1928 Jiang Jieshi (jee-ahng jeh-shee) became the new leader of the Nationalist Republic of China.



Communist Chinese flag



At this time, a Communist revolutionary named Mao Zedong (mow dzuh-doong) organized the *Red Army*, a Communist military force dedicated to overthrowing the Nationalist government. Mao's goal was to make China a Communist country. He believed that the Communists could triumph with the help of China's millions of peasants. The Red Army had gained the popular support in rural areas of the country by overthrowing local landlords and distributing land to the peasants. By 1930 civil war raged in China. Meanwhile, as the civil war between Nationalists and Communists continued, Japan invaded China.

Mao Zedong (1893-1976)



Mao Zedong was born in Hunan. He helped to reshape the social and political structures of China and was a principal Chinese Marxist theorist, soldier, and statesman who led his nation's Communist revolution. He was a leader of the Chinese Communist Party and the chairman (chief of state) of the People's Republic of China from 1949 to 1959 and chairman of the party until his death.

When China emerged from a half century of revolution, it threw itself into economic development and social change. In 1966 Mao launched the Cultural Revolution—a movement against bureaucracy and complacency in the government, in the universities, and in the Communist Party. In 1972 his meeting with President Richard Nixon signaled better relations with the United States. Mao Zedong was the principal architect of the new China.

Japanese Invasion

The population of Japan was growing faster than any other country's on Earth. Since World War I, the Japanese government had faced a serious land and food shortage. To solve this problem, Japan decided to invade China. The Japanese government wanted to set up colonies in China.

In 1931 the Japanese army conquered a large section of northeast China known as *Manchuria* (see map on page 469). The attack marked the beginning of World War II in Asia. By 1939 the Japanese army had conquered much of eastern China. Japanese soldiers slaughtered and tortured the Chinese. In one city, over 200,000 Chinese were murdered. The Chinese government was nearly helpless to stop the Japanese.

Struggling to deal with the Great Depression and the rise of Hitler, European nations and the United States did nothing to stop the Japanese



invasion of China. During this same period, Jiang Jieshi and the Chinese Nationalist government asked Mao Zedong and his Communist Party members to join them to defeat the Japanese. Mao and Jiang Jieshi joined forces to fight against Japan. However, they still remained rivals with different goals for China. Weapons received from the United States to fight the Japanese were eventually used by the Nationalists and Communists against each other.

World War II

During World War II, the American army and air force had many bases in China. Under the command of General George Stillwell, the Chinese and the Americans were able to force the Japanese out of China in 1945. General Stillwell and some other Americans knew that, after the Japanese were gone, Mao would once again lead the Red Army against the Nationalist government. General Stillwell also understood that without support from the United States Army, the Nationalist Government in China would be overthrown. The Western-backed Nationalist and the Soviet-backed Communist forces fought a bitter civil war from 1946-1949.

Mao Zedong and the Red Army Gain Control

In 1949 Mao Zedong's Red Army defeated the Nationalist government. The Nationalist government fled to Taiwan, a small island off the southern coast of China (see map on page 469). After more than 20 years of almost constant struggle, the Communists took control of mainland China. Mao and the Communists established a new government, the *People's Republic of China*, with Beijing as its capital. The United States made it clear to the Communist Chinese government that it would protect Taiwan from any armed invasion. The defeated Nationalist leader Jiang Jieshi and his followers retreated to the island of Taiwan. There the Nationalists set up the *Republic of China*, whose government, they claimed, was the real Chinese government, not the Communist government that controlled the mainland.

The Transformation of China

During the next four decades of Communist rule, China underwent dramatic changes. Mao restructured China's economy based on the principles of **Marxism**, a form of **socialism**. The Communists seized the holdings of landowners and divided the land among the peasants. More



than a million landowners who resisted this policy were killed. During the 1950s, the Communist government forced peasants to join **collective farms** of up to 200-300 households. Gradually, the government *nationalized*, or put under government control, all private businesses. Like the Soviet Union, Mao put in place five-year plans that set high production quotas for its industries. Although industrial output increased dramatically, farm output increased at a much slower rate.

In 1958 Mao began a program known as the *Great Leap Forward*. Under this plan, collectives were merged into much larger, government-controlled farms called *communes*. Peasants lived a strictly controlled life in communes. They had to eat in communal dining rooms and sleep in dormitories. They also had to raise their children in communal nurseries. The Great Leap Forward proved to be a disaster. The peasants had no incentive to work hard when only the state profited from their labor. Crop failures between 1958-1961 led to a *famine* (an extreme scarcity of food), which killed approximately 20 million people. The program was finally discontinued in 1961.

Communist China and the Soviet Union

Communist China eventually became the most powerful force in Asia. Along with the Soviet Union, the Communist Chinese helped other Asian countries gain independence and set up Communist governments. For about 15 years after China's civil war, China and the Soviet Union enjoyed a peaceful friendship. However, in the late 1950s, the spirit of cooperation between China and the Soviet Union began to fade. Both wanted to control the worldwide Communist movement.

Mao was angered when the Soviet Premier Nikita Khrushchev publicly denounced Stalin's abuse of power and supported **peaceful coexistence** with the West. Mao was a strict follower of Marxist *socialism*. The ideological differences between Mao's Chinese Communist philosophy and Soviet communism caused tension between the two Communist countries. Mao was unwilling to follow the Soviet Union's advice.

In 1960 the Soviets halted economic aid to China. In 1969 relations between China and the Soviet Union hit a low point when Chinese and Soviet soldiers fired upon each other on the northern border between the two countries. This period is known as the *Sino-Soviet split*. Relations between the Soviet Union and China did not fully recover for a long time.



Mao Zedong and the Cultural Revolution

After the failure of the Great Leap Forward and the split with the Soviet Union, Mao reduced his role in government. New leaders moved away from his strict Marxist ideas. New economic policies encouraged farm families to grow crops to sell at a profit on their own private plots of land. Factory workers were also encouraged to compete for wage increases and promotions. Mao disapproved of these new economic policies, believing that they would weaken communism.

Mao was greatly admired by the Chinese people. He had led the Communists in a successful revolution against the corrupt Nationalist government in 1949. Mao believed that even after the Communists were in power, the revolution must continue. He accused China's new Communist leaders of *taking the capitalist road*, or straying from the ideas of Communism, in their efforts to modernize China's economy. Thus in 1966,



statue in honor of Mao

determined to revive the Communist revolutionary spirit, Mao began the *Cultural Revolution* to rid China of anti-revolutionary influences. Mao told the people that to be pure Communists, they must rid China of all things and beliefs which were foreign. During this period, Chinese people were forbidden to wear Western clothing. Instead, all Chinese people wore the same style of clothing.

During the Cultural Revolution, Mao encouraged radical students and young adults to spread the Cultural Revolution throughout the country. Millions of high school and college students responded to Mao's call. Communist students wandered the streets of China's big cities burning books and destroying everything they believed was anti-Communist. These young people formed militia units called *Red Guards*. They persecuted and arrested local leaders, teachers, and other educated professionals.

The goal of the Cultural Revolution was to create a society of peasants and workers in which everyone was equal. The heroes of the revolution were the peasants and workers. Intellectuals, artists, and educated professionals were considered to be enemies of the revolution. Many professional people were **exiled** to remote villages to "purify" themselves by doing



years of hard labor on peasant farms. Violence and chaos spread throughout China. This resulted in many factories closing. Farm production suffered. Thousands of people were executed or died in jail. By the 1970s, Mao put an end to the Cultural Revolution, and order returned to China.

President Nixon Opens Relations with China

During the Cultural Revolution, China was not active in world affairs. In addition to its split with the Soviet Union, China had been hostile towards the United States because of its support for the Nationalist Chinese in Taiwan and also because of the Korean War. Gradually, China became more willing to form ties with the West. Chinese Premier Zhou Enlai (joh eh-nah-lee), a more moderate leader than Mao Zedong, shocked the world by inviting an American table tennis team to tour China. It was the first official visit by Americans to China since 1949. The visit began a new period in Chinese-American relations.



President Richard Nixon

The Sino-Soviet split gave the United States an opportunity to reestablish relations with China. In 1972 President Richard Nixon saw a golden opportunity to become friendly with China. President Nixon knew that if the United States and China became friends, the Soviet Union would lose influence in the world. President Nixon's Chinese diplomacy is perhaps his greatest achievement. President Nixon became the first American president to visit Communist China. As a result, the United States and China reestablished communications with each other. Trade and cultural exchanges between the United States and China grew. Around the same time, the United Nations invited the government of Mainland China to sit on the powerful Security Council. The Nationalist government in Taiwan was no longer recognized as the official Chinese government. In 1979 the United States recognized the Communist government of China and established formal diplomatic relations.

Deng Xiaoping Introduces Moderate Reforms

After Mao and Zhou died in 1976, Deng Xiaoping (dung show-ping), a moderate, emerged as China's new leader. Many of the radical leaders of the Cultural Revolution were jailed. By 1980 Deng Xiaoping was the most powerful leader in China. He introduced economic reforms and sought to expand China's relations with the outside world. He welcomed foreign investments. Under his leadership, China accepted some limited



capitalism. He permitted the people to open small private businesses. Deng eliminated Mao's unpopular communes and allowed individual farmers to lease the land and grow any crops they desired and sell it for a profit. Under this system, food production increased by 50 percent between 1978-1984. These economic policies produced dramatic changes in Chinese life. People's incomes increased, and this enabled them to buy appliances and televisions. The modern hotels filled with foreign tourists showed that China had a new policy of openness.

Deng Xiaoping (1904-1997)

Deng Xiaoping was born in Szechwan province, China. He studied in France, where he joined the Communist Party and became associated with Mao Zedong. In 1954 he became secretary-general of the Chinese Communist Party. When Mao launched the Cultural Revolution in 1966, Deng was criticized but was later restored to power in 1974. After the death of Mao Zedong in 1976, Deng became vice-chairman of the party and China's most prominent leader. He opened China to foreign trade. From the late 1970s until his death in 1997, Deng was the most powerful figure in the People's Republic of China.

Tiananmen Square

Deng's economic reforms produced unexpected problems for the Chinese government. China's new **Open Door Policy** introduced new ideas to the Chinese people. Chinese students learned more about **democracy** and began to question the lack of freedom and human rights in China. One hundred thousand students marched in April 1989 to Tiananmen Square, a plaza in the center of Beijing, the capital of China. The demonstrators began a hunger strike and disrupted an important visit by Soviet President Mikhail Gorbachev. The student protesters demanded more *democracy*. They chanted "Down with corruption!" "Down with **dictatorship!**" and "Long live democracy!" **Martial law**, or military rule, was proclaimed in May as **demonstrations** spread to other cities. The prodemocratic demonstration came to an abrupt end six weeks later on June 3-4, 1989, when the Chinese government sent thousands of armed troops into Beijing. The assault that followed left hundreds of students dead and thousands wounded. Over 10,000 people were arrested.

The massacre of student and workers in Tiananmen Square shocked the world. The crackdown succeeded in slowing the Chinese people's democratic movement. The government used the media to announce that reports of a massacre were false. Instead, government officials claimed that a group of criminals had plotted against the government. The



television had already broadcast the truth to the world. World opinion was outraged by the Tiananmen Square incident. The United States and many other countries instituted **sanctions** against China; tourism declined and the economy went into general decline. International trade resumed in 1989-1990, and eventually the United States renewed China's most-favored-nation trading status in June 1990 after several hundred **dissidents** were released from prison. Western governments by 1991 lifted economic *sanctions*.

Reforms Continue under Jiang Zemin and Hu Jintao

President Jiang Zemin (jee-ahng zeh-min) led post-Tiananmen China in the late 1990s through the early 21st century. During his five-year administration, China pulled an estimated 150 million peasants out of poverty and China realized an 11 percent economic growth rate. China joined the **World Trade Organization (WTO)** in 2001. The *World Trade Organization (WTO)* deals with the rules of trade between nations. Zemin's successor, Hu Jintao (hu-jin-tao) continued policies that promoted China's economic growth and development. However, China's rapid economic growth had a negative impact on the country's natural resources and its environment. In addition, the gap between rich and poor grew. Not all of its people benefited from its rapid economic growth. In recent years, China has played a greater role in calling for free trade agreements and security pacts with its neighbors in Asia. In 2005 China's expansion through its **exports** of manufactured goods strengthened its claim to leadership in this region.

Issues Facing China

Human Rights

Deng's harsh crackdown on the pro-democracy movement left him firmly in control of China. He continued his program of economic reform but he repressed any political reforms that promoted democracy. Deng Xiaoping died at the age of 93 in February of 1997 after a lengthy illness. Seventy-one-year-old Jiang Zemin became China's new president. He continued many of the economic and political policies of his predecessor. The Tiananmen Square incident brought attention to China's poor human rights record, which caused strained relations with the United States.



China's government put in place a policy called one-child-per-family.

China's rapidly growing population led the government to put in place a *one-child-per-family* policy. Couples who had only one child were rewarded with better medical benefits and improved housing. Those who had more than one child faced fines and other penalties. Many rural families refused to obey the policy. Others complied by killing their infant daughters because they considered sons more desirable. Human rights activists and religious groups have condemned China's "one child" policy as a violation of basic human rights.

During the 1990s, the United States put pressure on China to release political prisoners and guarantee basic rights for political opponents. China remained hostile to such pressure and continued to repress any prodemocracy movements. In August of 1999, China rounded up thousands of members of the *Falun Gong* sect, a popular religious movement that combines Buddhism, Taoism, and martial arts. China outlawed the sect and considered the group a threat because it was a well-organized group whose numbers exceeded the membership of the Chinese Communist Party. The United States Congress continued to vote in favor of renewal of China's most-favored-nation trade status despite its poor human rights record.

The Transfer of Hong Kong

After two years of negotiations, British and Chinese authorities agreed in 1984 that Hong Kong would return to Chinese sovereignty. Hong Kong was a major business center and a thriving British colony on the southeastern coast of China. The Chinese and the British negotiated the return of the colony upon the expiration of Britain's 99-year lease of the territory on July 1, 1997. This transfer ended 155 years of British colonial rule. The Chinese promised to respect Hong Kong's economic system and political freedoms for 50 years. Some citizens of Hong Kong worried that Chinese rule would bring an end to the political freedoms that they enjoyed, while others felt that the transfer to Chinese authority would have a positive influence on China and Hong Kong.



Taiwan

Tensions between Taiwan and Communist China grew worse in July 1999, when Taiwan's president said publicly that his country was a separate nation, not part of China. Communist China has always considered Taiwan a rebellious island province that eventually should be reunited with the mainland. China has threatened to use force if Taiwan officially declares itself independent from mainland China. In recent years, the People's Republic of China (PRC) had stopped promoting the immediate reunification with Taiwan under its "one country, two system" policy in favor of a more gradual approach of increasing economic and cultural integration.

Problems between China and the United States

Two of the world's most powerful countries, China and the United States, sometimes do not get along well. Relations between the United States and China became strained in 1999. Congress accused China of stealing nuclear secrets from the United States over the past two decades. When the United States bombed Serbia that year, it mistakenly hit the Chinese Embassy, killing and wounding several Chinese and caused further friction between the two countries.

Permanent Normal Trade Relations

The United States Senate approved a landmark China trade bill in September 2000. This bill ended the annual ritual of reviewing China's trade status. The bill also guaranteed Chinese goods the same low-tariff access to the United States markets as products from nearly every other nation. The bill established *Permanent Normal Trade Relations* (PNTR) with China, which opened a wide range of markets, from telecommunications to agriculture, to United States businesses. Approval of PNTR was important because this set the stage for United States-China relations in the decades to come.

Tragedy in Tibet

For centuries, Tibet was an independent country ruled by a Buddhist spiritual leader known as the *Dalai Lama*. In 1950, one year after the Communists took over China, they seized control of Tibet (see map on



page 469). When the Tibetans rebelled against Chinese rule in 1959, the present Dalai Lama escaped from his country, fleeing to neighboring India. He and his government still live in *exile* in northern India. Since his escape, the Dalai Lama has worked continuously to restore his country's freedom. The "Free Tibet" movement is a worldwide movement aimed at putting pressure on the Chinese to permit self-rule for Tibet.

China fears Tibet's desire for independence and treats Tibetans harshly, denying them basic human rights. Tibetans are jailed for any Nationalist discussions and forbidden to display photographs of the Dalai Lama. Many fear that Tibetan culture will not survive because of the Chinese crackdown on political activity, religious training, and the teaching of the Tibetan language. Many believe that the only hope for Tibet is the collapse of the Communist *regime* in China.

The 14th Dalai Lama (1935-)

The Dalai Lama is the title of the leader of an order of Tibetan Buddhists. He is Tibet's spiritual and temporal ruler. The present Dalai Lama was born on June 6, 1935 in Taktser, China into a peasant family and was designated the 14th Dalai Lama in 1937. He was enthroned in 1940 but had to flee to India in 1959, when the Chinese government put down a rebellion in Tibet against Chinese rule. The Dalai Lama was forced into permanent exile, settling at Dharamsala in Punjab, India, where he established a democratically-based alternative government. He was awarded the 1989 Nobel Peace Prize in recognition of his commitment to the nonviolent liberation of his homeland.



Practice

Answer the following using complete sentences.

1. During the 1800s, what did the Europeans, Japanese, and Americans do to China? _____

2. Why did the Japanese invade China? _____

3. What political party gained control of China in 1949? _____

4. How did the Communists transform China? _____

5. Why was the Great Leap Forward a failure? _____

6. Why did Mao begin the Cultural Revolution? _____



7. Who were the Red Guards? _____

8. How did the United States open relations with China? _____

9. How has China changed under Deng Xiaoping? Under Jiang Zemin and Hu Jintao? _____

10. What did the protesting students demand in the Tiananmen Square demonstrations in 1989? _____



Practice

Use pages 469-481 and the list below to complete the following statements. **One or more terms will be used more than once.**

capitalism	Deng Xiaoping	Japanese	Nationalist
Communists	dissidents	Jiang Jieshi	Nixon
Cultural	dynasties	Mao Zedong	sanctions
democracy	Japan	martial law	Sun Yixian

1500 B.C.–early 1900s: China ruled by a series of

(1) _____ .

1911: Nationalist Party overthrew the Manchu dynasty.

(2) _____ became president of the new Republic of China.

1920s: Battle for control of China between Nationalists and

(3) _____ .

1928: (4) _____ becomes the new leader of the Nationalist Republic of China.

1930: (5) _____ formed the Chinese Red Army to overthrow Nationalist government. His goal was to make China a Communist country.

1931: (6) _____ invaded China.

1945: World War II ends. (7) _____ forced out of China.



- 1949:** Mao Zedong's Red Army defeats the (8) _____ government. The People's Republic of China is established. Mao Zedong and the (9) _____ took control of China.
- 1960s:** Sino-Soviet split. Mao begins the (10) _____ Revolution.
- 1970s:** American President (11) _____ visits China and reestablishes communications between the two countries.
- 1980s:** (12) _____ introduced economic reforms, welcomed foreign investment, and accepted some limited (13) _____ .
- Student demonstrators in Tiananmen Square demanded more (14) _____ . The government responded by imposing (15) _____ , sending thousands of armed troops to crush the demonstrations.
- 1990s:** In response to the Tiananmen Square incident, many countries, including the United States instituted (16) _____ against China.
- China's most-favored-nation trading status was renewed after the Chinese released several hundred (17) _____ from prison.



Practice

Use the **information** in your **textbook** or **another reference source** to complete the chart below. Describe **issues facing China** using the following topics.

human rights	
Hong Kong	



Taiwan	
Problems between China and the United States	
Tibet	



Practice

Match each definition with the correct term. Write the letter on the line provided.

- | | |
|---|-----------------|
| _____ 1. strong support for the survival, success, and self-rule of one's country and culture | A. capitalism |
| _____ 2. in reality, production and distribution owned by the state | B. communism |
| _____ 3. a form of socialism in which all land and means of production are owned by the workers | C. democracy |
| _____ 4. an economic system in which land, factories, and production are controlled by individuals or groups | D. dictatorship |
| _____ 5. a political and economic theory in which the means of production—factories, machines, and land—are controlled by the government or society and the profits are shared equally among all its citizens | E. imperialism |
| _____ 6. a system of government in which power comes from the people | F. Marxism |
| _____ 7. the practice of establishing colonies; extending rule of one country over other countries or colonies | G. nationalism |
| _____ 8. system of government in which officials are elected by the citizens | H. nonaligned |
| _____ 9. a government ruled by a person who has complete control over the life of the people | I. republic |
| _____ 10. not allied with either side in a conflict, such as the Cold War | J. socialism |



Practice

Match each definition with the correct term. Write the letter on the line provided.

- | | |
|---|-----------------------------------|
| _____ 1. a large farm made up of many smaller farms and operated jointly by a group | A. clan |
| _____ 2. Soviet policy of competing with the United States while avoiding war | B. collective farm |
| _____ 3. a measure used to punish a specific action | C. demonstration |
| _____ 4. American position that made it possible for all countries to trade in China | D. dissident |
| _____ 5. geographic areas controlled by a country and used for its own benefit | E. exile |
| _____ 6. temporary rule by military authorities, limiting the rights of citizens | F. martial law |
| _____ 7. the act of showing ideas or feelings through public gatherings or parades | G. Open Door Policy |
| _____ 8. banishment or expulsion from one's country | H. peaceful coexistence |
| _____ 9. group of related families | I. sanction |
| _____ 10. a person who openly expresses opinions that differ from those held by the general society | J. spheres of influence |
| _____ 11. an international organization that establishes rules for the global trading system | K. World Trade Organization (WTO) |

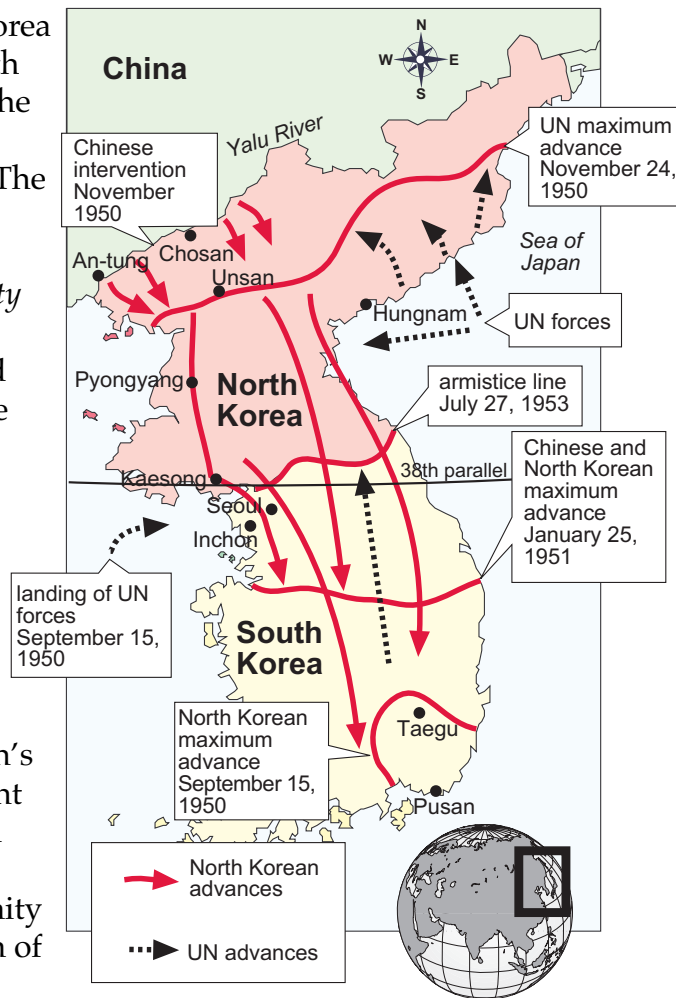


Korea

The Korean War: 1950-1953

As World War II ended, Korea wound up a divided nation. North of the 38th parallel (38 degrees North latitude), Japanese troops surrendered to the Soviet Union. South of the 38th parallel, Japanese troops surrendered to the United States. As in postwar divided Germany, two separate nations were created. In North Korea, a Communist *dictatorship* was established, while South Korea developed a non-Communist government. By 1949 both the Soviet Union and the United States had withdrawn their troops from the Korean peninsula.

In a surprise attack, the North Koreans invaded South Korea on June 25, 1950. The North Koreans wanted to unify the entire country under a Communist government. The United Nations (UN) was asked to intervene by the South Koreans. The *Security Council* (group that deals with political, military and diplomatic disputes) of the UN voted to condemn the invasion. The Security Council voted to send a multinational military force composed of troops from 15 UN member nations to stop the North Korean invasion. The Soviet Union's UN ambassador was absent when the Security Council vote was taken and thus *forfeited* (lost) his opportunity to *veto* (block) the UN plan of action.



Korean War 1950-1953



General Douglas
MacArthur

The North Korean army was very successful early in the war, eventually controlling almost all of South Korea.

General Douglas MacArthur led the UN troops, which were mostly United States soldiers. UN forces eventually began a strong counterattack. They pushed the retreating North Korean army north to the border with China at the Yalu River. A huge Communist Chinese army was sent to aid the Communist North Korean forces, soon forcing the UN army to retreat southward. By January 1951, UN forces had been pushed out of North Korea. With Chinese help, the North Korean army pushed southward, eventually capturing Seoul, the South Korean capital. General Douglas MacArthur wanted Harry Truman, the president of the

United States, to authorize the use of nuclear weapons to attack Chinese cities. Truman rejected this proposal, believing that the use of nuclear weapons against the Chinese would lead to a third world war, possibly involving a nuclear war with the Soviet Union. President Truman fired General MacArthur when he tried to get public support for the use of nuclear weapons by the United States during the Korean War.

Within two years the UN forces had driven the North Koreans back to the 38th parallel. By 1952 the fighting had reached a **stalemate** or *deadlock* and neither side was able to make further gains by advancing their troops. Finally on July 27, 1953, a *cease-fire* agreement, or an agreement to stop fighting, was signed. After three years and the deaths of five million people, the border between the two Koreas was again established at the 38th parallel, where the border had been before the fighting began. After a truce was signed ending the fighting, a **demilitarized zone** along both sides of the 38th parallel was established to separate North Korea from South Korea. United States troops have been stationed along the South Korean side of the *demilitarized zone* ever since. A permanent settlement of the war has never been signed.

Korea since the Korean War

North Korea

Korea remains divided into two separate countries. North Korea's Communist leader Kim Il Sung isolated his country from the rest of the world. He established a **repressive** Communist dictatorship in the North,



building up the country's military, heavy industry, and *collective farms*. After his death in 1994, his son Kim Jong Il came to power. Under his leadership, North Korea continued to develop an **arsenal** of nuclear weapons. In 1998 North Korea launched a test missile over Japan. Because of continued acts of aggression and continued tensions between North and South Korea, many nations continue to worry about the North Koreans' use of nuclear power.

During the 1990s, North Korea faced widespread crop failures and severe food shortages due to years of floods, extended **droughts**, and government mismanagement. Between two to three million people are estimated to have died of hunger between 1995 to 1998.

Korea Expands Its Nuclear Weapons Program

Since 2000, when North Koreans admitted that they had been secretly developing nuclear weapons, relations between North Korea and the United States have deteriorated. With the election of George W. Bush in 2000, the United States adopted a tougher, more aggressive stance toward North Korea. President George W. Bush publicly referred to North Korea as part of the "axis of evil" (which also included Iraq and Iran) and as an "outpost of tyranny." In 2003, North Korea withdrew from the **Nuclear Nonproliferation Treaty**, a treaty that limits the spread of nuclear weapons. Relations with the People's Republic of China (PRC) and its neighboring countries took a turn for the worse in 2006 when North Korea test-fired four or five short-range missiles which landed in the Sea of Japan. It also launched several long and medium-range missiles. North Korea claims that it has the sovereign right to test its missiles and pursue its weapons program.

In 2003, *six-party talks* had been the method used to resolve the concern brought about by North Korea's nuclear weapons program. Six-party talks is the name given to a series of meetings with six participating states—the People's Republic of China, South Korea, North Korea, the United States of America, the Russian Federation, and Japan. These talks were a result of North Korea withdrawing from the *Nuclear Nonproliferation Treaty* in 2003. The aim of these talks is to find a peaceful resolution to the security concerns raised by the North Korean nuclear weapons program. However, after five rounds of talks, little progress has been made. These actions motivated many in the international community to pursue more aggressive talks with the North Koreans.



The main points of concern are as follows:

- **Security guarantee**—North Korea is concerned that the Bush administration (2000-present) planned to overthrow their government. They became worried after the United States overthrew the **Taliban**, the very conservative Islamic government in Afghanistan in 2001. (See Afghanistan later in this unit.)
- **Peaceful use of nuclear energy**—the North Koreans claimed to be developing nuclear energy for civilian purposes, when in fact this was a cover for their development of their weapons program.
- **The restoration of diplomatic relations**—North Korea wants to normalize diplomatic relations with the United States as part of the bargain for giving up its nuclear weapons program.
- **Financial restrictions/Trade normalization**—the United States has placed heavy financial sanctions on North Korea for what is seen as an uncooperative attitude and unwillingness to dismantle its nuclear weapons program.
- **Verifiable disarmament**—members of the six-party talks have not all agreed on the best policy to insure that North Korea dismantles its nuclear weapons program. Gradual **disarmament** or immediate *disarmament* or the reducing the number of a country's weapon systems. In addition, North Korea wants the United States to guarantee in a treaty that they will not try to overthrow their government first before it will take any action in disarming their weapons program.
- **One-on-one talks with the United States**—the North Koreans want to abandon the six-party talks and negotiate directly with the United States. The Bush administration does not support this idea and wants the North Koreans to open talks with all member of the six-party group.



Kim Jong II (1941-)

Kim Jong II is the eldest son and successor to the longtime North Korean leader Kim II Sung. Mystery has surrounded Kim Jong II from birth to today. His father was in exile in the former Soviet Union where Kim Jong II was born February 16, 1941, but according to official North Korean accounts, he was born in a log cabin on North Korea's highest mountain, Mt. Paektu, in February 1942 where a double rainbow appeared over the mountain and a new star in the heavens appeared. Little is known about Kim Jong II's personal life even today.

Kim Jong II attended the Mangyongdae Revolutionary School, which was set up to train future political leaders in North Korea. After studying at various schools, he eventually transferred to Kim II Sung University, where he graduated in 1963 with a major in political economy.

After his father's death in 1994, Kim Jong II was eventually named as the chief of the Workers' Party of Korea, a major step to claim full leadership of the country. He was promoted to "Dear Leader," in late 1997, making him North Korea's general secretary of the main political party. By this time, North Korea had become one of the most isolated countries in the world with the economy in trouble.

Kim Jong II attracted global attention in September 1998 when North Korea fired a test missile over Japan. North Korea again surprised the world with a surprise attack in June 2002 on South Korea. But North Korea quickly apologized for the incident and reestablished diplomatic relations with Seoul and Tokyo. Later in the year, November 2002, Kim Jong II admitted that North Korea was developing weapons of mass destruction. This is about the same time that United States President George W. Bush was threatening military action against Iraq. The United States only option seem to be economic sanctions. In late December 2002, Kim expelled UN weapons inspectors from the country. On July 4, 2006, North Korea test-launched a series of ballistic missiles that could possibly be capable of reaching the American mainland, but they were unsuccessful in the test launch.



South Korea

With the help of the United States, the government of South Korea began to rebuild its economy. During the 1980s, South Korea's prosperity increased dramatically. South Korean industries *exported* automobiles, electronic products, and other goods. Since the 1960s, however, South Korea had a series of *repressive* dictatorships. Military backed dictators used the Communist threat as a means to limit civil liberties and to crush opposition groups.

During the 1980s, student protestors demanded an expansion of democracy. By 1987 a new constitution was adopted that allowed more political freedoms. Students and workers continued their push for more



The faces of South Korea.

social and political reforms, as well as for the reunification of Korea. Many South Koreans resented the presence of United States forces in South Korea and longed for the day when both North and South Korea were again one country. South Korea continued its democratic reforms. Many South Korean political leaders accused of corruption were forced out of office.

Eventually, voters were able to directly elect their president for the first time. In 1992 Kim Young Sam, a longtime political activist, won the

election as South Korea's first postwar civilian president. In 1998 Kim Dae Jung, another longtime supporter of democracy, was elected president. In July 2000, South Korean President Kim Dae Jung and North Korean leader Kim Jong Il met to discuss the future of the two Koreas. Many believed that this was an important first step toward eventual reunification, and eventually unification. However, the two sides were unable to agree on any substantial improvement in their relations.



Practice

Answer the following using complete sentences.

1. How was the division of Korea related to the Cold War? _____

2. Why did North Korea invade South Korea? _____

3. Why did President Truman decide *not* to use nuclear weapons during the Korean War? _____

4. How do North Korea and South Korea differ? _____

5. Why do you think that Korea may be harder to reunify than Germany? _____



6. Why have relations between North Korea and the United States

deteriorated? _____



Practice

Use the list below to write the correct term for each definition on the line provided.

arsenal	drought	stalemate
demilitarize	Nuclear Nonproliferation Treaty	Taliban
disarmament	repressive	

- _____ 1. cruel; keeping persons under control by use of fear or force
- _____ 2. a period of dry weather; lack of rain
- _____ 3. a place of storage for arms and military equipment
- _____ 4. a deadlock, or situation in which neither of two opponents can move any further
- _____ 5. to disband the armed forces and remove military equipment from a region
- _____ 6. the process of reducing the number of a country's weapon systems
- _____ 7. an international treaty that limits the spread of nuclear weapons
- _____ 8. a very conservative Islamic government in Afghanistan



Japan

Democracy after World War II

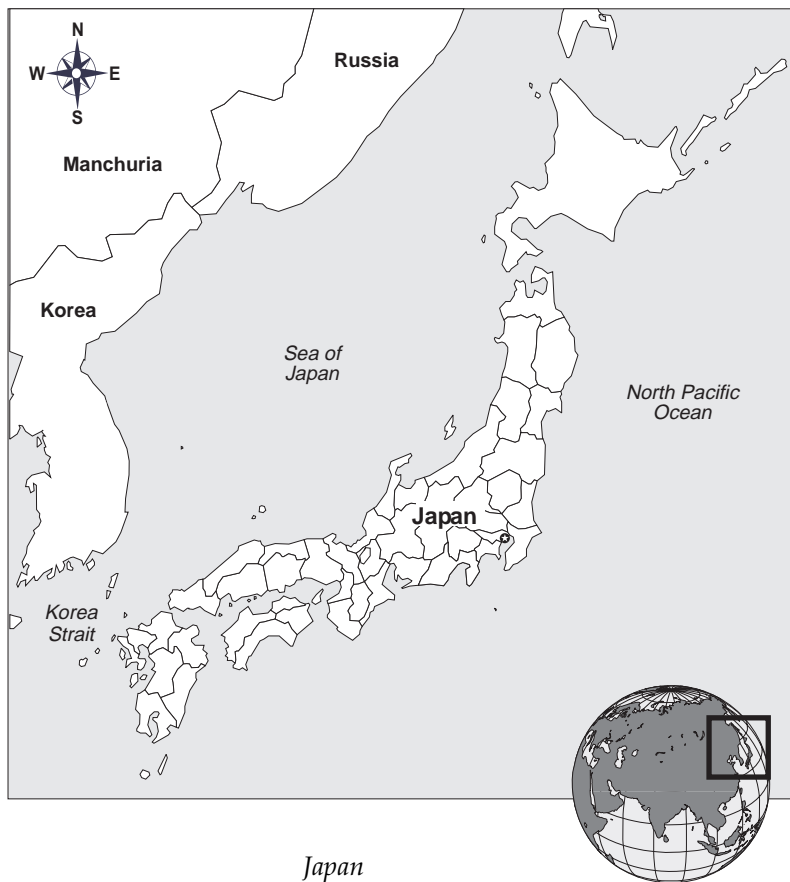
Near the end of World War II, the Japanese government finally surrendered to the Allies after the United States destroyed the Japanese cities of Nagasaki and Hiroshima with atomic bombs. Japan was in ruins after the war. The capital city of Tokyo and other major cities had been severely damaged by the Allied bombings. Japan was also stripped of its colonial empire after the war. Japan lost territories such as Korea, Taiwan, Manchuria, and many small islands in the Pacific, as well as lands conquered during the war. The Allied countries that defeated Japan established an occupation government known as the *Supreme Command of the Allied Powers* (SCAP) to govern Japan after the war. General Douglas MacArthur, who led the United States troops to victory in the Pacific against Japan, became the military commander of Japan during the American occupation after the war. To ensure that Japan would not be a military threat, the SCAP *demilitarized* or disbanded Japan's armed forces. MacArthur also helped the Japanese set up a democratic form of government. In 1946 a new constitution was put in place. It created a *parliamentary* democracy similar to that of Great Britain, where the country is led by the *prime minister*, who is the leader of the majority party in the legislature. The new Japanese legislature would be elected by male and female citizens over the age of 20 and a bill of rights that guaranteed civil liberties was put into effect.

The Japanese people had thought of their emperor as a living god with divine powers. After the war, the new constitution forced the emperor to tell the Japanese people he was not a god, and he was stripped of all political power. The constitution also included an important provision known as *Article 9*. It stated that the Japanese people had to forever **renounce** war. This was done so that Japan would never again pose a threat to neighboring countries. An international **tribunal** tried many wartime leaders as war criminals in 1948. On April 28, 1952, a peace treaty between Japan and the United States went into effect, which ended the occupation of Japan.

During the 1950s, with the assistance of the United States, Japan's economy quickly recovered. SCAP put in place economic reforms that broke up the large farms and sold off the land at low prices to small farmers. The old giant industrial and banking organizations that had controlled Japanese industry were also divided in order to prevent Japan



from rearming itself. The Korean War changed American policies towards Japan, leading to the rapid growth of new Japanese industries. The United States poured billions of dollars into Japan so that its new factories could produce the supplies needed for the war effort. Japan eventually became an industrial giant as the United States provided the investment and training needed for Japan to build more new and modern factories. Although Japan had to **import** most of the raw materials needed to keep its factories efficient, its government worked hand in hand with corporate leaders to promote research and development in electronics and the automobile industry.



Japan

By the 1970s, Japan had emerged as a major world industrial power. Its radios, televisions, stereos, and other electronic goods competed well on the world market. Its fuel-efficient automobiles were sold around the world. Japan's rapid economic growth continued through the 1980s.



By the 1970s, Japan had emerged as a major world industrial power.

Japan's prosperity created tensions, however. Because Japan sells more goods than it buys, many countries have *trade deficits* with Japan. A trade deficit occurs when a country *imports* more goods than it exports. The Japanese government limits the amount of foreign goods that can be sold in its country, causing trade deficits with Japan's Asian neighbors, Europe, and

the United States. The United States threatened to impose high *tariffs* (taxes or duties) on Japanese cars unless Japan agreed to open its markets to foreign competition. The United States and Japan have been working together to improve their trading policies.

Challenges Facing Japan

In the 1990s, Japan suffered a **recession** that caused the value of its real estate and foreign investments to drop, causing many workers to lose their jobs. The Japanese government, which had been the most stable government in Asia, began to face some difficult challenges. Japan had been a one-party state with the Liberal Democratic Party



Japan's rapid economic growth continued through the 1980s.

(LDP) dominating Japanese politics for over 30 years. Support began to crumble as the LDP faced political scandals and charges of corruption. In 1993 the LDP lost its sole control of power. The LDP had to share power with other political parties in a series of **coalition governments** made up of temporary alliances of opposing political groups. The rapid **industrialization** of Japan also led to environmental problems that the Japanese government has taken steps to correct. Japan has also had to deal



with an increase of violent crime. Violent crimes involving American servicemen in Okinawa and **terrorist** attacks shocked Japanese citizens who believed that their country was one of the safest in the world.

Japan

During the early 21st century, Japan's once stagnant economy began to rebound, and by 2004, foreign investment in Japan surged to a record high. Japan has maintained close economic and security ties to its main ally, the United States.

In recent years, Japan has had an ongoing dispute with North Korea over its nuclear weapons program and abduction of Japanese citizens. Its relationship with many of its neighbors is strained due to territorial disputes with Russia, South Korea, the People's Republic of China, and Taiwan. These disputes concern control of marine and natural resources, such as possible reserves of crude oil and natural gas.



Japan's once stagnant economy began to rebound, and, by 2004, foreign investment in Japan surged to a record high.



Practice

Answer the following using complete sentences.

1. How did the occupation government transform Japan after World

War II? _____

2. How did the Japanese economy grow in the postwar years? _____

3. Why has Japan's economic prosperity caused tensions with other nations? _____

4. What challenges does Japan face today? _____



Practice

Match each definition with the correct term. Write the letter on the line provided.

- | | | |
|----------|---|-------------------------|
| _____ 1. | the process of developing machine-made goods | A. coalition government |
| _____ 2. | a court of justice | B. import |
| _____ 3. | to give up by formal declaration | C. industrialization |
| _____ 4. | to bring goods into one country from another country | D. recession |
| _____ 5. | a period when business is bad; less serious than a depression | E. renounce |
| _____ 6. | temporary alliance of various political parties | F. terrorist |
| _____ 7. | a member of a group that uses violence to intimidate a government into granting their demands | G. tribunal |



Southeast Asia

Independence Movements in Southeast Asia: French Indochina

Nearly all of the countries in Southeast Asia have been under colonial rule at one time in their histories. Following World War II, some of these countries gained their independence from European control without war or violence. However, in the eastern part of Southeast Asia—called *French Indochina*—one of the bloodiest struggles for independence took place. As you can tell by its name, the French-controlled Indochina. This colony included the modern-day countries of Vietnam, Laos, and Cambodia.



Vietnam War 1964-1975



Eventually, France left Indochina. The United State's involvement in Vietnam was a result of its Cold War policy of *containment*. America's main foreign policy goal in the post-World War II period was to halt the spread of communism and keep Southeast Asia from becoming Communist. The United States eventually began to fight an *undeclared war* in Vietnam. The Vietnam War proved to be one of the costliest and most unpopular wars the United States has ever fought.

Vietnam

Ho Chi Minh and War with France

After World War II, the popular Vietnamese Nationalist leader Ho Chi Minh called on the people of Vietnam to demand independence from French rule. The French were not willing to grant independence. Ho Chi Minh told his people that they would have to fight the French in Vietnam until the French were forced to leave. Vietnamese Nationalists and Communists joined forces. The French armies controlled the major cities, but in the countryside, the *Vietminh* (Independence) league had the widespread support of the peasants.

Ho Chi Minh set up a government in northern Vietnam, while the French set up a government in the south. Communist countries throughout the world supported Minh and his northern government. In southern Vietnam, the United States aided the French. Vietnam was becoming a divided country fighting a civil war.



From 1945 to 1954, the Vietminh fought the French using **guerrilla warfare**. *Guerrilla warfare* is a strategy in which small bands of **guerrilla** fighters who are not part of a formal army attack the enemy using hit-and-run tactics and then quickly disappear into the cover of their surroundings. *Guerrilla* soldiers usually make *sneak attacks* (attacking at night). In South Vietnam, the guerrillas (also called the *Viet Cong*) hid in the jungle, rice paddies, caves, and underground tunnels. The French armies never knew when or where they would be attacked.



As the years passed, Ho Chi Minh's popularity with the Vietnamese people increased. In 1954 a large French army was attacked and defeated by the Vietnamese army at a place called *Dien Bien Phu*. After that loss, France agreed to a settlement. At the peace conference in Geneva, the United States and France tried to limit Communist influence in Vietnam, a goal politically important to the United States. The United States was afraid that the Communists were gaining too much power in Asia. Even with free elections in Vietnam, the United States government knew that Ho Chi Minh would probably win and set up a Communist government. President Eisenhower said that the United States government would not sign a treaty that would create a Communist country. He described the Communist threat in terms of the **domino theory**. According to this theory, the Southeast Asian countries were like a row of dominos, and the fall of one to Communist control would lead to the fall of its neighboring countries.

Vietnam Becomes a Divided Country



Vietnam divided

According to the peace terms, Vietnam was divided along the 17th parallel or latitude. Vietnam, like Korea, was now divided in half. The north became a Communist country with its capital in the city of Hanoi. Ho Chi Minh became the leader of North Vietnam. To the south, the United States and France set up an anti-Communist government with its capital in the city of Saigon. With the help of the United States, an anti-Communist government was set up in South Vietnam with Ngo Dinh Diem (noh dihn d'yem) as president. The leaders of South Vietnam promised the United States that they would create a democracy with free elections in South Vietnam. With that promise,

the United States agreed to continue assisting South Vietnam in its struggle against North Vietnam.



The Vietnam War: 1964-1975

The involvement of the United States in Vietnam gradually increased. The United States sent increasing numbers of tanks, planes, and other military equipment to South Vietnam. The United States government never officially declared war on North Vietnam. In the early days of this conflict, the government kept secret from the American people much information about the extent of American involvement in Vietnam. Throughout the late 1950s, President Eisenhower sent military and economic aid to South Vietnam. President Kennedy continued this policy and also sent American military *advisers* to South Vietnam.



American military advisers fought alongside the South Vietnamese troops.

In North Vietnam, Ho Chi Minh received weapons and advice from the Soviet Union and China. In the early 1960s, Ho Chi Minh began guerrilla warfare to overthrow the government of South Vietnam. As the Viet Cong increased its guerrilla warfare, the United States increased its involvement. For the first time, American military advisers fought alongside the South Vietnamese troops. Vietnam was being torn apart, not only by its own people but also by the superpowers and their Cold War.

South Vietnam: An Unstable Government

The government and leadership of South Vietnam were not very popular with the people. The South Vietnamese leader Ngo Dinh Diem ruled as a dictator—free elections were never held. In 1963 a group of South Vietnamese generals—with the quiet backing of the United States—planned a **coup**. They overthrew the government and killed Diem. The new leaders were no more popular than Diem had been. The government of South Vietnam remained corrupt and inefficient. In the next three years, nine different military groups ruled South Vietnam. It soon became apparent that South Vietnam could not win a war against the North Vietnamese Communists unless the United States increased its military support.



President Johnson Increases United States Involvement

In August 1964, United States President Lyndon Johnson told Congress that North Vietnamese patrol boats had attacked two American destroyers in the Tonkin Gulf. As a result, Congress passed the *Gulf of Tonkin Resolution*, which gave the president authority to wage an *undeclared* war on North Vietnam. The number of American troops in South Vietnam then significantly increased under President Johnson. By late 1965, more than 185,000 United States soldiers were in South Vietnam. American planes began to bomb North Vietnam. In the years following, the war escalated and the number of troops and amount of fighting increased steadily. By 1968 over 500,000 American soldiers were sent to South Vietnam to fight the North Vietnamese.

The United States had the best-equipped and most advanced army in the world. However, it faced two major difficulties in its war against the North Vietnamese. The United States military was skillful at fighting a *conventional*, or traditional war, the



The number of American troops in South Vietnam significantly increased under President Johnson.

kind of open warfare it had fought in World War I, World War II, and the Korean War. The United States military was not used to fighting a guerrilla war in unfamiliar jungle *terrain* (land). Also, the Viet Cong had strong popular support among the Vietnamese people. The South Vietnamese government, on the other hand, had steadily become more unpopular. When the United States was unable to win a *decisive* or a final and complete victory on the ground, it began to increase the use of air power. In order to destroy enemy hideouts, American forces bombed millions of acres of forests and farmland.

The War Becomes Unpopular in America

As the 1960s wore on, many Americans began questioning their government's involvement in the Vietnam War. The war became increasingly unpopular in the United States, and by 1968, a majority of Americans opposed United States involvement in Vietnam. Peace marches and antiwar demonstrations took place throughout the United States. The turning point in the war came in early 1968, when the Viet Cong began a



major offensive known as the *Tet Offensive*. The bitter fighting made Americans realize that United States involvement in the war had not weakened the Viet Cong. In late 1968, President Johnson announced a limited *halt* or stop to the bombing of North Vietnam.

The United States Withdraws: Communist Victory

The Pentagon Papers, a top-secret study officially titled “The History of the U.S. Decision Making Process in Vietnam,” were revealed to the public in 1971. The Pentagon Papers detailed government deceptions about United States policy in Vietnam dating back to the administration of President Harry S Truman (1945-1953).

The documents revealed that the Gulf of Tonkin Resolution was drafted months before the incident for which it was named took place. The papers also revealed that President Lyndon Johnson (1963-1969) had been committing infantry to Vietnam while telling the nation that he had no long-range plans for the war. The Pentagon Papers stirred growing antiwar sentiment.



Vietnamization allowed for a gradual troop withdrawal of American troops from Vietnam from 1971-1972.

Fulfilling a campaign promise, newly-elected President Richard Nixon began a program called *Vietnamization*. It allowed for a gradual troop withdrawal of American troops from Vietnam from 1971-1972. Nixon wanted the South Vietnamese to increase their combat role in the war, while American troops were being withdrawn. Massive bombings of North Vietnamese bases and supply routes in Laos and Cambodia escalated. Finally in 1973, an agreement was reached for a cease-fire. The remaining 25,000 American troops returned home. However, the United States Air Force withdrew only to nearby Thailand, and the United States continued to supply aid to the South Vietnamese.

Fighting continued until the spring of 1975, when South Vietnam, unable to fend off the North Vietnamese on their own, fell to the Viet Cong. Following North Vietnam’s victory, all of Vietnam came under a Communist government. North and South Vietnam were united into one country. The capital of Vietnam remained at Hanoi. Saigon, South Vietnam’s capital, was renamed Ho Chi Minh City in honor of the Communist leader. Ho Chi Minh’s dream of a united, independent



Vietnam was realized. By the end of the war, an estimated 58,000 American troops and 250,000 South Vietnamese troops had died. Viet Cong and North Vietnamese deaths numbered over 1.5 million.

Estimated Deaths during the Vietnam War	
American troops	58,000
South Vietnamese troops	250,000
Viet Cong and North Vietnamese troops	1.5 million

Refugees

In 1975 the Communists moved into South Vietnam and its capital, Saigon. Thousands of South Vietnamese people were sent to *reeducation camps* for training in Communist *ideology*. The Communists took control of businesses and nationalized industries. Communist **oppression** caused 1.5 million people to flee Vietnam. These **refugees**, who fled to escape danger, came to be known as the *boat people* because they escaped in small, overcrowded ships. More than 200,000 of these boat people died at sea. Many were victims of storms, disease, and pirates. Survivors spent months or years in crowded refugee camps in Southeast Asia. About 70,000 Vietnamese *refugees* settled in the United States or Canada.

Vietnam Today

Since the end of the war, Vietnam has faced many economic problems. To improve its economy, it began to encourage some limited *private enterprise* (business) and trade with the West. During the 1990s, Vietnam and the United States began to improve their relationship. The Vietnamese government began to help American families locate and return the remains of American soldiers killed in the Vietnam War. However, the remains of many military personnel *missing in action* (MIAs) have not yet been located. In 1994 the United States, satisfied with Vietnam's efforts to account for American *prisoners of war* (POWs) and MIAs, ended its 19-year trade **embargo** with Vietnam. In 1995 full diplomatic



The Three Servicemen Statue at the Vietnam Veterans Memorial, Washington DC.



ties were established between the United States and Vietnam. The United States government appointed Florida congressman Douglas “Pete” Peterson as ambassador to Vietnam. Many American and Western companies have built factories and opened businesses in Vietnam.

In recent years, Vietnam has encouraged foreign investment. Western companies have built factories and opened businesses. During the early 21st century, Vietnam’s government had developed policies to encourage the modernization of the economy and signed a trade agreement with the United States. By 2001, the government was taking steps toward its goal of joining the *World Trade Organization (WTO)*. The WTO is an international trade organization that establishes rules for the global trading system. All WTO members are supposed to grant each other “most favored nation status” in regards to free trade without restrictions with all trading partners.

Douglas “Pete” Peterson (1935-)

Pete Peterson was born in Omaha, Nebraska on June 26, 1935. He received a B.A. degree from the University of Tampa and did graduate work at Central Michigan. Peterson served in the Air Force from 1954-1981. On a bombing raid in 1966 over North Vietnam, Captain Peterson was shot down and captured by Vietnamese militia. On his 67th mission, Peterson was hit by anti-aircraft fire. He ejected from the plane and crashed landed into a tree. The local militia were under strict orders not to kill American pilots. He and other pilots who were captured were paraded through villages. They were objects of hate for people who had lived too long with a destructive war. He was held prisoner for the next six and a half years characterized by isolation, torture, and interrogation. He and 500 other POWs were released in 1973 following the signing of the Paris Accords.

After serving 26 years in the United States Air Force, Peterson retired in 1981. He eventually settled in Marianna, Florida after several family tragedies and became a Florida State University faculty member. In 1990 Peterson decided to run for United States Congress. He was 53 years old. He beat the incumbent and went on to serve three terms as a member of the House of Representatives. Peterson returned to Vietnam in 1991 as a member of Congress, and in 1996 President Bill Clinton nominated him to be an ambassador to Vietnam. It took more than a year to confirm him as ambassador because so many different groups did not want to re-establish relations with Vietnam. In April 1997, Peterson became the first ambassador to Vietnam in 22 years. This was a historic turning point in Vietnamese-American relations.



Cambodia: A Reign of Terror

In 1953 Cambodia won its independence from France. The country then became a **constitutional monarchy** led by King Norodom Sihanouk. Cambodia tried to remain neutral during the Vietnam War. However, when North Vietnam and the Viet Cong troops began using Cambodia as a hiding place, Cambodia was drawn into the war. American planes began bombing Viet Cong camps and supply lines in Cambodia. As a result of the bombing, the conflict between Communist rebels and the Cambodian government increased. In 1970 an army officer named Lon Nol overthrew the Cambodian government of Sihanouk.



Cambodia

Between 1970-1975, North Vietnam and the Viet Cong forces in Cambodia supported Cambodian Communist guerrillas called the *Khmer Rouge* to fight Lon Nol's government. Cambodia eventually fell to the Communist leader Pol Pot and his troops in 1975. The country was renamed *Kampuchea*. In order to drastically change Cambodian society, the Pol Pot government began a *reign* (period of rule) of terror. The government killed anyone that it believed to be an enemy of the Communist Revolution. All the people

who lived in cities were moved to rural areas. They were forced to work on government-run farms under the close supervision of the army. The Khmer Rouge wanted Cambodia to become a self-sufficient agricultural country. Pol Pot's army murdered government workers, teachers, and many other educated professionals who may have supported the old system. Conditions in Cambodia were terrible. Starvation, torture, and famine were widespread. The Khmer Rouge killed over three million people, one third of the nation's population.

In December of 1978, Vietnam invaded Kampuchea and eventually overthrew the Khmer Rouge and Pol Pot. Vietnam installed a new government and attempted to rebuild the country's economy. The Vietnamese withdrew their forces in 1979. The Khmer Rouge withdrew to remote areas and continued fighting for years to regain power. Since 1990 the United Nations has attempted to restore peace to Kampuchea, which



is again called *Cambodia*. Many refugees are being resettled in their country in an attempt to restore normal conditions to this shattered nation. In October 1991, the representatives of the four major political groups in Cambodia signed an agreement that ended the 20-year civil war and called for free elections. In 1993 elections brought about the establishment of a stable government. A *coalition* or temporary alliance was formed between several political parties. In 1994 the united government captured Khmer Rouge strongholds. By 1997 all the remaining Khmer Rouge leaders were captured or surrendered. Trials for the mass murderers were scheduled to begin. Pol Pot was never held accountable for his crimes. He died in his jungle hideout in 1998.

Pol Pot (1928-1998)

Cambodian politician Pol Pot was born Saloth Sar on May 19, 1928, in Kompong Thom Province, Cambodia. When he was five or six, he was sent to live with his older brother in Phnom Penh. He was not a good student and failed the entrance examination for high school, so he briefly studied carpentry. In 1949 he was awarded a scholarship to study radio electronics in Paris. While there, he became active in the anti-French resistance under Ho Chi-Minh. His scholarship was cut short after he failed examinations, and he returned to Phnom Penh in 1953 but had to leave in 1963 because of his Communist ties. By 1963 he adopted the pseudonym Pol Pot and continued in his efforts to strengthen the Communist Party. In 1975, Pol Pot became prime minister and in 1976 became leader of the Khmer Rouge guerrillas. As the country's new prime minister, he set up a totalitarian regime which caused the death, imprisonment, or exile of an estimated 1.7 million people. Hundreds of thousands of Cambodians were forced to work on disease-ridden collective farms. He withdrew to the mountains to lead the Khmer Rouge forces against the Vietnamese invasion of his country. He announced his retirement in 1985, but he remained an influential figure. On April 15, 1998, just as negotiations for his transfer for trial seemed promising, Pol Pot died of natural causes.

Despite the progress made in recent years, the economy of Cambodia continues to suffer from the effects of decades of civil war and government corruption. The standard of living is improving rapidly, but remains low compared with its neighbors in this region. Most rural households depend



on agriculture. The general population in the countryside lacks the education and skills necessary for Cambodia's economic growth. The government is trying to attract foreign investment and recently has seen an increase in its tourist industry. The tourism industry is the country's second-greatest source of revenue. Next is "hard currency," which is currency or money that is widely accepted around the world as a form of payment for goods and services. After that is the textile industry.

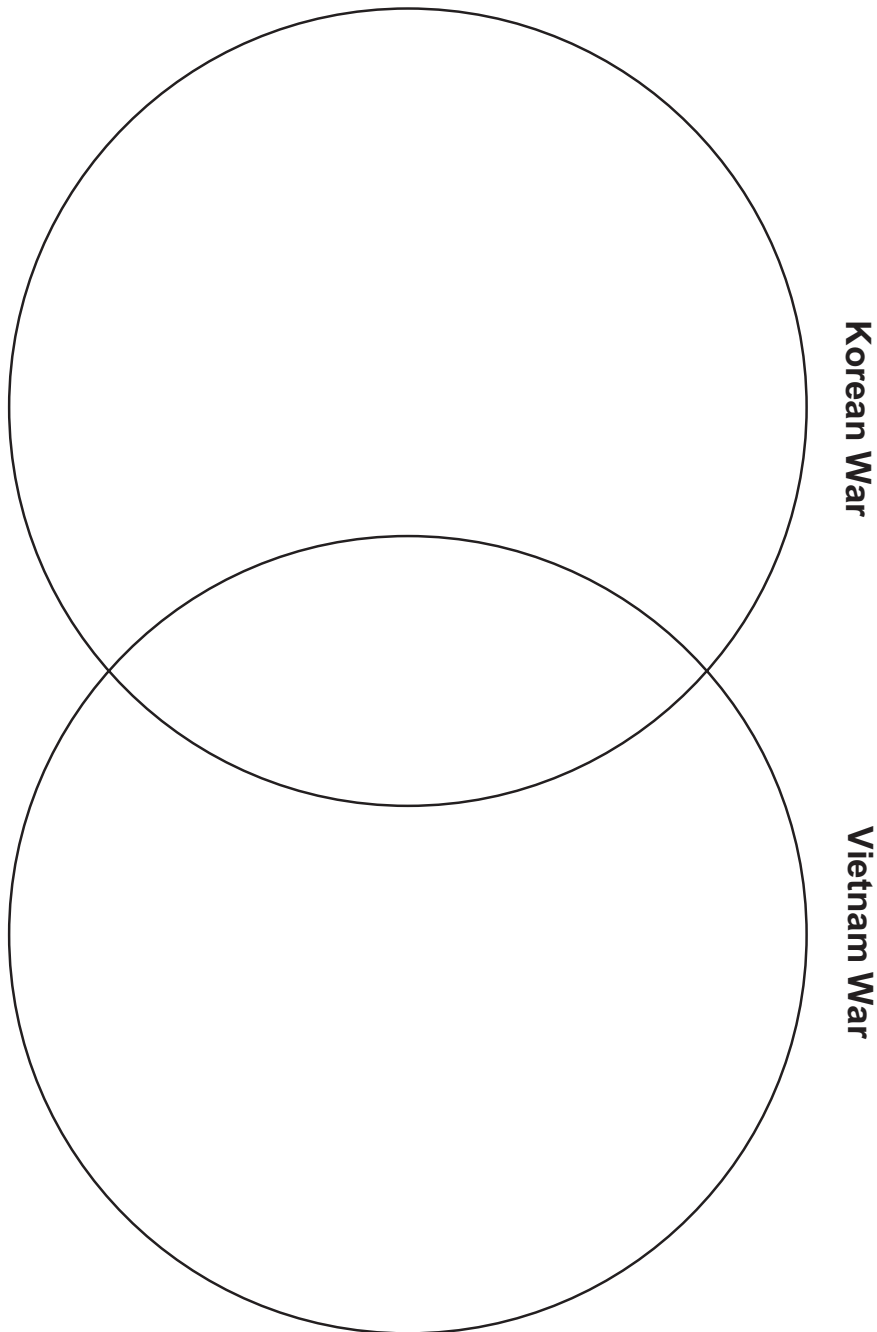


Angkor Wat is a massive complex of ancient Cambodian temples with a 2.5 mile perimeter. It was constructed over 30 years and consists of five towers with beautiful examples of Khmer and Hindu art. In 1992, the United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) World Heritage Committee declared the monument, and the whole city of Angkor, a World Heritage site.



Practice

Use a **reference source** and your **textbook** to **compare and contrast** the **causes and effects** of the **Korean War** and the **Vietnam War** on the **Venn diagram** below.





Practice

Answer the following using short answers.

1. Who was the popular leader of the Vietnamese people after World War II? _____
2. As a result of the peace conference in Geneva, how was Vietnam divided? _____
3. Which American president used the Gulf of Tonkin Resolution to fight an undeclared war in Vietnam? _____
4. What happened in Vietnam after the American soldiers left? _____

5. Who were the “boat people”? _____

6. Do you think the United States involvement in the Vietnam War was justified? Explain. _____

7. What problems did Vietnam and the United States have to resolve after the war? _____

8. What did Pol Pot and the Khmer Rouge do to the people of Cambodia during their reign of terror? _____



Practice

Match each definition with the correct term. Write the letter on the line provided.

- | | |
|--|-----------------------------------|
| _____ 1. a person who flees to a foreign country to escape danger | A. constitutional monarchy |
| _____ 2. control or rule by unjust and cruel means of authority or power | B. coup |
| _____ 3. a government led by a ruler whose power is limited by law | C. domino theory |
| _____ 4. the idea that the fall of one nation to communism would lead to the fall of its neighbors | D. embargo |
| _____ 5. a type of warfare in which small groups of revolutionary fighters, not part of a regular army, use surprise attacks against their enemies | E. guerrilla |
| _____ 6. a sudden takeover of a country's government | F. guerrilla warfare |
| _____ 7. one of a group of fighters—not part of a formal army—who attacks suddenly and withdraws swiftly | G. oppression |
| _____ 8. a government's restriction or suspension of foreign trade with a particular country | H. refugee |
| _____ 9. an international organization that establishes rules for the global trading system | I. World Trade Organization (WTO) |



Myanmar (Burma)

Myanmar, formerly known as *Burma*, became an independent republic in 1948. Facing ethnic tensions and opposition from the Communists, Myanmar's government became dominated by military leaders in 1962. During the 1960s-1970s, Myanmar's repressive military dictatorship seized control of the economy and strictly limited human rights. It closed off Myanmar from contact with the outside world.

Myanmar's economy was modeled after the Chinese state-controlled economy. By the 1980s, the people began to protest the government's policies and push for democracy. When free elections were held in 1990, the opposition party led by Aung San Suu Kyi (awng sahn soo shee) won the election. The government leaders refused to accept the results of the election and jailed, killed, or sent into exile many of the opposition leaders.



The temple of Dhammayangyi, Bagan, Myanmar (Burma) is easily viewed. One can gaze over 40 square miles of countryside with thousands of temples in sight.

Aung San Suu Kyi was placed under house arrest. In 1991 she was awarded the Nobel Peace Prize for her nonviolent struggle for human rights and democracy in her country. She was released in 1995 after worldwide attention was focused on her struggle. Her house arrest was extended in May 2007. Although peace talks with rebel groups began, the military government has refused to allow the **parliament** to meet. The people of Myanmar continue to struggle for democracy to this day.



Aung San Suu Kyi (1945-)

Aung San Suu Kyi was born in Yangon, Myanmar (formerly Rangoon, Burma). She studied in India and at Oxford where she met her future husband. They had two children and lived a relatively quiet life until she returned to Myanmar to care for her dying mother. Social unrest forced dictator General Ne Win to resign in 1988, and the military took power. Aung San Suu Kyi began speaking out against him and began a nonviolent struggle for human rights and democracy. She co-founded the National League for Democracy (NLD). She was later arrested in 1989 along with many NLD members. In 1990 the NLD won more than 80 percent of the parliamentary seats that were contested, but the military government ignored it. The military agreed to release her from house arrest if she would agree to leave Myanmar, but she refused to leave until political prisoners were freed and the country was returned to the civilian government. She was awarded the Nobel Peace Prize in 1991 and was released from house arrest in July 1995.

In recent years, she has been repeatedly placed under house arrest. Despite a direct appeal by Kofi Annan, the UN secretary to Burmese government, and pressure from the world community, the Burmese **military junta** extended Aung San Suu Kyi's house arrest in May 2007.

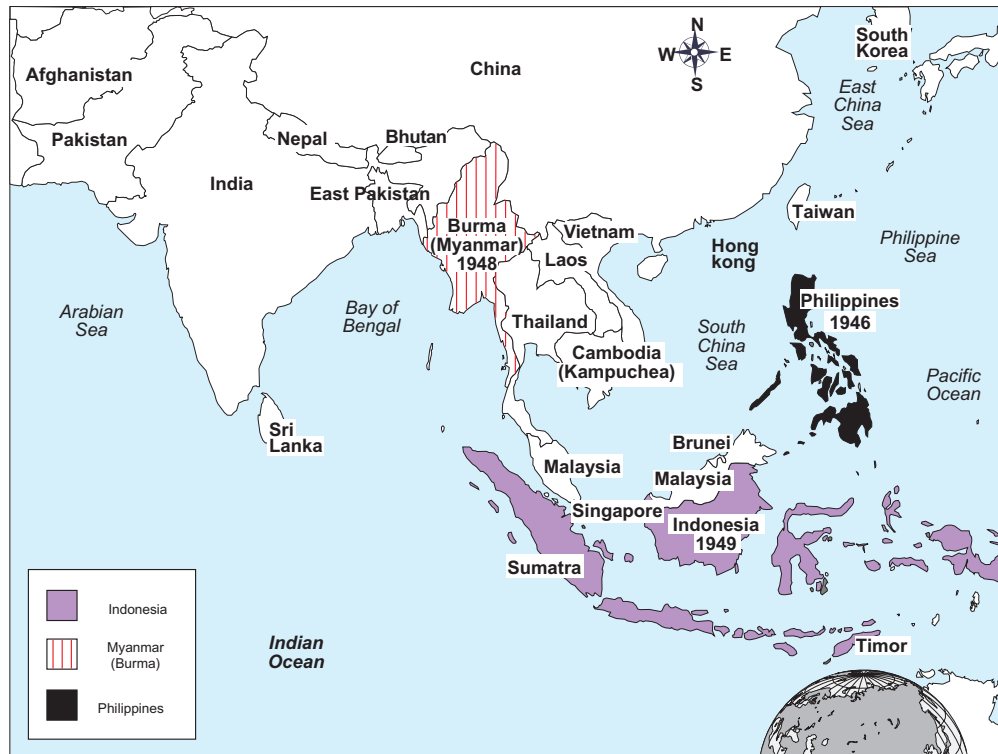
Myanmar's foreign relations, especially with the West, have been strained. The United States has placed economic sanctions on Myanmar because its government refused to uphold the results of the 1990 People's Assembly election. In addition, the EU has placed an arms *embargo* and discontinued all aid, with the exception of humanitarian aid.

Indonesia

Indonesia won its independence from the Dutch after World War II. Like many other third world nations, Indonesia had numerous obstacles to overcome. Indonesia, like the Philippines, is an *archipelago* (a group of many islands). Indonesia has 13,000 islands which stretch across 3,000 miles of ocean. Its 200 million people include many different ethnic groups and religions. Indonesia's first President Achmed Sukarno united his country's diverse population and took a leadership role in international affairs. Sukarno's government became *hostile* (angry towards) to the West and friendly with Communist China. The influence of communism in Indonesia grew steadily. A giant power struggle between the military and



the Indonesian Communist Party (PKI) caused increasing tensions in Sukarno's government. Then in 1965, a group of the military's army officers attempted to overthrow the government.



Indonesia, Myanmar (Burma), and the Philippines

A military leader named Suharto put down the *coup*, and then *seized* (took) power for himself. The coup was blamed on the Communists. Thousands were killed in a violent revolt that followed, primarily the ethnic Chinese who were suspected of being Communists or Communist sympathizers. Strongly anti-Communist, Suharto eventually became the new president in 1967. Suharto's policies soon turned Indonesia into a police state. He frequently placed his country under *martial law* (military rule) and was accused of many human rights violations. The Chinese living in Indonesia often faced discrimination, and the Christian population was frequently persecuted.

In the decades that followed, Indonesia's economy grew rapidly because of its oil and mineral resources, as well as agricultural exports of coffee and rubber. However, only the rich enjoyed the benefits of Indonesia's expanding economy. In 1975 Indonesia invaded and eventually *annexed*



(took control of) the eastern half of the island of Timor, which had been a Portuguese colony. Indonesia, a former Dutch colony, including East Timor, was governed by Portuguese for 400 years. The people of East Timor are mainly Catholic, although 90 percent of Indonesians are Muslim.

Since the annexation, more than 200,000 Timorese have died from starvation due to famine, disease, and fighting. In 1996 East Timor received international attention when two of its resistance activists, Bishop Carlos Filipe Ximenes Belo and Jose Ramos-Horta, received the Nobel Peace Prize. In August 1999, the UN-sponsored election in East Timor resulted in 79 percent of the population voting to *secede* (to break away) from Indonesia. After the election, pro-Indonesian militias and Indonesian soldiers massacred civilians and forced a third of the population out of the region. After international pressure, Indonesia agreed to allow UN forces into East Timor. A peacekeeping force tried to restore order. About 100,000 refugees were living in dirty, disease-ridden camps in West Timor. Tensions were still running high as local and world leaders sought to find ways to peacefully relocate people to their homes.

In 1997 Indonesia, like many other Asian nations, suffered economic setbacks. The value of the currency rapidly declined and many banks failed. Riots and antigovernment demonstrations broke out. Student demonstrators demanded the resignation of Suharto. In 1998 Suharto resigned, ending 32 years of rule. Student demonstrations continued as the economic crisis in Indonesia increased. Many demonstrators demanded political and economic reforms. On June 7, 1999, Indonesia had its first free parliamentary election since 1955. Presidential elections were held in November 1999. The newly elected President Abdurrahman Wahid announced that corruption charges would be filed against former President Suharto. Suharto was accused of stealing over \$157 million from charitable foundations he controlled. In addition, President Wahid promised to pardon Suharto if he returned the estimated \$45 billion he stole from the Indonesian people.

From 1998 to 2006, Indonesia has had four presidents. Corruption and political scandals, internal ethnic and religious strife have created continued instability in Indonesia. In 2002 Indonesian government leaders amended the constitution and established the direct election of their president. The first direct presidential election was held in 2004 and won



by Susilo Bambang Yudhoyono. The new president has promised to work to increase prosperity through continued economic growth based on foreign investment.

Since 2001, the Indonesian government has collaborated with the United States in cracking down on Islamic *terrorist* groups. In 2002, the deadliest act of terrorism in Indonesian history occurred in Bali. The majority of the 200 killed were foreign tourists, in particular Australians. The group suspected of the bombings was a radical fundamentalist Muslim terror network organized by Osama bin Laden, known as **al Qaeda** or **al-Qaeda**. Those involved in this terrorist act were sentenced to death.

In December of 2004, a powerful earthquake and **tsunami** (or large ocean wave) destroyed parts of the island of Sumatra in Indonesia. Again in March of 2005 and May of 2006, earthquakes destroyed many of the island communities, killing thousands.

The Philippines Struggle towards Democracy

The Southeast Asian nation known as the *Philippines* is an archipelago (a group of many islands) east of Vietnam in the Pacific Ocean. After World War II, the Philippines won their independence, ending almost 50 years of American rule. The United States had controlled the Philippines since the end of the Spanish-American War in 1898. Although the Philippines were an independent nation, the United States controlled several military bases by treaty and maintained a strong economic presence there.



Philippines

Although the Philippines had a democratic government, a wealthy upper class tightly controlled politics and the economy. The rich controlled most of the land, with the economy being dependent upon plantation agriculture. The majority of the population were poor countryside



dwellers who survived on inadequate amounts of food they grew on their small farms. Many moved into the cities, leading to the development of massive slums.

In 1965 Ferdinand Marcos was elected president. Although he promised reforms, he made himself dictator of the Philippines. Political opponents were persecuted or forced into exile. During the 1970s, his corrupt and repressive government was faced with demonstrations and left-wing guerrilla movements. The Marcos government responded by declaring martial law. Marcos' downfall resulted when his government **assassinated** popular opposition leader Benigno Aquino. Public outrage over the assassination forced new elections in 1986. Marcos won the election, but many suspected fraud. The Philippine people were unwilling to accept the outcome of the election and violent protests led to the overthrow of the Marcos' government. Corazon Aquino, the widow of the murdered opposition leader, became the new president.

When Mrs. Aquino took office, she promised to promote land reform, establish a new constitution, and recover the wealth that was stolen during the Marcos administration. However, opposition to Aquino grew during her administration. Marcos supporters, the military, **left-wing** guerrillas, and Philippine Nationalists who were opposed to American military bases in the Philippines weakened her administration. Although the Philippine economy remained heavily dependent on assistance from the United States and the international community, the Philippine people came to resent the presence of the American military bases in their country. The national legislature voted not to renew the leases on American military bases. As a result, in 1992, the United States had to withdraw its military personnel from the Philippines and close its bases.



Corazon Aquino (1933-)

Corazon Aquino was president of the Philippines from 1986-1992. She restored democratic rule in the Philippines after the long dictatorship of Ferdinand Marcos. Corazon was born into a politically prominent, wealthy family in Tarlac province north of Manila. She studied at Mount St. Vincent College in New York before marrying Benigno S. Aquino in 1956. He eventually became an opposition opponent to Ferdinand Marcos. Marcos had Benigno jailed for eight years. Benigno was exiled in 1980 to the United States, and Corazon accompanied him. When they returned to the Philippines in 1983, Benigno was *assassinated* by a military guard at the Manila airport. This event caused opposition to the Marcos government.

Corazon took up her husband's causes and was chosen by the opposition to be their candidate in the elections in 1986. She was officially reported to have lost the election to Marcos. She and her supporters challenged the results and accused the government of ballot-rigging. Officials denounced Marcos and proclaimed Corazon the rightful president. On February 25, 1986, both Aquino and Marcos were inaugurated as president by their supporters. That very day, Marcos fled the country. Aquino proclaimed a provisional constitution and appointed a commission to write a new constitution. She did not run for re-election in 1992; however, the peaceful election in 1992 of her chosen successor, Fidel Ramos, was seen as evidence that she had established and preserved a working democracy.

Several attempts were made to overthrow Aquino's government, but she successfully completed her presidential term. In 1992 Fidel Ramos succeeded her as president. The Ramos administration promoted a *national reconciliation* to bring together all opposition groups in the country. Although the Philippine economy was hurt by the withdrawal of the United States, it was able to steadily grow throughout the 1990s. In 1998, Joseph Estrada, a popular actor, became the new president of the Philippines. His administration had lost favor with the people because of accusations of corruption.

President Estrada was impeached and eventually removed from office in 2001. The Philippines new president, Gloria Macapagal-Arroyo, is faced with the task of reforming the country's struggling economy and corrupt



government. The Philippines in recent years has also been plagued by massive national debt, coup attempts, a communist insurgency, and a Muslim separatist movement.

Arroyo's vision for the country is to "build a strong republic." She has promised to lower crime rates, increase tax collection, improve economic growth, and intensify counter-terrorism efforts.



Practice

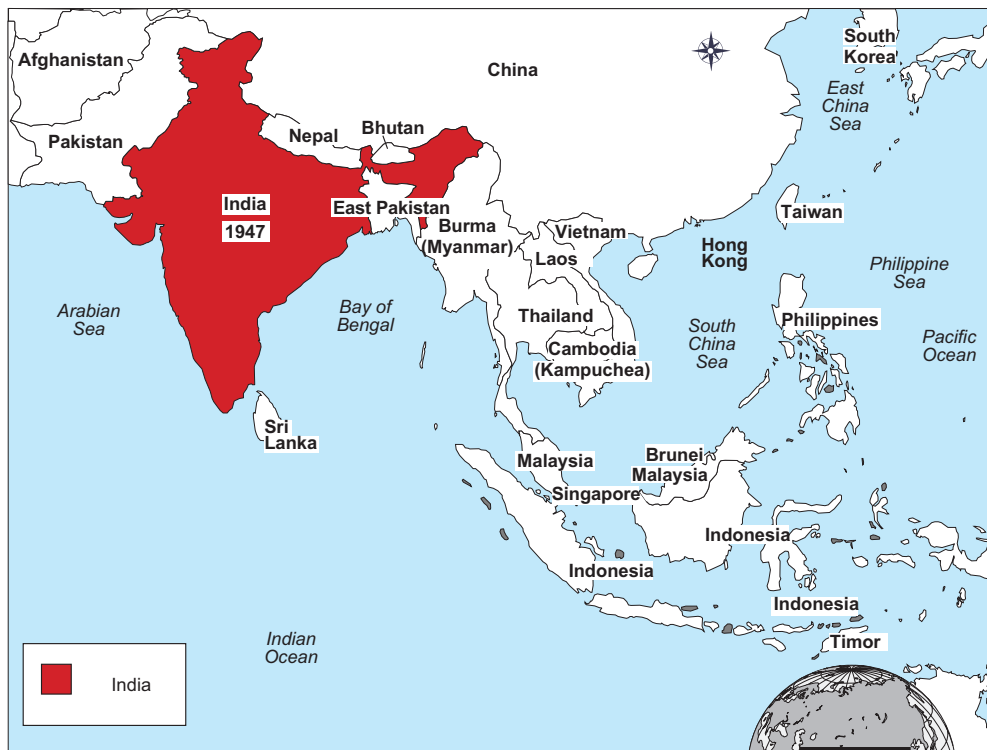
Use the **information** in your **textbook** to complete the chart below.

Challenges Facing Southeast Asia after Independence					
Country	Colonized by	Year Granted Independence	Political Problems	Economic Problems	Social Problems
Myanmar (Burma)					
Indonesia					
Philippines					



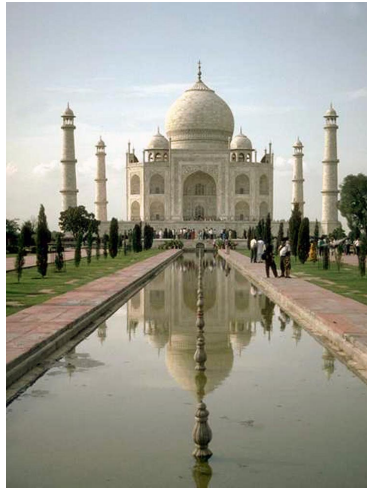
Independence for South Asia: Dividing the Indian Subcontinent

India



India in 1947

India's independence movement started at the beginning of the 20th century. After World War I, Great Britain promised India greater self-rule. In the 1920s, an Indian Nationalist named Mohandas Gandhi led a movement across India to resist British rule. Gandhi was a devout Hindu who was called *Mahatma* (Great Soul) by his followers. He applied the Hindu belief in *ahimsa* (nonviolence) with *passive resistance* (peaceful noncooperation) as a means to fight against British rule. Gandhi's followers committed a series of nonviolent actions in the form of acts of civil disobedience and **boycotts** to force the British to eventually hand over more power to the Indians. Complete independence from British rule did



The Taj Mahal was built by a Muslim, Emperor Shah Jahan. He reigned from 1628-1658. He had the Taj Mahal built in the memory of his dear wife and queen Mumtaz Mahal at Agra, India. Today it is a tourist site.

not come until after World War II. A centuries-old rivalry existed between the Muslims and Hindus of India. Neither religious group trusted or liked the other. Great Britain negotiated with both the *Indian National Congress*, which was mostly Hindu, and the *Muslim League*, which represented the Muslims of India. However, Hindus and Muslims were unwilling to accept a single Indian state. Although Gandhi objected to the division of India, in 1947 the British decided to split the colony of India into two new independent countries: India, dominated by Hindus, and Pakistan, controlled by Muslims. Pakistan would be a nation divided in two sections separated by more than 1,000 miles. On the northwest of India would be *West Pakistan* and on the northeastern border with India would be *East Pakistan*.

Mohandas “Mahatma” K. Gandhi (1869-1948)

Mohandas K. Gandhi was born in 1869 to Hindu parents in the state of Gujarat in Western India. He entered an arranged marriage with Kasturbai Makanji when both were 13 years old. He later went to London to study law. He went to Southern Africa, where he lived until 1914, where he worked to improve the rights of the immigrant Indians. It was there that he developed his creed of passive resistance against injustice, *satyagraha*, meaning truth force. He held to his beliefs despite persecution and imprisonment. Before he returned to India with his wife and children in 1915, he had radically changed the lives of Indians living in Southern Africa.

Back in India, he became leader of the Congress Party, initiating the campaign which led to the independence of India after World War II. He never wavered in his belief in nonviolent protest. When Muslim and Hindu compatriots committed acts of violence, he fasted until the fighting ceased.

Independence came in 1947, but to Gandhi's despair, the country was partitioned into Hindu India and Muslim Pakistan. The last two months of his life were spent trying to end the violence which came, leading him to fast (to eat little or no food) to the brink of death. In January 1948, at the age of 79, he was assassinated by a Hindu fanatic who disapproved of his tolerance of Muslims.



As India planned for its future independence, violent riots broke out between Hindus and Muslims throughout India. Many feared becoming religious minorities in the new countries, so Hindus quickly left for India and Muslims fled to Pakistan. The flight of millions of Hindus and Muslims across new borders led to violent clashes between the rival religions. These two religious groups deeply distrusted one another and had been at odds throughout history. The British complicated matters by playing one religious group against the other throughout their colonial rule in India. The migration of 10-12 million people, the largest in history, led to the deaths of hundreds of thousands of people. On January 30, 1948, Gandhi was assassinated by a Hindu extremist who was unhappy with Gandhi's acceptance of the breakup of India. The death of Gandhi and the killings during the mass migration did not end the conflicts between Hindus and Muslims. Tensions between Hindus and Muslims continued because many Muslims remained in India.



Gandhi

The Nehru Period

From 1947-1964, India was ruled by Prime Minister Jawaharlal Nehru (ju-waw-hur-lawl nae-roo), a member of the Congress Party. India established a democratic government with a constitution that guaranteed civil liberties to all of its citizens. Its government was modeled after the British system with a parliament led by a prime minister. Although there were many political parties, the Congress Party was the dominant political force. It claimed to represent the interests of all Indians. The new constitution established a strong central government with local governments to meet the needs of the local communities. However, India faced many challenges. It was a nation of diverse religions, ethnic, and language groups. Most Indians were Hindu; however, millions of others were Muslim, Christian, Sikh, or Buddhist.



Most Indians were Hindu; however, millions of others were Muslim, Christian, Sikh, or Buddhist.

Prime Minister Nehru's new government worked to modernize his country and develop industry. Nehru wanted to create a system of *democratic socialism* in his country. The government owned and operated the major industries and private ownership was permitted at the local level. Nehru avoided dependence on foreign investment in his country. By



law, all businesses were to be owned mostly by Indians. The Nehru government also refused to take sides with the superpowers during the Cold War. Under Nehru, India became the leader of the *nonaligned* nations. The nonaligned nations followed a policy of neutrality in international affairs. India also sought to provide leadership to all newly independent nations in Asia, Africa, and Latin America. The neutral stand of India was in direct opposition to the United States policy on containing communism. India wanted to be on friendly terms with both the United States and the Soviet Union.

Indira and Rajiv Gandhi

Soon after the death of Nehru in 1964, the Congress Party chose Nehru's daughter Indira Gandhi (who was *not* related to Mohandas Gandhi) as India's new prime minister. She followed many of the policies of her father and tried to improve the quality of life of India's poor. India would remain a poor country as long as it was unable to support its rapidly growing population. India's rapid population growth led the government to establish a program of *forced sterilization*. Men who had fathered too many children were sometimes forced to accept sterilization. Despite these efforts, India has made little progress in controlling its population. By 2000 the population of India had reached one billion people.

Indira Gandhi's forced birth control policies and many of her actions made her unpopular. In 1975 government corruption, **censorship**, and limitations on civil liberties led to the collapse of her government. She was defeated in the general elections in 1977 but was able to make a comeback a few years later. After her reelection in 1980, she was faced with the rise of severe ethnic and religious violence. The *Sikhs* (pronounced "seeks"), followers of a religion based on both Hindu and Muslim ideas, demanded independence for their province, the prosperous Punjab region of India. Indira Gandhi's use of military force to put down a Sikh rebellion led to her assassination. She was killed in 1984 by two of her personal bodyguards who were Sikhs. Her son Rajiv (raw-jeev) replaced her as prime minister.



Indira Gandhi (1917-1984)

Indira Gandhi was born on November 19, 1917, in Allahabad, India. She was the only child of Jawaharlal Nehru, the first prime minister of India. Gandhi graduated from Visva-Bharati University, Bengal and studied at the University of Oxford, England. In 1938 she joined the National Congress party and became active in India's independence movement. She married Feroze Gandhi, a Parsi lawyer and fellow member of the party, in 1942. Shortly after, both were arrested by the British on charges of subversion and spent 13 months in prison. Five years later, her father took office as prime minister.

Indira Gandhi joined the executive body of the Congress Party, and in 1959 was elected as the president of the party, becoming a national political figure in her own right. Following the death of her father in May 1964, Gandhi became minister of information. When the prime minister died suddenly in 1966, Gandhi became leader of the Congress Party and prime minister. In the election in 1967, she won by a slim margin; however, in 1971 she won in a landslide victory. In 1975 Gandhi was convicted of a minor infraction of the election laws during the 1971 campaign. She charged that the conviction was part of an attempt to remove her from office and, instead of resigning, declared a national state of emergency, imprisoned her political opponents, and passed many laws limiting personal freedoms. Gandhi called a general election in 1977. Gandhi and the Congress Party were defeated, and she was imprisoned briefly on charges of official corruption.

In the elections of 1980, she regained her seat in Parliament and became prime minister again. Her elder son Sanjay Gandhi also won a seat for the lower house of parliament, and she thought he could become her successor. When Sanjay died in a plane crash that June, she began grooming her younger son, Rajiv Gandhi, for eventual leadership of her party.

In 1984 Gandhi ordered an army attack on the Golden Temple of Amritsar, the Sikhs' holiest shrine, which led to the deaths of more than 450 Sikhs. On October 31, 1984, Gandhi was shot and killed in her garden in New Delhi, by two of her own Sikh bodyguards. After her death, her son Rajiv served as prime minister until 1989 when his party lost the national elections. He was assassinated by Tamil Tiger terrorists in a bombing 18 months later at an election rally in Madras on May 21, 1991.



Rajiv was not an effective leader, although his government did begin a program to encourage foreign investment and private enterprise. Many accused his government of corruption and not doing enough to help the nation's poor. In 1991 he was assassinated by *Tamil* (Tamils are an ethnic group from southern India and Sri Lanka) militants who objected to India's involvement in the civil war in *Sri Lanka* (an island country neighboring India). In the years since Rajiv's assassination, the power of the ruling Congress Party has declined. Rising new political parties have competed with the Congress Party in both state and national elections. During the 1990s, the Hindu Party called Bharaitya Janata Party (BJP) dominated India's government. In addition, rising tensions between various *separatist groups* (ethnic or religious groups who want their own independent state) and between Hindus and Muslims have caused instability in India.

The first Sikh Indian prime minister, Manmohan Singh, was elected in 2004. He is the most educated Indian Prime Minister in history. His administration has promised to focus on debt relief for India's poorest farmers, to expand social programs, and to continue promoting economic and tax policies that have successfully driven the major economic expansion of India's industrial growth since 2002.

Problems Facing India

India still struggles to make economic and social reforms. To make India self-sufficient in food production, the government took part in the *Green Revolution*. The Green Revolution used new scientific discoveries and technologies to develop new kinds of grains in order to rapidly increase food yields. This program has had limited success because many of India's poor rural peasant farmers cannot afford to make the changes necessary to increase the efficiency of their farms.

India's rapid population growth has caused many problems. In 1999 India became the second country



A direct result of India's slums have been pollution and the spread of disease.



ever to have more than one billion people. Although many Indians have benefited from the India's steady economic growth, more than one-third of India's people live in poverty. As India's population has boomed, many of the poor have left rural areas and moved into the already overcrowded cities. As a result, many slums and *shantytowns* have spread around cities. Many cities in India have been unable to care for these people, who are often both homeless and jobless. A direct result of India's slums have been pollution and the spread of disease.

As India continues to modernize, it struggles with many social issues. It struggles with overcoming the centuries-old discrimination against the *untouchables* (the lowest-ranking people in the **caste system**, a class system in which people are restricted to the social and professional life of the class into which a person is born) and the unfair treatment of women. Although India's constitution outlaws discrimination and guarantees equal rights to all of its citizens, peasants in rural areas still cling to tradition. Belief in the *caste system* continues to undermine social equality in India.

Ethnic and religious tensions threaten the stability of India. There are dozens of different ethnic groups in India. Many of these ethnic groups do not get along. Others want their regions to become independent countries. Violence has often been the result of these conflicts. Distrust between religious groups, such as Hindus, Muslims, and Sikhs, also has led to clashes.



As India begins to modernize, it struggles with many social issues.

The military rivalry between Pakistan and India is a problem for both countries. There is tension and distrust between the two countries. They have fought four wars since 1947 and border clashes are frequent. Military spending drains the economies of both countries, so not enough money is left for social programs and economic development. India and Pakistan both have developed atomic weapons, so any future war between them could become a nuclear catastrophe. Currently, the Indian government is seeking to reduce religious tensions and conflicts. It is also seeking political support from minorities like Muslims and Christians.



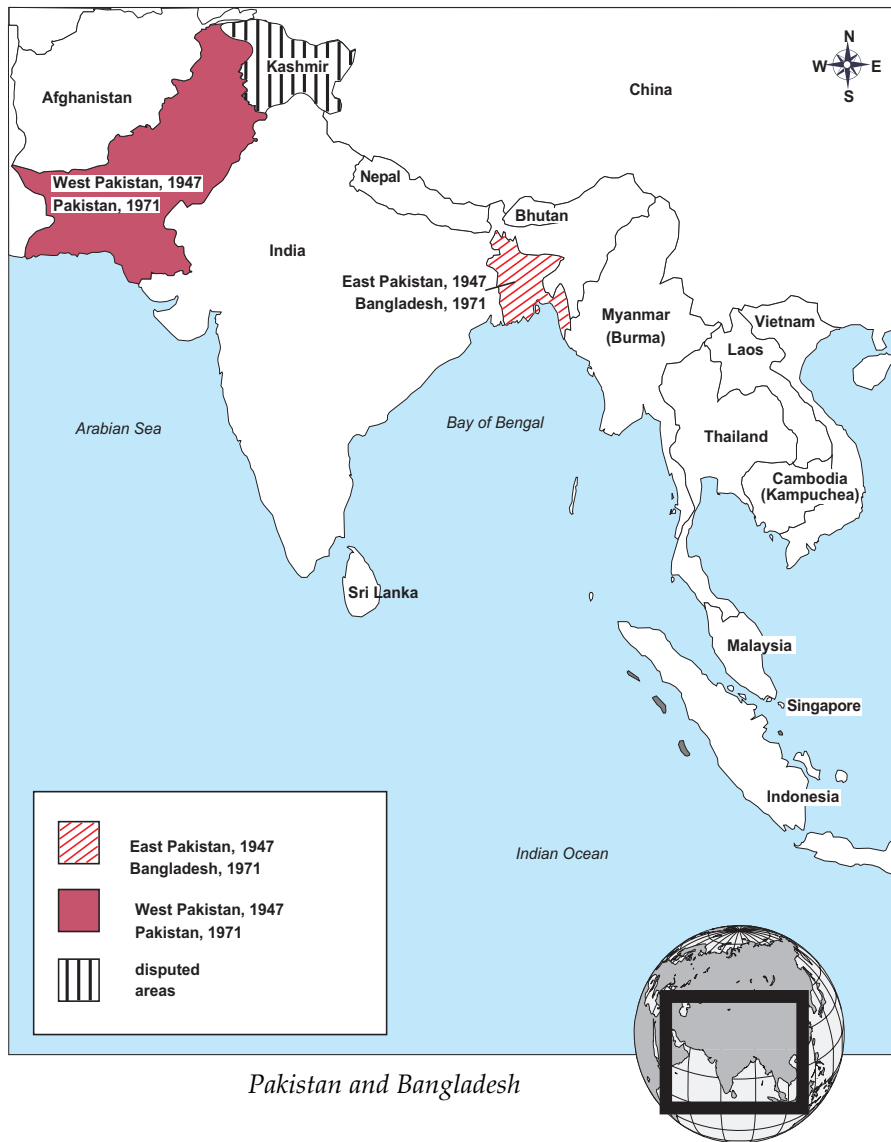
Pakistan Is Born a Divided Nation

Mohammad Ali Jinnah, the leader of the Muslim League, actively pursued the creation of an independent state for Muslims during the 1930s. Muslims did not want to be part of the Republic of India. As in India, when independence was declared, massive population movements were accompanied by widespread violence. This led to the deaths of many Muslims who had fled from India to the newly created Muslim country of Pakistan. Pakistan began as a divided nation. It consisted of two territories separated by more than 1,000 miles on the northeast and northwestern borders of India. Pakistan gained its independence from Great Britain in 1947.

East Pakistan Becomes the New Nation of Bangladesh

When Mohammad Ali Jinnah died in 1948, there was no strong leader to take his place. In 1956 Pakistan became a republic ruled by a series of military rulers for the next two decades. Pakistan also suffered from religious and ethnic turmoil. Tensions between East Pakistan and West Pakistan began to grow. Many citizens in East Pakistan believed that they were not fairly represented in Pakistan's government. East and West Pakistan had little in common with each other besides the Muslim faith. The culture, language, ethnic background, economic way of life, and the geography of the two regions were vastly different. West Pakistan was mountainous and dry and East Pakistan was a densely populated tropical lowlands.

A civil war began in 1971 as East Pakistan fought for its independence from West Pakistan. East Pakistan became the independent country of *Bangladesh*. West Pakistan became known simply as *Pakistan*. Tensions between India and West Pakistan dramatically increased when India joined the war on the side of East Pakistan. Fighting quickly spread to the province of Kashmir in northwestern India. Although a cease-fire finally ended the hostilities between India and Pakistan, tensions and distrust between the two countries still exist. Eventually, Pakistan recognized its former territory of East Pakistan as the country of Bangladesh. The breakup of East and West Pakistan led to the collapse of the military regime in West Pakistan.



Pakistan and Bangladesh

Problems Facing Bangladesh and Pakistan

Since 1971 the new nation of Bangladesh has struggled to modernize. Its geography has stood in the way of raising the standard of living for its people. Cyclones and devastating floods from monsoon rains have destroyed villages and farm lands in recent years. Most of the people in Bangladesh live in poverty. Their tiny country cannot support its rapidly growing population. A series of corrupt and inefficient military dictatorships have ruled Bangladesh since the 1970s. Several of its prime ministers have been assassinated. In the 1990s, civilian government



leaders tried to encourage foreign investment. However, many foreign businesses invested in Bangladesh simply to take advantage of the cheap labor market. According to human rights advocates, many young children were forced to work long hours in textile factories under *sweatshop* conditions.

After the breakup of East and West Pakistan, a new civilian government ruled by Zulfikar Ali Bhutto ruled Pakistan. Soon, however, the Bhutto government was overthrown by the military, and Bhutto was put to death. The subsequent military government of General Zia Ul Ha'q (zee-uh ul hawk) tried to establish an Islamic state which used Islamic law as the basis for the legal system. After Zia's death in 1988, a democratic election resulted in the election of Benazir Bhutto, the daughter of Ali Bhutto, as prime minister. Pakistan's democratic governments have been short-lived. The military overthrew the government twice, accusing Benazir Bhutto's government of corruption. In the 1990s, Pakistan had a succession of unstable governments.

In a military *coup*, Pervez Musharraf seized control of the government of Pakistan in 1999. He assumed the title of President of Pakistan and the Chief of Army Staff of the Pakistani military in 2001. After the September 11, 2001 terrorist attacks on the United States, (see Unit 12), the Pakistani leader sided with the United States in its war on terrorism in Afghanistan. Many believe that his support was important in defeating the *Taliban* regime, a very conservative Islamic government that controlled Afghanistan. The Taliban regime gave support and refuge to Osama bin Laden and his radical fundamentalist Muslim terror network known as *al Qaeda*.

From the 1970s until the present, India and Pakistan have fought over control of the province of Kashmir. Kashmiri Muslims, who make up the majority of the population, want to become part of Pakistan. India and Pakistan have gone to war several times over Kashmir. Both countries have escalated the conflict through their development of nuclear weapons. India's test *detonation* (explosion) of five nuclear weapons in 1998 near Pakistan's borders increased tensions. Pakistan evened the score by detonating its own nuclear weapons later that year.



Afghanistan Struggles for Stability

Afghanistan is a small, mountainous, landlocked nation sharing a border with Pakistan in the east and Iran in the west. It is one of the least-developed nations in the world. Most of its people making a living as farmers and animal herders. During the 19th century, Afghanistan struggled to be free of foreign control. The Russian and the British both competed for control of this region; however, by 1919 Afghanistan had become an independent nation and established a **monarchy**, a government in which a king or queen as supreme power. In 1973, the *monarchy* fell in a military coup and a *republic* was established.

In 1978, a pro-Soviet Communist-style dictatorship was established in Afghanistan. Most of the population opposed the Communist government. Its policies conflicted with the deeply rooted Islamic faith of the Afghani people. The opposition, known as the **mujahideen**, or “holy warriors,” was a rebel group of guerrilla fighters that fought against the Soviets and the Communist government. The civil war that ensued prompted the Soviet Union to invade Afghanistan in 1979 in support of the Communist government. The Afghan rebels successfully used guerrilla warfare against the Soviet armies to their advantage. The United States also provided financial and military assistance to the rebels. After more than 10 years of bloody warfare, the Soviets withdrew their troops from Afghanistan.



Several years after the Soviets withdrew their troops, rebel groups fought for control of the government. By 1996, the *Taliban*, a very conservative Islamic government in Afghanistan, took over most of the country and established a regime based on strict adherence to Islamic law. Another rival group known as the Northern Alliance controlled the northwestern region of Afghanistan.

Although the Taliban brought some stability to the war-torn nation, it also began to enforce a strict Muslim code of behavior. Taliban leaders restricted women’s lives by not allowing them to go to school or hold



jobs. Television, western music, and western clothing were banned. Afghanistan became the focus of the world's attention after it was learned that the Taliban supported Osama bin Laden and al-Qaeda, his terrorist network. Islamic terrorists built training camps in the Afghan countryside and recruited and trained many young Muslim men in how to establish a global terrorist network. The United States demanded that the Afghan government shut down the terrorist training camps and turn over Osama bin Laden to United States authorities. Osama bin Laden was responsible for numerous attacks on the West, including the attacks on the World Trade Center in New York City and the Pentagon in Washington, D.C., on September 11, 2001. (See Unit 12.)

In 2001, when the Taliban refused these demands, a coalition force led by the United States bombed Afghanistan. This campaign was known as "Operation Enduring Freedom." The Taliban were defeated with the help of the Northern Alliance (an Afghan rebel group) and other western allies. With the help of the United States, a new democratically elected government was established in Afghanistan. Although the al Qaeda network was broken, Osama bin Laden has not yet been captured.

After the defeat of the Taliban, Hamid Karzai was named interim president. He was later elected president in 2004. Karzai's government has many obstacles to overcome. He must rebuild a country that has suffered more than two decades of warfare and unify a nation that includes more than a dozen regional ethnic groups. In addition, there has been pressure to destroy Afghanistan's poppy fields, which supply 75 percent of the world's opium.

American forces are still present in Afghanistan. Many of the last remnants of the Taliban and the al Qaeda terrorists have escaped into the mountainous border region between Afghanistan and Pakistan. The search for Osama bin Laden continues to this day.



Practice

Answer the following using complete sentences.

1. What strategies did Mohandas Gandhi use to fight against British rule? _____

2. Why did the British divide the colony of India into two separate, independent nations in 1947? _____

3. What led to the outbreak of violence after the division of Pakistan and India? _____

4. Why did Prime Minister Nehru join the nonaligned nations? _____



5. What problems did Indira Gandhi face as prime minister of India?

6. Why were Indira Gandhi and her son Rajiv assassinated? _____

7. List and explain some problems that still plague India. _____

8. Why did Bangladesh break away from Pakistan? _____

9. Explain why there are hostilities between Pakistan and India.



10. Why did the United States have to take military action against the Taliban? What was the outcome of this war? _____

11. On the chart below, list economic, political, and social problems faced by the following countries.

Turmoil in South Asia

Country	Economic Problems	Political Problems	Social Problems
Bangladesh			
Pakistan			
India			
Afghanistan			



Practice

Use the list below to write the correct term for each definition on the line provided.

al Qaeda	boycott	censorship	mujahideen	tsunami
assassinate	caste system	left wing	parliament	

- _____ 1. the act of examining printed materials, media broadcasts, and movies in order to possibly ban, alter, or delete information
- _____ 2. a group of people who have the duty and power to make the laws of a country
- _____ 3. to murder, usually for political reasons
- _____ 4. a system of social classes in which the social life of members is restricted to the class into which they were born
- _____ 5. to refuse to buy or use as a means of protest
- _____ 6. all political parties and groups who favor liberal reforms or radical, Socialist, or Communist policies
- _____ 7. a radical fundamentalist Muslim terror network organized by Osama bin Laden in the 1990s
- _____ 8. Islamic guerrilla fighters who fought against the Soviets and the Communist government in Afghanistan
- _____ 9. a large destructive ocean wave caused by an underwater earthquake or volcanic eruption



Review

The *Third World* is the nickname given to those economically underdeveloped nations that have gained independence from colonial rule. During the Cold War, some Third World nations chose to become *nonaligned* countries. These nations followed a policy of neutrality in foreign affairs and refused to take sides in the conflict between the superpowers. The largest Third World nation is China, which continues to be governed by a Communist dictatorship. China developed its own form of communism and remained free of Soviet control and influence. Many Third World nations have been the location of struggles between the superpowers. In Vietnam, for instance, the United States and the Soviet Union supported rival governments in a civil war. Each superpower wanted to influence Third World nations so they would accept its form of government. In Vietnam, the victorious Communist government united the country under Communist rule.

Asia has seen the growth of two world powers—Communist China and capitalist Japan. For the last 50 years, Communist China has refused to allow any political reform movements in its country. The Communist Party still has a firm control over the government. The violent reaction to the democracy movement at Tiananmen Square in 1989 showed that the Communist leaders of China had no intention of loosening their political control. By the late 1990s, more moderate leaders had successfully used some capitalist ideas to encourage and improve the growth of industry and agriculture. China desperately wants permanent “most favored nation status” with the United States, but its continued refusal to address human rights issues might put its trading status in jeopardy.

Capitalist Japan has completely rebuilt itself and has become an economic superpower since the end of World War II. United States occupation forces after the war helped Japan develop a modern society and a democratic government. The Japanese government promoted economic development and helped Japan secure its place as a major car and electronics exporter around the world.

Since World War II, dramatic changes have also taken place in Southeast Asia. South Korea, Taiwan, Hong Kong, and Singapore have created stable governments that have allowed economic growth. Nicknamed the “Asian Tigers,” these countries took different paths to modernization and *industrialization*. Their governments promoted ambitious programs for



economic growth and social welfare. South Korea's growing prosperity has created an economic gulf between itself and North Korea, its poverty-stricken Communist neighbor. Despite differences between the two countries, many believe that North and South Korea will eventually be reunited. Others fear that North Korea's nuclear weapons program is a threat to the global community.

The Vietnam War's devastating effects on other parts of Southeast Asia have begun to fade. After many years of struggle for economic and political stability, these nations have begun to show signs of improvement. Some countries still strive to move from military dictatorships to democracies. Pro-democracy movements had a dramatic effect on countries like the Philippines, Indonesia, and Myanmar. In other parts of Asia, it has been a challenge to create stable societies. The South Asian countries of India, Pakistan, Bangladesh, and Sri Lanka suffer from continued religious and ethnic upheavals. Several of India's leaders have been assassinated by extremist groups. Poverty and overpopulation are also major obstacles to economic growth, especially in India and Bangladesh. Political stability is still an issue for Pakistan, whose government has had a series of military dictatorships since its independence in 1947.

The global war on terrorism took center stage in Afghanistan when the United States invaded Afghanistan and the Taliban refused to shut down terrorist training camps or to turn over Osama bin Laden. This country has endured more than 20 years of invasions and ethnic upheavals. Since the election of a new government, hopes are high that the Afghan government will be able to rebuild and unify their country.



Practice

Use the list below to write the correct term for each definition on the line provided.

boycott	embargo	nonaligned
caste system	guerrilla warfare	peaceful coexistence
collective farm	martial law	sanction
coup	Marxism	spheres of influence

- _____ 1. a sudden takeover of a country's government
- _____ 2. temporary military government, limiting the rights of citizens
- _____ 3. measure used to punish a specific action
- _____ 4. to refuse to buy or use as a means of protest
- _____ 5. a government's restriction or suspension of foreign trade with a particular country
- _____ 6. not allied with either side in a conflict
- _____ 7. a system of social classes in which the social life of members is restricted to the class into which they were born
- _____ 8. a type of warfare in which small groups of revolutionary fighters use surprise attacks against their enemies
- _____ 9. Soviet policy of competing with the United States while avoiding war
- _____ 10. a large farm made up of many smaller farms and operated jointly by a group
- _____ 11. a form of socialism in which workers own all land and all means of production
- _____ 12. geographic areas controlled by a country and used for its own benefit

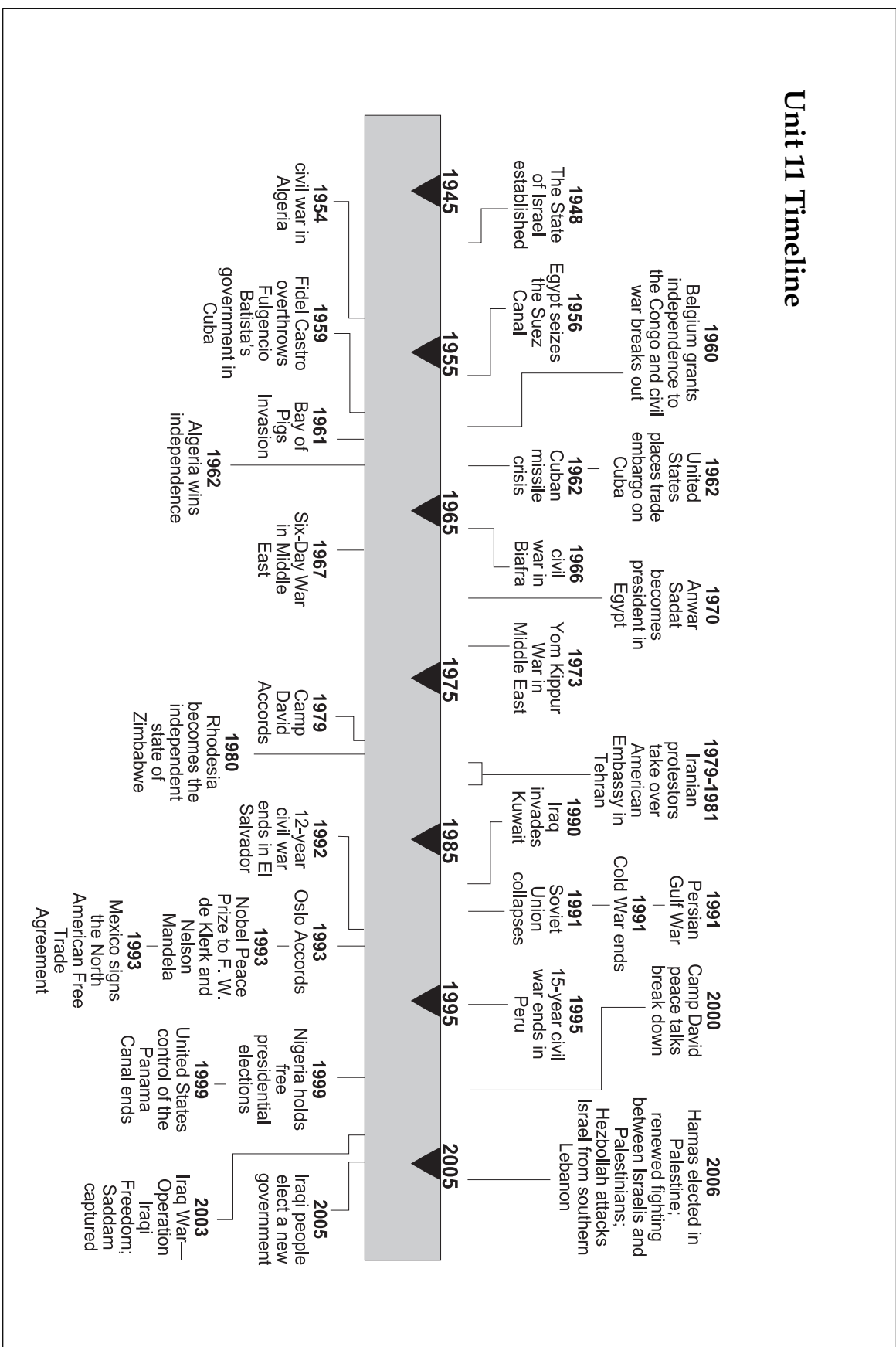
Unit 11: The Middle East, Africa, and Latin America (1945-21st Century)

This unit emphasizes the struggle of Third World countries in the Middle East, Africa, and Latin America as they make their transition from countries under colonial rule to independent countries.

Unit Focus

- issues facing the Middle East
- negative effects of colonialism in the Middle East, Africa, and Latin America
- major social and economic problems faced by Middle Eastern, African, and Latin American countries after World War II

Unit 11 Timeline





Vocabulary

Use the vocabulary words and definitions below as a reference for this unit.

- air strikes** an attack by aircraft
- amnesty** a general pardon for offences against a government
- anarchy** absence of political authority
- apartheid** the segregation and discrimination against non-European groups in the Republic of South Africa from 1948 to the early 1990s
- assassinate** to murder, usually for political reasons
- boycott** to refuse to buy or use as a means of protest
- cash crop** a crop grown by a farmer for sale, not personal use
- clan** group of related families
- coalition government** temporary alliance of various political parties
- communism** a theory of government in which wealth and property are owned in common, and production and labor are shared equally among the people; in reality, the means of production and distribution are owned and controlled by the state



- coup** a sudden takeover of a country's government
- democracy** a system of government in which power comes from the people
- demonstration** the act of showing ideas or feelings through public gatherings or parades
- dictatorship** a government ruled by a person who has complete control over the life of the people
- diplomacy** peaceful settlement of disputes
- discriminate** to treat differently from others because of unfair prejudices
- dissident** a person who openly expresses opinions that differs from those held by the general society
- drought** a period of dry weather; lack of rain
- elite** a select group of people
- embargo** a government's restriction or suspension of foreign trade with a particular country
- exile** banishment or expulsion from one's country
- export**..... to send goods from one country to another country



- extradition** the surrender of a fugitive from justice by one state or authority to another
- genocide** the deliberate and systematic extermination of a particular racial, national, or religious group
- guerrilla** a fighter—not part of a formal army—who attacks suddenly and withdraws swiftly
- guerrilla warfare** a type of warfare in which small groups of revolutionary fighters, not part of a regular army, use surprise attacks against their enemies
- Hamas** a Palestinian Islamic militant group
- Hezbollah** a Lebanese militant militia that controls southern Lebanon
- illiterate** unable to read or write
- import** to bring goods into one country from another country
- improvised explosive devices (IED)** an explosive made with artillery or mortar shells that are attached to a detonator and suicide bombs
- industrialization** the process of developing systems to manufacture goods by machine



- inflation** a sharp increase in prices while the value of money decreases
- insurgents** resistance fighters
- intifada** the armed uprising by Palestinians to gain an independent Palestinian state
- irrigate** to bring water to crop fields by way of canals and ditches
- left wing** all political parties and groups who favor liberal reforms or radical, Socialist, or Communist policies
- loyalists** supporters
- martial law** temporary rule by military authorities, limiting the rights of citizens
- Marxism** a form of socialism in which workers own all land and all means of production (the final stage of socialism is communism)
- monarchy** a government or state in which a king or queen has supreme power
- nationalism** strong support for the survival, success, and self-rule of one's country and culture



- nonaligned** not allied with either side in a conflict, such as the Cold War
- parliament** a group of people who have the duty and power to make the laws of a country
- preemptive war** a military action that is intended to lessen an enemy's ability to attack first
- recession** a period when business is bad; less serious than a depression
- refugee** a person who flees to a foreign country to escape danger
- renounce** to give up by formal declaration
- repressive** cruel; keeping persons under control by use of fear or force
- republic** system of government in which officials are elected by the citizens
- right wing** all political parties and groups who favor conservative or reactionary policies
- sanction** a measure used to punish a specific action
- segregate** to separate people on the basis of color
- standard of living** a general measure of people's wealth and overall quality of life



terrorism the use of violence to intimidate people or their governments to achieve a goal

terrorist a member of a group that uses violence to intimidate a government into granting their demands

ultimatum final set of demands

weapons of mass

destruction (WMD) banned chemical or biological weapons, which are capable of killing large numbers of people



The Middle East, Africa, and Latin America (1945-21st Century)

Tensions Arise as New Nations Seek Stability

After World War II new nations emerged into a world dominated by the Cold War. Old rivalries resurfaced and traditional ways clashed with modern ways. The superpowers—the United States and the Soviet Union—competed for influence by offering economic and military aid to developing nations. In Africa and Latin America, as in Asia (see Unit 10), the United States and the Soviet Union supported opposing sides in local conflicts. This way the superpowers confronted each other *indirectly*, rather than head to head, with their allies doing most of the actual fighting. Some countries chose to remain **nonaligned** and did not side with either superpower.

The Cold War ended in 1991 when the Soviet Union collapsed (see Unit 12). Many people hoped for a more peaceful world. However, many troubling local, regional, and global issues remained. Ethnic groups pushed for *autonomy*, or self-government. Other clashes were between rival religious groups or different **clans**. Often economic or political struggles were the cause of ethnic clashes.

The Middle East

As in other regions, Cold War rivalries touched the Middle East. The Middle East includes the southwestern part of Asia that stretches from Turkey to Afghanistan. Today, North Africa is also considered part of the Middle East because it has strong ties to the Middle Eastern countries. The region's huge oil resources and strategic waterways, such as the Dardanelle Straits and the Bosphorus, the Suez Canal, and the Persian Gulf, drew the Middle East into Cold War struggles between the superpowers. In the global rivalry, each superpower lined up allies. Each superpower sold arms to its allies in the region.

Egypt

Egypt is an Arab country in northeast Africa. Great Britain ruled Egypt from 1914 until World War I. After World War I, Egypt became an independent country with King Farouk as its ruler. In 1952 the army overthrew the king of Egypt. The **monarchy** was abolished, and a **republic** was proclaimed.



By 1956 a military officer named Gamal Abdel Nasser became president of Egypt. Nasser was a strong Nationalist leader. He was determined to modernize Egypt and end foreign influences in his country. Even though Egypt was an independent nation, Britain had kept control of the *Suez Canal* in order to protect its sea route to the Indian Ocean. The Suez Canal is a shortcut between Europe and Asia. It links the Mediterranean Sea to the Red Sea and Indian Ocean so that ships do not have to sail all the way around Africa to reach Europe. One of Nasser's first acts was to take over the Suez Canal, ending British and French control. Great Britain, along with France and Israel, invaded Egypt and retook the Suez Canal. Eventually a settlement was reached. A United Nations (UN) emergency force occupied the Canal Zone and in 1957 removed all troops. The Egyptians regained control of the Suez Canal and allowed all foreigners to use it. Nasser became a hero in the Arab world for having stood up to the European colonial powers.





In the 1960s, with the help of the Soviet Union, Nasser built the *Aswan Dam* on the upper Nile River. It enabled Egypt to control the Nile's floodwaters and allowed farmers to **irrigate** their farms year-round. Nasser also *nationalized* banks and businesses by bringing them under government control. His land reforms resulted in the break-up of large estates and the redistribution of land to the peasants.

Under Nasser, Egypt had two main goals: *Pan-Arabism* (the unification of all Arab countries) and the expansion of Egypt's military in order to destroy Israel. Nasser achieved neither goal. In 1967 the Egyptian army attacked the Israeli army in what is known as the *Six-Day War*. The Israelis *soundly* (completely and thoroughly) defeated Nasser and his army. At the war's end, the Israelis had conquered much Egyptian territory, including

the Sinai Peninsula. The Israelis wanted to make sure that there was plenty of land between themselves and Egypt. Unfortunately, this was not the last time the Egyptians and Israelis would go to war.



photos of Egyptian cities

When Nasser died in 1970, Anwar Sadat replaced him as president. Since Nasser's economic policies had only limited success, Sadat decided to open up Egypt to foreign investment and private business. In 1972 he *expelled* (forced out) all Soviet advisors because they had not supplied Egypt with the weapons

needed to retake territory lost to Israel in the 1967 war. On October 6, 1973, during the Jewish holiday of *Yom Kippur* (Day of Atonement), the Egyptian army again attacked Israel. After some defeats at the beginning of the war, the Israeli army once again soundly defeated the Egyptians and other Arab countries.





Muhammad Anwar el-Sadat (1918-1981)

Anwar Sadat was an Egyptian army officer, statesman, and president of Egypt. He was born in the Tala district of Egypt and graduated from the Cairo Military Academy in 1938. He plotted to expel the British from Egypt during World War II with the help of the Germans. The British arrested and imprisoned him in 1942, but he later escaped. Sadat participated in an armed takeover against the Egyptian *monarchy* in 1952 and supported Nasser's election to the presidency in 1956.

Sadat became acting president upon Nasser's death in 1970 and then was elected president. It was in foreign affairs that Sadat made his most dramatic efforts. In 1973 he launched, with Syria, a joint invasion of Israel that began the Arab-Israeli war. After the war, Sadat began to work toward peace in the Middle East. He made a historic visit to Israel in 1977. This initiated a series of diplomatic efforts that Sadat continued despite strong opposition from most of the Arab world and the Soviet Union. President Jimmy Carter mediated negotiations between Sadat and Israeli Prime Minister Begin that resulted in the Camp David Accords in 1978, a preliminary peace agreement between Egypt and Israel. Sadat's peace negotiations with Israel won him the 1978 Nobel Prize for Peace, which he shared with Israeli prime minister Menachem Begin. Under their leadership, Egypt and Israel made peace with each other in 1979.

Sadat's popularity in Egypt fell because of internal opposition to the peace treaty and a worsening economy. In 1981, while reviewing a military parade commemorating the Arab-Israeli war of October 1973, he was **assassinated** by Muslim extremists.

In 1977 Sadat flew to Israel at the invitation of Israeli Prime Minister Menachem Begin (see page 570). Together they began the diplomatic negotiations which would eventually lead to a permanent peace between Egypt and Israel. Sadat came to believe that peaceful negotiations could resolve Egypt and Israel's problems. On March 26, 1979, Egypt and Israel signed a formal peace treaty known as the *Camp David Accords*. The peace treaty ended 30 years of war and established diplomatic and commercial relations between the two nations. For the first time in history, an Arab nation (Egypt) accepted the existence of a Jewish state (Israel). Israel agreed to return the Sinai Peninsula to Egypt. However, Sadat's policy of peace angered many Muslim extremists and other Arab nations.



In 1981 extremist Muslim soldiers at a parade in Cairo *assassinated* Sadat. Vice President Hosni Mubarak succeeded him as the new president. Mubarak has followed many of Sadat's peace policies but has been more cautious in his dealings with other Arab nations. He has faced serious problems at home. Although Egypt's economy has expanded, it has not been able to keep pace with its rapidly growing population. As in many other *Third World* countries, rural families have crowded into cities seeking a better life. As slums have grown, so has discontent. The government's failure to solve its social and economic problems has led to an increase in **terrorist** activity. Islamic extremist groups have accused the government of being corrupt and anti-religious. In recent years, the government has had to use harsh measures to crack down on these *terrorist* groups.

In 2005 President Mubarak said that he planned to reform Egypt's presidential election laws. It allowed, for the first, time for voters to elect a leader from a list of numerous candidates. However, restrictions on the qualifying procedures for candidates made it unlikely that a well-known candidate for the presidency would be able to successfully run against Mubarak. In the 2005 presidential election, Mubarak won a fifth consecutive term. In recent years, Egypt has tried to play a major role as a mediator in resolving disputes in the Middle East.



Practice

Answer the following using complete sentences.

1. How did Gamal Abdel Nasser challenge the West? _____

2. Describe the steps Nasser took to modernize Egypt. _____

3. Describe Anwar Sadat's most famous accomplishment. _____

4. What problems does Egypt face today? _____



Practice

Match each definition with the correct term. Write the letter on the line provided.

- | | | |
|-------|--|----------------|
| _____ | 1. group of related families | A. assassinate |
| _____ | 2. system of government in which officials are elected by the citizens | B. clan |
| _____ | 3. to bring water to crop fields by way of canals and ditches | C. irrigate |
| _____ | 4. a member of a group that uses violence to intimidate a government into granting their demands | D. monarchy |
| _____ | 5. to murder, usually for political reasons | E. nonaligned |
| _____ | 6. a government or state in which a king or queen has supreme power | F. republic |
| _____ | 7. not allied with either side in a conflict, such as the Cold War | G. terrorist |



The State of Israel Is Established

For thousands of years before the *Holocaust*, Jews had lived in many countries throughout Europe. In these various countries, Jews had often faced *anti-Semitism*, or hostility and **discrimination**. Then they faced the Nazis and their *Final Solution*—a plan to murder all Jews in the world (see Unit 7). After the Holocaust, Jewish leaders from around the world declared that Jews must have a homeland. World War II and Nazi Germany had convinced the Jewish people that they could never depend on others to defend them. From now on, Jews should be able to live in a country of their own and defend themselves. This movement to establish a Jewish national homeland in Palestine was known as *Zionism*. Ever since the Romans destroyed Jerusalem in A.D. 70, the Jews have retained their identity and kept alive this dream of a return from **exile**. In the 19th century, this dream turned into a political movement.



Jewish leaders such as David Ben Gurion, Golda Meir, and Moshe Dayan led the fight for the establishment of the nation of Israel. The Jewish leaders wanted the nation of Israel to be located in Palestine (in the Middle East). Following World War II, Palestine was a poor nation under the control of the British. Palestine was the ancient home of the Jews and the location of the Kingdom of Israel going back 3,000 years, but Palestinians (both Muslims and Christians) had made it their homeland since the Jews were driven out around A.D. 135. This created a problem. To Arabs, the land has belonged to them since the 7th century, when they

conquered the area. If Palestine became a Jewish state, what would happen to the Arabs? If the Arabs remained in Palestine, where would the Jews make their home?



Golda Meir (1898-1978)

Golda Meir, born Goldie Mabovitch, was a founder and the fourth prime minister of the State of Israel. Golda Meir was born in Kiev (Ukraine) and emigrated to Milwaukee, Wisconsin with her family when she was eight years old. She later joined a Zionist youth movement, and married Morris Myerson. In 1921, she and her husband moved to Palestine and joined the Merhavva kibbutz. She became the kibbutz's representative to the Histadrut (a local governing body) and occupied a series of political positions over the next three decades. During World War II, she emerged as a forceful spokesman for the Zionist cause.

In 1948 Golda Meir was appointed Israel's first ambassador to the Soviet Union. She was elected to the Knesset (Israeli **parliament**) in 1949 and served in that body until 1974. As minister of labor (1949-1956), she vigorously supported the policy of unrestricted Jewish immigration to Israel. She was appointed foreign minister in 1956, and she Hebraized her married name of Goldie Meyerson to Golda Meir.

After Israel's victory in the Six-Day War (June 1967) against Egypt, Jordan, and Syria, she helped merge Mapai (a political party) with two opposing parties into the Israel Labor Party.

Upon the death of Prime Minister Levi Eshkol in 1969, Golda Meir was chosen to succeed him as prime minister, and she led her party to victory in the October 1969 elections. Meir pushed for a peace settlement in the Middle East by diplomatic means. Her efforts at peace with the Arab states were halted by the outbreak in October 1973 of the fourth Arab-Israeli war, called the Yom Kippur War. Israel's lack of readiness for the war surprised Israelis. In 1974 Meir resigned her post as prime minister but remained in power as head until a new government was formed in June. She remained an important political figure even in retirement and was able to greet Egyptian President Anwar Sadat on his historic visit to Jerusalem in 1977.

The UN Divides Palestine

During World War I, the British had promised to allow the Jewish people to make a homeland in Palestine. After the war, the British government went back on its word. The British government did not want to upset the Arabs who were living in Palestine. The promise could not be fulfilled



because the two sides could not live together. Britain called for a *partition* (division) of the country. Britain failed in its many attempts to work out a compromise. Eventually the British government could no longer stand the pressure of world opinion, and the government turned control of Palestine over to the newly formed United Nations. In 1947 the United Nations voted to establish the nation of Israel. To do this, the United Nations divided Palestine. Israel would be home for the Jews, and the rest of Palestine, known as *Trans-Jordan*, would be home for the Palestinian Arabs.

The Jewish people agreed to the plan, but the Arabs did not. The UN plan meant that 750,000 Palestinian Arabs would be uprooted from their homes and forced to move off their land. Palestine's Arabs saw no reason why they should be forced to move off the land they had been living on for centuries. Arabs wanted Palestine to be an Arab state.

Israel became a nation on May 14, 1948. The day after the creation of Israel, the Arab countries of Egypt, Jordan, Iraq, Lebanon, Saudi Arabia, and Syria attacked Israel. Jews were outnumbered 10 to 1. After a brave struggle, the people of Israel defeated the Arabs. Despite their larger size, the Arab armies were no match for the well-trained, well-equipped, and determined Israeli forces.

Thousands of Palestinian Arab families were forced to migrate from areas under Jewish control, now called *Israel*. Many Arabs settled in UN-sponsored **refugee** camps. Hundreds of thousands of Palestinian Arabs felt abused and enraged. The seeds of decades of conflict between Arabs and Jews had been sown in the creation of the state of Israel. The Palestinian state that the UN had arranged for Palestinians never came into being. Israel took half the land in the 1948-1949 fighting. Egypt took control of the Gaza Strip and Jordan annexed the West Bank. The 1948 war was only the first of many armed conflicts between Jews and their Arab neighbors.



The Balfour Declaration, 1917

Foreign Office
November 2nd, 1917

Dear Lord Rothschild,

I have much pleasure in conveying to you, on behalf of His Majesty's Government, the following declaration of sympathy with Jewish Zionist aspirations which has been submitted to, and approved by, the Cabinet.

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

I should be grateful if you would bring this declaration to the knowledge of the Zionist Federation.

Yours sincerely,
Arthur James Balfour

The Balfour Declaration was a letter from the British foreign secretary Arthur James Balfour to Jewish leader Lionel Walter Rothschild of Great Britain. The statement is often seen as the beginning of the process that led to the establishment of the State of Israel. In the letter, Balfour made a statement of British support for the establishment in Palestine of a national home for the Jewish people. This would help the British in protecting the sea route to India, which passed through the Suez Canal. The Balfour Declaration also gained support of Jewish populations in other countries on the eve of World War I. The Declaration was also endorsed by the principal Allied powers and approved by the League of Nations. On July 24, 1922, the League of Nations set forth terms which entrusted Great Britain with the temporary administration of the country on behalf of its Jewish and Arab inhabitants. The British finally pulled out in 1948, leaving the Arabs and the Jews to fight it out among themselves. As an indirect result of the Balfour Declaration, Israel was established as an independent state in 1948 in the mandated area. The Balfour Declaration provided a reason for the Arab national movement to launch an open and continuing struggle against the Zionist movement.



Practice

Answer the following using short answers.

1. In what region of the world is Israel located? _____
2. What was the former name for Israel? _____
3. What other ethnic group besides the Jews wanted to live in the area then called Palestine? _____
4. What international organization voted to create Israel? _____

5. What happened the day after Israel became a nation? _____

6. Why is Israel important to Jewish people around the world? _____

7. Why have many Arabs been fighting Israelis since the creation of Israel? _____



The PLO: The Palestinian Liberation Organization

A Palestinian *refugee* problem was caused by the 1948-1949 war. Arab nations tried to destroy the state of Israel, and as a result, more than 540,000 Palestinians out of the 750,000 living in Israeli territory were forced to flee to neighboring Arab nations.

After the war, Palestinian refugees were unable to return to their homeland. Israel wanted the refugee problem to be resolved as part of an overall settlement involving the recognition of Israel as a state by the Arab nations and the resolution of boundary disputes. Arab nations refused to allow the Palestinian refugees to live in their countries. Palestinians were forced to live in dirty, overcrowded camps dependent on the charity of international organizations for food and other basic necessities. Eventually this situation led to the rise of various radical **guerrilla** groups committed to the destruction of Israel.



Yasser Arafat

In the mid-1960s the *Palestine Liberation Organization* (PLO), led by Yasser Arafat, became the voice for the homeless Palestinians. Arab nations considered the PLO to be the sole legitimate representative of the Palestinian people and called for the creation of a Palestinian state. The PLO claimed to represent Palestinians who lived in Israeli-occupied territory and those who lived in *exile* in other Arab countries. The Israeli government considered the PLO to be a terrorist organization and for many years refused to have any dealings with it.

Arab-Israeli Wars: 1956, 1967, and 1973

1956: Egypt Seizes the Suez Canal

Premier Gamal Abdel Nasser of Egypt proclaimed the *nationalization* (government takeover) of the Suez Canal company, which was owned by British and French stockholders. By nationalizing the canal, he hoped to use the profits from the operation of the canal to build the Aswan Dam. Egypt needed the dam to help irrigate its lands and expand its electric-power facilities.



The British and French depended on the canal for trade with Asia and the transport of oil from the Middle East. With help from Britain and France, the Israelis also invaded Egypt and eventually defeated it. Israel feared Egypt's military buildup and wanted to break Egypt's *blockade* of the Gulf of Aqaba, Israel's outlet to the Red Sea. Most of the world community condemned the invasions. The UN forced an eventual withdrawal of Israel and its European allies from Egypt. Egypt retained control of the canal and the crisis was ended. Nasser emerged a great Arab hero, a symbol of Arab **nationalism** standing up against the colonial powers.

OPEC

The Organization of Petroleum Exporting Countries (OPEC) is an association created at the Baghdad Conference of September 10-14, 1960, by Iran, Iraq, Kuwait, Saudi Arabia, and Venezuela. The five founding members were later joined by eight other members: Qatar (1961), Indonesia (1962), Socialist Peoples Libyan Arab Jamahiriya (1962), United Arab Emirates (1967), Algeria (1969), Nigeria (1971), Ecuador (1973-1992), and Gabon (1975-1994). OPEC's objective is to coordinate and unify petroleum policies among member countries. OPEC's power increased in the 1970s, when many nations became dependent on its oil to run their economies. In 1973 OPEC quadrupled world oil prices and tripled them again between 1974 and 1980. OPEC's power declined in the 1990s because of the inability of its members to agree to limit production.

1967: The Six-Day War

The Six-Day War began when Egypt and its Arab allies, equipped with Soviet tanks and aircraft, moved their armies toward their borders with Israel. Israel quickly responded to the Arab threat by attacking airfields in Egypt, Iraq, Jordan, and Syria. Israeli ground forces moved rapidly to defeat the Arab armies. With this victory, Israel seized the Sinai Peninsula and the Gaza Strip from Egypt. From Jordan, Israel captured the West Bank of the Jordan River, including the Old City of Jerusalem. The Golan Heights were *annexed* from Syria. This was done to create a *buffer zone* to protect Israel from future Arab attacks.



1973: The Yom Kippur War

After the death of Nasser in 1970, Egypt's new leader, Anwar Sadat, planned a surprise attack to regain Egyptian territory lost to Israel during the 1967 Six-Day War. The fourth Arab-Israeli conflict began in October 1973. The attack occurred on Yom Kippur, one of the holiest Jewish holidays. The Israelis were taken by surprise, but with vital supplies provided by the United States, they were soon able to launch a counterattack. They advanced into Egypt and trapped a 20,000-man force in the Sinai Desert. After several weeks of fighting, a *truce* was declared, and the war ended.



During the Yom Kippur War, the Arab oil-producing nations of the *Organization of Petroleum Exporting Countries* (OPEC) decided to use their economic power to punish the West for giving aid to Israel. They agreed to drastically reduce the production of oil, causing the price of gasoline to soar. They refused to sell oil to the United States or any other country that supported Israel. The oil **embargo** affected every part of the world. It not only caused gasoline shortages and high prices but also led to an economic **recession**. Arab oil producing countries soon realized that they had the power to hurt the oil-dependent industrialized countries, such as the United States, the countries of Europe, and Japan.



After the Yom Kippur War, the United States worked hard to get Arab and Israeli leaders to negotiate. The American government wanted to reduce Arab-Israeli tensions and reduce the possibility of another oil *embargo* by Arab oil-producing countries. A breakthrough finally came about in 1977, when Egypt's President Anwar Sadat visited Israel and launched the beginning of the peace process between Israel and the Arabs.

Menachem Wolfovitch Begin 1913-1992

Menachem Begin was an Israeli statesman and prime minister born in Brest-Litovsk, Belarus (Russia). He received a law degree from the University of Warsaw in 1935. He was active in the Zionist movement to establish an independent Jewish state in Palestine. In 1938, he became head of the Polish branch of the Betar youth movement. The Betar movement was dedicated to the establishment of a Jewish state on both sides of the Jordan River. Upon the invasion of Poland by the Germans in 1939, Begin fled to Lithuania where he was arrested by the Russians and deported to Siberia in 1940. His parents and a brother died in concentration camps. Released in 1941, he enlisted in the Free Polish Army and went to British-mandated Palestine in 1942.

Begin became commander-in-chief of the Irgun Zvai Leumi resistance group from 1943-1948. After Israel's independence in 1948, the Irgun formed the Herut "Freedom" Party. Begin became its head and leader. He formed a temporary alliance in 1977 and he was best known for his uncompromising stand on the question of retaining the West Bank and the Gaza Strip, which Israel had occupied during the Arab-Israeli War of 1967.

Prodded by United States President Jimmy Carter, Begin worked with President Sadat of Egypt for peace in the Middle East. He attended peace conferences in Jerusalem in 1977 and at Camp David at the invitation of President Carter in 1978. He shared the 1978 Nobel Peace Prize with President Sadat of Egypt.

Land for Peace: The Camp David Accords

Egypt surprised the world when it offered Israel a peaceful *resolution* to the conflict between Egypt and Israel. In 1977 President Anwar Sadat of Egypt visited Israel at the invitation of Israeli Prime Minister Menachem Begin. In an address to the *Knesset*, the Israeli *parliament*, Sadat acknowledged Israel's right to exist and said, "We Arabs welcome you to live among us in peace and security." In return for peace and security,



Sadat emphasized that the Israelis would have to return all Arab lands occupied by Israel in the 1967 Six-Day War and recognize the right of Palestinians to have their own homeland.

In 1978 American President Jimmy Carter invited Sadat of Egypt and Begin of Israel to participate in a peace conference at Camp David, a presidential vacation site hidden in the mountains of Maryland. After 13 days of negotiations, the leaders of Israel and Egypt in 1979 signed an agreement called the *Camp David Accords*. This agreement ended 30 years of *hostilities* between Israel and Egypt.



President Jimmy Carter

This framework for peace in the Middle East dealt with the West Bank and the Gaza Strip. Palestinians would receive self-rule; the Israeli government would withdraw its troops from the disputed territory and return the Sinai Peninsula to Egypt.

Egypt agreed to guarantee Israel free passage through the Suez Canal and the Gulf of Aqaba. Egypt was supposed to permit peacekeeping forces to be stationed in the Sinai.

While many nations of the world were pleased that Egypt and Israel had peacefully resolved their hostilities, many Arab countries were angered by the Camp David agreement. They felt that Egypt had betrayed the Arab cause and the Palestinian people. The PLO was especially angry that the future of the Palestinians had been discussed without any Palestinian representatives present.

In 1981 Sadat was assassinated by a group of Muslim extremists. Hosni Mubarak, Sadat's vice president and a former air force commander, became the new Egyptian president. He pledged to continue the peace process.

Palestinians Fight for Independence

Civil War in Lebanon

During the 1970s and 1980s, the PLO began an armed struggle against the Israelis. PLO *commandos*, or military units trained and organized for hit-and-run raids into enemy territory, used Southern Lebanon as a base for attacks against Israel. Israeli aircraft bombed suspected terrorist bases



in Lebanon. In 1982 the Israeli army invaded Lebanon to force out the Palestinian terrorists. Unrest in Lebanon increased as more and more Palestinian refugees poured into the country. Tensions between Lebanese Christian and Muslim factions rose when both Israel and Syria invaded and occupied Lebanon. The civil war that erupted in Lebanon between various religious, ethnic, and political groups lasted from 1975-1991.

In 1987 Palestinians living in Israel began a movement known as the **intifada** or the uprising. Acts of civil disobedience such as **boycotts**, **demonstrations**, and attacks on Israeli soldiers were part of a campaign to express Palestinian frustration and resentment towards Israeli rule. The *intifada* continued until October 1991 when Israeli and Palestinian representatives met for a series of peace talks.

The Oslo Accords: 1993

During the Cold War, efforts to resolve the Arab-Israeli conflict met with little success. The collapse of the Soviet Union in 1991 helped speed up the peace process. With the disappearance of financial and military assistance from the Soviet Union, Arab governments began to accept that negotiations with Israel were needed.

Disputes over the Israeli-occupied territories were difficult to resolve. After months of secret talks in Oslo, Norway, an agreement was reached. In a document called the *Declaration of Principles*, also known as the *Oslo Accords*, Israel's Prime Minister Yitzhak Rabin agreed to grant Palestinians self-rule in the Gaza Strip and the West Bank. Israel and the PLO agreed to open formal diplomatic ties. The PLO agreed to accept Israel's right to exist in peace and security and **renounced** the use of **terrorism**. Israel recognized the PLO as the representative of the Palestinian people. Rabin and Arafat signed the historic agreement on September 13, 1993, at the White House in Washington, D.C.

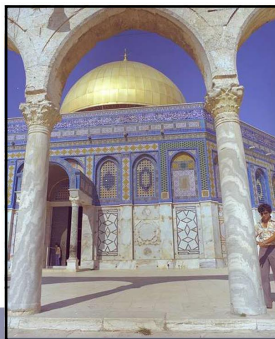
Carrying out this agreement would be difficult. Many issues were left to be resolved later. Negotiations moved slowly, with both sides missing deadlines for reaching a final settlement.

In 1995 Israeli Prime Minister Yitzhak Rabin was assassinated by an Israeli who opposed the peace agreement. Benjamin Netanyahu became the next prime minister in 1996. He opposed the Oslo Agreement, claiming it offered too many concessions too fast and jeopardized Israel's safety.

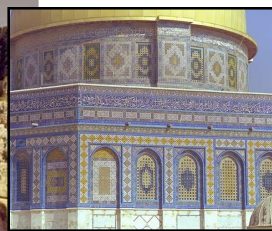


Under Netanyahu's government, the peace process slowed to a halt. Tensions on both sides led to an outbreak of renewed violence between Palestinians and Israelis. In 1999 Netanyahu's government was dissolved, and Ehud Barak of the Labour Party was elected the new prime minister. In July 2000, both Yasser Arafat of the PLO and Ehud Barak of Israel met at Camp David to attempt to resolve the issues that divided them: control of the occupied territories and the city of Jerusalem. The timetable for resolving these issues was important to both parties. Some issues that were particularly difficult to resolve included the right of Palestinians to return to their former homes and the status of Jerusalem. Arabs insisted that the future of Jerusalem must be part of an agreement, since both sides want Jerusalem to be their capital. Peace talks again broke off.

After the collapse of the peace talks, violence erupted when Ariel Sharon, a political opponent of Ehud Barak, visited the Temple Mount in Jerusalem. This religious site is considered a holy site to both Jews and Muslims. Many believe that this visit sparked renewed violence between Israel and the Palestinians; others cite the breakdown in the 2000 Camp David peace talks. The failed peace talks brought an end to Barak's government.



Dome of the Rock—Built 687-691



In Jerusalem the Dome of the Rock was built by Muslims in the center of the Temple Mount during the 7th century. Due to its location, this religious site is considered a holy site to both Jews and Muslims. Controversy exists because 1,500 years before the Dome of the Rock was built, it is believed that Solomon's Temple and a second temple were built on the same site.



Ariel Sharon became Israel's new prime minister in 2001 and was reelected again in 2003. Prime Minister Sharon put a plan in action to withdraw from the Gaza Strip in 2005. To defend their country from attacks from Palestinian terrorist groups, a barrier was built in the West Bank region.

After Sharon suffered a stroke in 2005, Ehud Olmert became the acting prime minister. In 2006, Olmert was elected prime minister. In recent Palestinian elections in early 2006, **Hamas**, a Palestinian Islamic militant group defeated the ineffective and corrupt Fatah party as the democratically elected government of the Palestinian people. *Hamas* is considered a terrorist organization by many nations in the world because of its refusal to recognize the right of Israel to exist and because of its support of violence and *terrorism*. In June of 2006, Hamas militants crossed the border from the Gaza Strip and captured an Israeli soldier, sparking renewed fighting between Israel and the Palestinians.

In July of 2006, **Hezbollah**, a Lebanese militant militia that controls southern Lebanon, captured two Israeli soldiers and killed many others. This sparked another round of fighting when *Hezbollah* launched rocket attacks on northern Israel. As a result, Israel has retaliated by bombing suspected Hezbollah strongholds and destroying Lebanese bridges, power plants, roads, and airports. Many civilians on both sides have been killed. It is believed that Syria and Iran have been secretly arming this militant militia.



Practice

Complete the following using short answers.

1. How did the Palestinians become a people without a homeland?

2. What role has the PLO played in the Arab-Israeli conflict? _____

3. Describe each of the following Middle East crises and outcomes?

Suez Canal Crisis: _____

The 1967 Six-Day War: _____

The 1973 Yom Kippur War: _____

4. Why were the Camp David Accords a major breakthrough for peace in the Middle East? _____



5. How did other Arab countries react to the Camp David Accords?

6. What events led to a civil war in Lebanon? _____

7. What was the *intifada*? _____

8. Why were some Arab countries more willing to negotiate a peaceful settlement of hostilities with Israel after the collapse of the Soviet Union? _____

9. What events stalled the peace process after the signing of the Declaration of Principles (Oslo Accord) in 1993? _____



10. What issues continue to be the most difficult to resolve between the Palestinians and Israelis? _____

11. What events led to the outbreak of renewed violence between Israel and Hamas? Hezbollah? _____



Practice

Use the list below to write the correct term for each definition on the line provided.

boycott	exile	intifada	refugee
demonstration	guerrilla	nationalism	renounce
discriminate	Hamas	parliament	terrorism
embargo	Hezbollah	recession	

- _____ 1. the act of showing ideas or feelings through public gatherings or parades
- _____ 2. banishment or expulsion from one's country
- _____ 3. strong support for the survival, success, and self-rule of one's country and culture
- _____ 4. to give up by formal declaration
- _____ 5. one of a group of fighters—not part of a formal army—who attacks suddenly and withdraws swiftly
- _____ 6. to refuse to buy or use as a means of protest
- _____ 7. a government's restriction or suspension of foreign trade with a particular country
- _____ 8. a person who flees to a foreign country to escape danger
- _____ 9. to treat differently from others because of unfair prejudices



- _____ 10. the use of violence to intimidate people or their governments to achieve a goal
- _____ 11. a period when business is bad; less serious than a depression
- _____ 12. a group of people who have the duty and power to make the laws of a country
- _____ 13. the campaign of civil disobedience by Palestinians to gain an independent Palestinian state
- _____ 14. a Palestinian Islamic militant group
- _____ 15. a Lebanese militant militia that controls southern Lebanon



Revolution and War in Iran

During the 1960s and 1970s, *Shah* (King of Iran) Mohammed Reza Pahlavi (pah-luh-vee) expanded the Iranian economy with money earned from Iran's thriving oil industry. The Shah had strong ties with the West, especially the United States. The United States had backed a military **coup** in the 1950s that helped keep the Shah firmly in control of Iran's government. During this time, Iran grew into the most powerful military force in the Persian Gulf.

Iranian Muslim leaders, however, did not approve of the increasing Western influence in their country. They rejected Western materialism and values. Many Muslim leaders favored a return to Muslim traditions and values. The Shah of Iran's authoritarian government used *ruthless* tactics, lacking pity or mercy, to silence all of his opponents.



The Azadi Tower is the symbol of Tehran, Iran, and marks the entrance to the city. It was built in 1971 in commemoration of the 2500th anniversary of the Persian Empire.





The Ayatollah (eye-uh-toh-luh) Ruhollah Khomeini (koh-may-nee), an influential *Shiite* Muslim leader of the *Shi'a* branch of Islam, preached an overthrow of the Shah and a return to Muslim values and traditions. As tensions and unrest grew, the Shah became more **repressive**. His secret police arrested, tortured, and executed their opponents. The Kurds, an ethnic minority in Iran, were also persecuted. In January 1979, the Shah's government was overthrown, and he was forced to leave his country and live in exile. He eventually came to live in the United States.

Ayatollah Ruhollah Khomeini (1900-1989)

Ayatollah Ruhollah Khomeini was an Iranian political and religious leader, born in Khomeyn, Iran. Khomeini was educated in various Islamic schools. He was bitterly opposed to the pro-Western regime of Shah Mohammed Reza Pahlavi and was outspoken in his advocacy of Islamic purity. Khomeini was exiled to Turkey and Iraq in 1964 and from Iraq to France in 1978. He would send tape-recorded messages to the Iranian revolutionary factions to keep them interested in his cause. He returned to Iran in 1979 after the collapse of the Shah's government and became head of state. Iran underwent a turbulent Islamic Revolution under his leadership. He made everyone strictly observe Muslim principles and traditions—Iranian women were required to wear the veil; Western music and all alcohol was banned. A new Islamic constitution was sanctioned in 1979 and a supreme religious and political position was recognized as belonging to Khomeini, as was the title *Rabhar* (Leader).

A new government based on Islamic principles was put in place. Khomeini soon became the new leader of Iran. His first goal was to purge his country of all Western influences. He eliminated all rival political parties, banned alcohol, Western books, and Western music. Women were forbidden to wear Western-style clothing as well. Islamic law became the legal code for the country. Hatred for the Shah eventually led to hatred of the United States. When the United States refused to return the Shah to Iran to stand trial for his “crimes against the people,” anti-American protests spread throughout Iran. On November 4, 1979, Iranian protestors, with the support of Khomeini, took over the American Embassy in Tehran and held more than 60 American officials hostage. The hostages were not released until January 1981.



Khomeini also encouraged Muslim *fundamentalists* (strict believers) in other Islamic countries to overthrow their *secular* (non-religious) governments. This led to an increase in tensions between Iran and Iraq. The Iraqis, followers of a rival Muslim sect known as the *Sunni* Muslims, already had long-standing differences between themselves and the *Shi'a* Muslims in Iran. Saddam Hussein (hoo-sayn), the military dictator of Iraq, governed his country as a secular state. During the 1980s, Iran and neighboring Iraq went to war over a long-standing territorial dispute over control of the Shatt-al-Arab waterway which forms the southern border between the two countries. Iraqi planes attacked Iranian airfields and oil refineries. Iraqi ground troops invaded Iran and seized large amounts of territory. Although Iranian forces were able to retake Iran's lost territory, neither side was able to dominate the other country. The United Nations eventually called for a cease-fire which ended the war in 1988. After eight years of fighting, more than a million Iraqis and Iranians were dead.

The Ayatollah Khomeini died in 1989 and was succeeded by another conservative religious leader. By 1991 the government of Iran began to become less militant. Moderate leaders began to replace some of the more conservative leaders of the Islamic revolution. Mohammad Khatami, a supporter of greater social and political freedoms, became president of Iran in 1997. In 1999 students and other pro-**democracy** liberals led protests in favor of granting more freedoms. Iran's military, which is still largely controlled by conservatives, has resisted change. Iran's internal conflicts have slowed the reform process. Tensions between *hard-liners* (people who resist change) and *liberals* (people who want change) continue to shape Iran's future. The Iranian presidential election of 2005 resulted in the election of Mahmoud Ahmadinejad (Ah-mah-din-uh-jad). Since his election, there has been increased tension between the United States and the new Iranian government. The main reasons for the strained relations are concerns over Iran's nuclear program and its support of terrorist groups. Iran's new president has been widely criticized by the world's leaders for his support of Hezbollah, his call for Israel to be "wiped off the map," and his denial of the Holocaust.

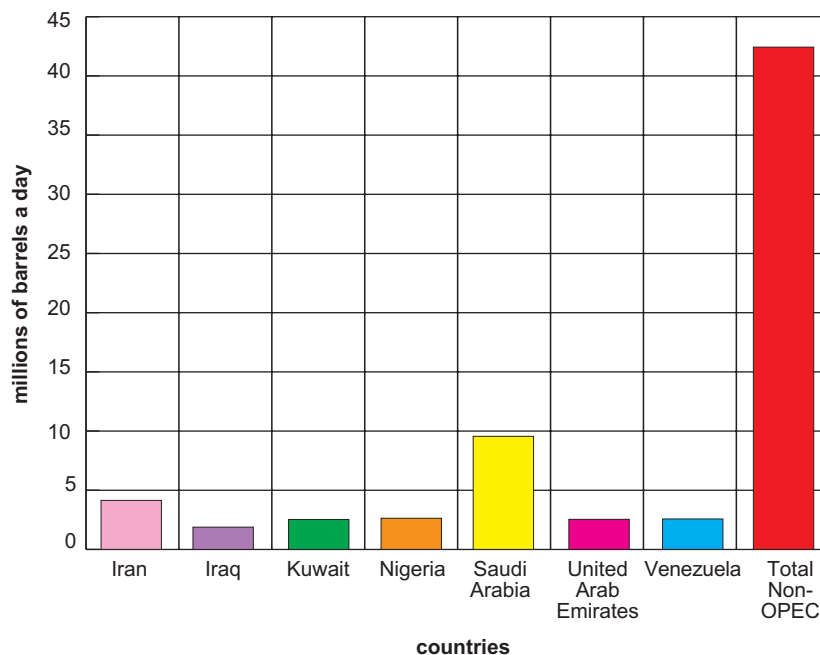


Iraq and the Persian Gulf War

Throughout the 20th century, Iraq had a series of unstable governments and **dictatorships**. In 1968 Ahmed Hassan al-Bakr and Saddam Hussein imposed authoritarian rule in Iraq in order to end the period of instability that followed World War II. Iraq used its abundant oil resources to develop one of the strongest militaries in the Middle East. In 1979 Saddam Hussein succeeded Bakr. Hussein's government used terror tactics and repression to crush its opposition. In 1980 religious tensions and territorial rivalries between Iran and Iraq led to a bloody eight-year war. The UN-sponsored cease-fire that ended the Iran-Iraq War did not bring about a permanent peace in the region.

The Iran-Iraq War drained the resources of Iraq. To solve Iraq's economic problems, Saddam Hussein invaded oil-rich Kuwait in 1990. He claimed that Kuwait was driving down the price of oil by flooding the world market. Iraq also claimed that Kuwait was a province of Iraq, not an independent country. Controlling Kuwait would give Iraq access to Kuwaiti oil and control of the Persian Gulf.

World Crude Oil Production in 2005



Source: *Official Energy Statistics from the United States Government, Energy Information Administration*



In 1991 a coalition of European, Arab, and American armies drove Iraqi forces from Kuwait after Iraq refused to withdraw and destroyed most of the Iraqi armed forces.

The invasion of Kuwait caused an international outcry. It threatened the security of the region (the Middle East) and the flow of oil from the Persian Gulf. In 1991 a *coalition* of European, Arab, and American armies drove Iraqi forces from Kuwait after Iraq refused to withdraw and destroyed most of the Iraqi armed forces. This military operation was called *Desert Storm* by the Americans.

Although Iraq had been defeated, Saddam Hussein remained firmly in power. After his Gulf War defeat, he ruthlessly crushed a Kurdish rebellion. UN economic **sanctions** kept Iraq from **exporting** and selling its oil on the world market. These measures did little to prevent Iraq from breaking the terms of the cease-fire agreement. Hussein blamed the United States for the poverty and starvation his country suffered rather than meet the terms that were necessary to remove sanctions. The UN would not lift its sanctions unless Iraq agreed to destroy all its nuclear, chemical, biological, and ballistic arms. Under the 1991 UN cease-fire agreement, Iraq had to destroy all its **weapons of mass destruction (WMD)**. *Weapons of mass destruction* are all banned chemical or biological weapons, which are capable of killing large numbers of people. Iraq had refused to cooperate with UN arms inspection teams that were sent to Iraq.



The invasion of Kuwait caused an international outcry.

Because of Iraq's refusal to cooperate with the UN, economic sanctions remained in place. The United States and Great Britain used military **air strikes**, an attack by aircraft, to target missile factories, airfields, and army command centers in order to damage Iraq's weapons buildup. The purpose of this warfare was to weaken the Iraqi military.

British and United States *air strikes* continued through 2001. After the September 11, 2001 terrorist attacks on the United States, President George W. Bush feared the nations that were hostile to the United States would pose a security threat. (See Unit 12.)



In 2002, Iraq again came under suspicion of developing weapons of mass destruction. President Bush referred to “Iran, Iraq, and North Korea” as “the axis of evil” because these nations were considered to be threats to the world’s security. It was believed that they were building up their weapons capabilities.

The UN Security Council voted to send weapon’s inspectors back to Iraq. The UN weapons inspectors were unable to find any evidence that Iraq had resumed its weapons of mass destruction program. The United States, however, was skeptical and believed that Saddam Hussein had simply hidden the evidence of his weapons program.

The Iraq War



President Bush abandoned the use of diplomacy.

President Bush abandoned the use of **diplomacy**, or peaceful settlement of disputes. He instead issued an **ultimatum**, or final set of demands, to Saddam. Saddam was ordered to leave the country. When he refused to give up control, the United States, with the support of Great Britain and other countries, made the decision to invade Iraq. Despite the objections of many countries, a coalition led by the United States and Great Britain opted to launch a **preemptive war** against Iraq in March 2003. A *preemptive war* is a military action that is intended to lessen an enemy’s ability to attack first.

Operation Iraqi Freedom began on March 19, 2003 with air strikes and a ground invasion. The Iraqi military was defeated. Baghdad, the Iraqi capital, fell in April of 2003. On May 1, 2003, President Bush told the American people that major combat operations were over. Saddam Hussein was captured in December of 2003.

The Next Stages of the War in Iraq

Coalition forces still remain in Iraq as occupation forces. Their primary goal was to rebuild Iraq’s infrastructure and its oil industry. Another goal was to help establish a democratically elected government in Iraq. However, over time, **insurgents**, or resistance fighters, began to launch a



series of attacks against the Americans and their coalition forces. Some of the *insurgents* were Saddam **loyalists**, or supporters and others were criminals or al Qaeda terrorists that slipped across the Iraqi or Syrian borders. They used “roadside bombs,” or **improvised explosive devices (IED)**, an explosive made with artillery or mortar shells that are attached to a detonator and suicide bombings. The insurgents targeted government buildings, police stations, and market places. The mounting violence has resulted in civilian causality rates of more than 100,000. To date, almost 3,000 American servicemen have lost their lives in Iraq.

In October of 2005, Iraqis turned out in large numbers to vote on a new constitution. A new government had been formed. However, many worry that Iraqi’s ethnic Kurds, a minority people living in parts of northern Iraq, and its religious groups will be unable to work together. Religious extremists among the Shiites and Sunnis, the two major Muslim sects, have escalated their acts of violence against one another. It is feared that a continued insurgency might escalate into a civil war. Saddam Hussein, Iraq’s former leader, stood trial and was charged with war crimes, crimes against humanity, and **genocide** (the deliberate and systematic killing of a racial, national, or religious group) for the ordering of the 1982 killings of 148 men and boys in the Iraqi town of Dujail before the Iraq Special Tribunal. The trial focused on his violent campaign against the Kurds in the north during the Iran-Iraq war and against the Shiites in the south in the 1990s. In December of 2006, the 69-year-old former Iraqi dictator Saddam was sentenced to death and hanged. Also sentenced to death and hanged were the former head of intelligence (his half-brother) and the former chief justice of the Revolutionary Court.

Challenges Facing the Middle East

A peace settlement between the Palestinians and Israelis may lessen religious and ethnic hostilities in the Middle East. For more than 50 years, a peaceful resolution to the problem of a homeland for the Palestinians has not been found. Many Middle Easterners have turned to religious fundamentalism. Muslim religious leaders in Iran still have a great deal of influence on government policy. In some countries, extremist fundamentalist groups have committed acts of violence against their governments and leaders. The quest for peace in the Middle East became even more difficult after the assassination of Israeli Prime Minister Yitzak Rabin by a **right-wing** Jewish extremist. Hostilities between some Arab nations and Israel still exist. The Muslim nations of Iran and Iraq fought a brutal war for eight years. The Persian Gulf War and the refusal of the



Iraqis to dismantle their weapons of mass destruction led to tensions with the UN and the world community. The war in Iraq and Lebanon has increased instability in the region. Religious tensions have heightened among Sunni and Shiite Muslims, along with an increased threat of terrorism.

Oil-producing nations of the Middle East have become wealthy, with a much higher **standard of living** than their non-oil-producing neighbors. This gap between rich and poor countries continues to grow. Solutions for the problems of the Middle East sometimes seem difficult. Since the end of the Cold War, cooperation among the nations of the Middle East has become a necessity.

Saddam Hussein (1937-2006)

Saddam Hussein was born in Tikrit, Iraq in a farming village and raised by his widowed mother. At age 20 he joined the Ba'th party. He had to flee to Egypt after a failed assassination attempt on a political leader. While in Egypt, Hussein attended school, but returned to Iraq when the Ba'thists gained power in 1963. He continued his education and political ambitions. He led movements to modernize the country and oil resources. He took over the presidency in 1979 and ruled with terror as a dictator. In 1980 he launched a war against neighboring Iran for control of a river border, to which he only gained temporary control. In 1988 he devastated the Kurdish region of Iraq and allegedly used poison gas against the Kurds to crush a 40-year rebellion.

In 1990 Hussein invaded Kuwait, an action which initiated the brief Gulf War. The Iraqis were pushed out of Kuwait and suffered severe loss. By 2002, President George W. Bush identified Iraq as part of an "axis of evil" and feared that they were able to develop weapons of mass destruction, which were never found. In 2003, about 250,000 United States soldiers and 45,000 British soldiers were sent to the region. On March 19, the United States and Great Britain declared war on Iraq and Hussein was driven from power. After nine months in hiding, Hussein was found hiding in an 8-foot hole. He was captured by United States forces, and in 2006 the Iraqi High Tribunal sentenced him to death. On December 30, 2006, Hussein was executed by hanging.



Practice

Answer the following using complete sentences.

1. Why did the Iranian people overthrow the government of the Shah?

2. How did Islamic fundamentalists change Iran? _____

3. What has happened in Iran since the death of the Ayatollah Khomeini? _____



4. What effect did the Iran-Iraq War have on the region? _____

5. Why did Iraqi President Saddam Hussein order the invasion of the neighboring country of Kuwait? _____

6. Why did the United Nations place economic sanctions on Iraq?



7. Why did the United States launch a preemptive war against Iraq?

8. What happened in Iraq since the overthrow of Saddam Hussein's government? _____



Practice

Match each definition with the correct term. Write the letter on the line provided.

- | | | |
|-------|--|--------------------------------------|
| _____ | 1. a government ruled by a person who has complete control over the life of the people | A. air strikes |
| _____ | 2. a system of government in which power comes from the people | B. coup |
| _____ | 3. a measure used to punish a specific action | C. democracy |
| _____ | 4. a sudden takeover of a country's government | D. dictatorship |
| _____ | 5. banned chemical or biological weapons, which are capable of killing large numbers of people | E. export |
| _____ | 6. cruel; keeping persons under control by use of fear or force | F. repressive |
| _____ | 7. to send goods from one country to another country | G. sanction |
| _____ | 8. an attack by aircraft | H. weapons of mass destruction (WMD) |



Practice

Use the list below to write the correct term for each definition on the line provided.

diplomacy	preemptive war
genocide	right wing
improvised explosive devices (IED)	standard of living
insurgents	ultimatum
loyalists	

- _____ 1. peaceful settlement of disputes
- _____ 2. final set of demands
- _____ 3. a military action that is intended to lessen an enemy's ability to attack first
- _____ 4. resistance fighters
- _____ 5. supporters
- _____ 6. an explosive made with artillery or mortar shells that are attached to a detonator and suicide bombs
- _____ 7. all political parties and groups who favor conservative or reactionary policies
- _____ 8. a general measure of people's wealth and overall quality of life
- _____ 9. the deliberate and systematic extermination of a particular racial, national, or religious group

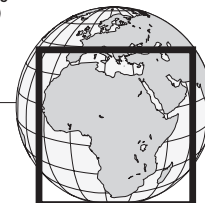


Africa: The Struggle for Freedom

At the start of World War II, nearly all the countries of Africa were colonized by European nations. After World War II, as Europe recovered from the war, colonial Africa began fighting for its independence. Africans were inspired by nationalism and strong leaders who united the people in one goal: to gain self-rule. But Europeans had taken many riches from the African continent. These riches included gold, silver, diamonds, tin, and other precious gems and minerals. Therefore, European nations would not easily give up their control of colonies in Africa.



Africa and Years Marking Independence





Sometimes Africans used nonviolent means to gain independence. In other countries, such as Algeria, fighting between native peoples and their colonial rulers was long and bloody. Regardless of how these African countries gained their self-rule, the years after independence presented difficult struggles. New nations had to form stable governments and unite rival political parties and ethnic groups. Even after gaining independence, these countries did not easily find peace.

Algeria: At War with French Colonists

Located in North Africa, Algeria was more than a colony of France. In fact, the French government thought of Algeria as part of France. Millions of French people lived in Algeria. The French in Algeria ran the government, schools, and most industries. In addition, the French government kept a very large army in Algeria. Even when other French-held colonies were given independence, France kept Algeria under French rule. The Algerian people, however, were eager for independence.

In 1954 a brutal civil war broke out in Algeria between the *Algerian National Liberation Front* or FLN and the French settlers, known as the *colons* or *pieds noirs*. Algerian guerrilla soldiers began a war for independence. In reaction to raids by Algerian guerrilla fighters, French soldiers destroyed Algerian property and committed inhumane acts against the Algerian people. The French government in Paris could not control the uprising in Algeria. The civil war in Algeria soon led to the collapse of France's government, known as the Fourth Republic.

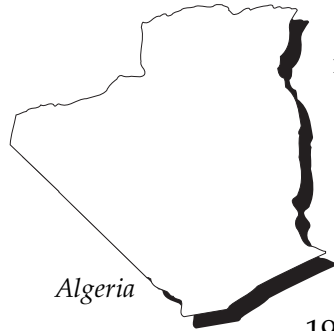
In May 1958, the French people called upon war hero Charles de Gaulle to lead France. With popular support, de Gaulle wrote a new constitution for France. Under the constitution of France's Fifth Republic, the president of France was given a great deal of power and authority. De Gaulle promised to help Algeria establish self-rule, despite the opposition of the *colons*. He used his power to grant independence to the Algerian people. Eventually the French army left Algeria. Algerian independence was proclaimed on July 3, 1962. One million *colons* fled back to France. In 1962 some of the former French generals in Algeria tried to kill de Gaulle and overthrow the Fifth Republic. The coup failed and many were arrested.



The Algerian people were eager for independence.



Algeria after Independence



Ahmed Ben Bell, the leader of the FLN, became Algeria's first prime minister after independence in the 1960s. For the next several decades, Algeria worked to modernize and industrialize itself. A drop in oil prices and dissatisfaction among many Islamic leaders led to the riots in 1988. Civil war broke out between the ruling government and the *Islamic Salvation Front* (FIS) when the FIS won parliamentary and local elections in 1990 and 1991. The ruling government and the army refused to accept the election results. Efforts to restore order resulted in an agreement with militant Islamic groups to release thousands of Islamic political prisoners. In recent years, a truce between the FIS and the government has ended violence that had claimed tens of thousands of lives.

By 2002 the main militant Islamic groups had either been destroyed or had surrendered. Most militants took advantage of an **amnesty** (or a general pardon) program; however, some refused to surrender and sporadic fighting has continued in some areas of Algeria.

Nigeria and the Fight for Democracy

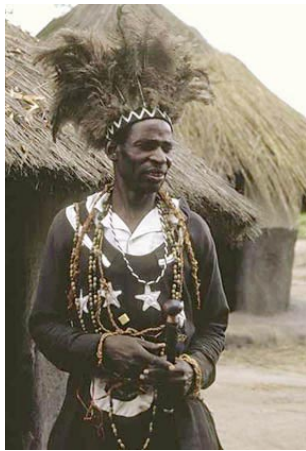
Located in West Africa, Nigeria has the largest population in Africa. Nigeria is a country of many tribes. Its largest tribe, the Yoruba, lives in the south. In the north are the Hausa and Fulani, who are Muslims. The Ibo and the Yoruba are mostly Christians or Animists. The Nigerian people have a long history, rich in culture and tradition. Before the British colonized Nigeria and set up a central government in Lagos, the Nigerian people were loyal to their local tribal leaders. When the British colonized Nigeria, they ignored the tribal traditions and customs of the local people. When independence was granted to Nigeria in 1960 and the British left the country, the Nigerian leaders were left with an English system of government in a land of tribal customs. The new government could not unite the rival tribes and different religions.





After independence, Nigeria adopted a federal system, a government in which power is shared between state governments and a central authority. Three states were set up, one for each region and ethnic group. One group dominated each state, but ethnic minorities existed in each state. In 1966 a group of army officers, mostly Ibos, demanded their own independent state, Biafra (bee-af-ruh). These army officers abolished the regional governments and declared **martial law**. Before the Biafran Civil War

ended, thousands of Ibos were killed, many of them innocent women and children. Ibo villages were destroyed. In 1970 the Ibos were defeated and Biafra surrendered. Although Nigeria was eventually reunited, the war left Nigeria's government weak and unstable.



Africa is rich in history, culture, and tradition.



Nigeria has been under military rule for all but 10 years since getting independence from Britain. The military has broken its promise to give up power eight times. The army held elections in 1993 after pressure to restore democracy. When a popular leader was elected, the army declared

the result invalid and gave power instead to another military dictator, General Sani Abacha. The military government banned all political activities and jailed **dissidents** (opponents of government policy). In November 1995, Nigeria hanged nine political prisoners. All were critics of the military government. One of the nine was Ken Saro-Wiwa, a renowned writer and political activist who protested the environmental hazards of drilling for oil in his native province.

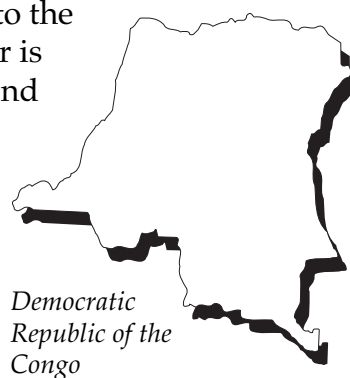
After Abacha died of a sudden heart attack in June 1998, he was followed by another military ruler who promised to allow free elections. In February 1999, free presidential elections gave a huge victory to Olusegun Obasanjo, a former military leader who had spent three years in prison for



speaking out against the military government. Obasanjo promised to strengthen democracy, to fight corruption, to rebuild the economy, and to recover billions of dollars allegedly stolen by the military rulers. In 2003 President Obasanjo was the first civilian president after almost 20 years of military rule to win a second term. His main goals were to work for a unified country and to work to rebuild Nigeria into a modern, prosperous nation.

The Democratic Republic of the Congo (formerly Zaire and the Belgian Congo): Rich in Minerals

The Congo River flows through central Africa into the Atlantic Ocean. The land around the Congo River is rich in resources, including vast tropical forests and mineral wealth. Belgium's King Leopold *exploited* (took advantage of) his colony's rich resources of rubber, ivory, and copper under a system of forced labor and terror. Belgium provided no social services, such as education, and made no attempt to prepare the Congolese people for independence.



On June 30, 1960, the Belgium government suddenly granted independence to the Congolese people. Their leaders were not prepared to assume the difficult responsibilities of governing a new nation. Warfare broke out between different tribes. Within months after independence, the country split apart. In July 1960, the southeastern province of Katanga, the Congo's richest province, *seceded* (withdrew) from the new republic. Civil war broke out and lasted for three years.

UN peacekeeping forces stayed in the Congo to prevent the involvement of the superpowers. UN forces withdrew in 1964, after Katanga returned to Congolese rule. Conflicts between rival political and ethnic groups continued to divide the country. Army General Joseph Mobuto (also known as *Mobuto Sese Seko*) seized power in 1965 after a military coup overthrew the existing government. He renamed the country Zaire, meaning *big river*. Mobuto, a brutal dictator, ruled Zaire for the next 30 years. He slaughtered his rivals, ruined the country's economy, and was accused of stealing billions from the treasury. He was able to stay in power for decades because his anti-Communist stand won him favor in

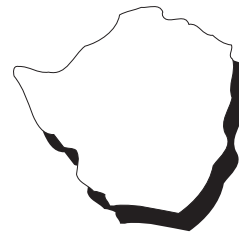


the West during the Cold War. Zaire was used for many *covert* (secret) operations by the West against Marxist countries, or types of countries who follow **Marxism**, like Angola.

During the 1980s and 1990s, opposition to Mobuto's rule grew. His downfall began when he tried to expel the Zairian Tutsis, an ethnic group that had lived in eastern Zaire for centuries. A rebel leader named Laurent Kabila led a military rebellion against Mobuto. His government was finally overthrown in May 1997 by General Kabila. Kabila returned the country to the name which it had held 27 years ago, the Democratic Republic of the Congo. Mobuto fled into exile to Morocco and died of cancer later that year. Kabila's autocratic government soon faced opposition from many of his former allies. In July 1999, a cease-fire agreement signed by all opposing parties halted the outbreaks of violence; however, fighting continued throughout various parts of the country. President Kabila was assassinated in January 2001, and his son Joseph Kabila was named head of state. Uniting the tribes into one country and resolving ethnic rivalries will be the greatest challenge facing the Democratic Republic of the Congo in the coming years.

Zimbabwe (Rhodesia) and Majority Rule

Rhodesia was a British colony in southern Africa which had fertile farmland and a wide variety of valuable mineral resources. When the desire for independence swept across the African colonies during the 1960s, the white minority that ruled Rhodesia refused to give up power to the native black majority. Great Britain supported the idea of rule by the black majority. However, white Rhodesians rejected the idea of giving up their power to the black majority. Despite Great Britain's opposition, Rhodesia proclaimed its independence from Britain in November 1965.



Zimbabwe

Conservative whites, led by Prime Minister Ian Smith, would not share political power with the black majority, despite international pressure, economic sanctions, and guerrilla attacks. The white minority had forced the native African people to live as *second-class* citizens. Whites made up only five percent of Rhodesia's population but controlled the government, the schools, and all industry and owned half the land. Native Africans were not permitted to hold certain jobs and were told where they had to live.



As other African nations became independent, black Nationalists in Rhodesia prepared to fight for their rights. In the mid-1970s, the situation in Rhodesia became a crisis. If the white minority government did not grant equal rights to the African majority, bloodshed was certain. The government of Rhodesia, however, was doing everything it could to prevent Africans in Rhodesia from gaining equal rights. During the 1970s, guerrillas gained control of most of Rhodesia. Economic sanctions imposed by the UN and the United States put pressure on the Rhodesian government to grant Africans equal rights. After a lengthy civil war, a settlement was finally reached.

Elections were held in 1974 and Nationalist leader Robert Mugabe was elected prime minister. In 1980 Rhodesia became the independent state of Zimbabwe. Recovery after years of civil war and economic sanctions was a difficult process. During the 1980s and 1990s, Mugabe was reelected to office. His administration worked to rebuild agriculture and industry. Zimbabwe's biggest challenge has been the *autoimmune deficiency syndrome* (AIDS) epidemic that has reduced the average Zimbabwean life expectancy to 39 years of age.

President Mugabe's land reform policy resulted in the forced removal of white-owned farms without compensation. The seized land was given to his political supporters who did not efficiently farm the land. This resulted in a fall in productivity and widespread starvation. In 2002 and 2005, Mugabe was reelected president; however many claim that these elections were rigged. His administration is accused of corruption, many human rights abuses, and widespread violence against his political opponents.

South Africa: The Fight for Freedom



South Africa

At the beginning of the 20th century, South Africa won self-rule from Great Britain. It withdrew from the British Commonwealth in 1961 to become a republic. South Africa was governed by a white minority of ethnically British and *Afrikaners* (descendants of Dutch settlers). The white minority controlled vast mineral resources and fertile farmlands. They also controlled the government and denied basic freedoms to the African population and other minorities living in South Africa. The official policy of



the South African government towards the African majority was called **apartheid**. *Apartheid* separated the races in order to maintain white rule. Native Africans in South Africa were treated like second-class citizens. The South African government recognized four categories of race: whites, blacks, people of mixed ancestry called *coloreds*, and Asians. Under apartheid laws, white, black, and mixed races were strictly **segregated**. Blacks could not vote or own property. They were forced to live in *segregated* rural areas called *homelands*. All nonwhites had to carry special identification cards whenever they left their areas. Under this strictly controlled and *repressive* system, blacks were forced to work at low-paying jobs. Apartheid laws banned racially mixed marriages and set up segregated schools, restaurants, and other facilities.

United States President Jimmy Carter spoke out many times against the policy of apartheid. He cut off much trade with South Africa in order to put economic pressure on the South African government. Many countries refused to trade or do business in South Africa. South African athletes were *banned*, or stopped, from competing in many international sports events, including the Olympic Games. South Africa found itself diplomatically isolated as more and more countries broke off diplomatic relations because of its government's racial policies. Black Africans in South Africa joined nationalist movements that opposed white domination. Marches, boycotts, and strikes spread throughout South Africa. In response, the government imposed even harsher laws. White officials banned black Nationalist organizations and arrested their leaders. The *African National Congress* (ANC), the largest black Nationalist movement in South Africa, was banned in 1960. In 1964, Nelson Mandela, an ANC leader, was sentenced to life in prison for organizing acts of civil disobedience against apartheid laws and conspiracy against the government. Mandela, who remained in prison for 27 years, became a powerful symbol of the struggle against apartheid.



United States President Jimmy Carter spoke out many times against the policy of apartheid.



The ANC began **guerrilla warfare** against the government in the 1970s. Responding to growing unrest, white leaders began to ease many of the laws that *discriminated* against blacks. Desmond Tutu, a black bishop in South Africa, won the Nobel Peace Prize in 1984 for his nonviolent opposition to apartheid and his efforts to bring justice to South Africa. A state of emergency was imposed by the white government in 1985 when protests and violence escalated. In 1989 the newly elected South African president, F. W. de Klerk, pledged change through negotiations with the black population. He ended apartheid and repealed the segregation laws. In 1990 the ban on the ANC was lifted, and Nelson Mandela was finally released from prison after almost three decades of imprisonment.



Nelson Mandela

During the next four years, de Klerk and Mandela worked together to reform South Africa's government. By 1992, South Africans voted to support reforms that allowed equal rights for all citizens. For the first time, both black and white South Africans were allowed to vote together. In 1993, the Nobel Peace Prize was awarded jointly to F. W. de Klerk and Nelson Mandela for their efforts to bring about a peaceful end to apartheid in South Africa. Nelson Mandela was elected in 1994 as the first black president of the new democratic government. As expected, the African National Congress won over 60 percent of the vote. In 1997, the Truth and Reconciliation Commission, led by Desmond Tutu, began public hearings to examine human rights violations between 1960 and 1993. The commission promised *amnesty*, or a general pardon, to those who confessed their crimes under the apartheid system. In 1998 F. W. de Klerk, P. W. Botha, and leaders of the ANC appeared before the commission as part of the painful process of national recovery. Nelson Mandela retired in 1999 after completing his term as president. Thabo Mbeki, Mandela's vice president and also a leader in the ANC's struggle against apartheid, was elected the second black president of democratic South Africa in June, 1999 and was subsequently reelected for a second term in April 2004. Black poverty and unemployment in South Africa still remains high; however, the overall economic outlook is slowly improving.



Problems Facing Africa

In the decades following World War II, European colonial rule in Africa came to an end. Many newly independent African nations were unprepared to establish democratic governments. Although they had won independence, many were still economically dependent on the support of their former European colonial rulers.

Colonial boundaries of African nations did not reflect the cultural, ethnic, or language divisions of Africa. These boundaries were drawn for the convenience of Europeans, not Africans. Tribal homelands often were split between several countries, fragmenting the tribes.

All the current African nations include a wide variety of different groups. In some parts of Africa, there are more than 75 different languages or dialects in one nation. Due to this diversity, it has been difficult for the now independent nations to develop the common identity needed for loyalty to one's nation.

Disagreements among different ethnic groups in each nation have led to civil wars. In the 1990s, ethnic unrest in the countries of Rwanda and Burundi led to one of the most violent conflicts in African history. Two ethnic groups, the *Hutu* and the *Tutsis*, fought against one another in a bitter civil war in Rwanda in which *genocide* claimed the lives of 500,000 people, mostly Tutsi.

Newly independent African nations have also seen democratic governments give way to a series of corrupt and brutal military *dictatorships* or government with one-party rule. Over 70 leaders of African countries were overthrown by violence between 1957-1982.

In 1974 military leaders in Ethiopia overthrew Emperor Haile Selassie and began a Marxist dictatorship. Civil war broke out when the new government persecuted and killed many political opponents. During the 1990s, a long **drought** and then a civil war led to the eventual fall of the military dictatorship. When the Ethiopian province of Eritrea became



Colonial boundaries of African nations did not reflect the cultural, ethnic, or language division of Africa.

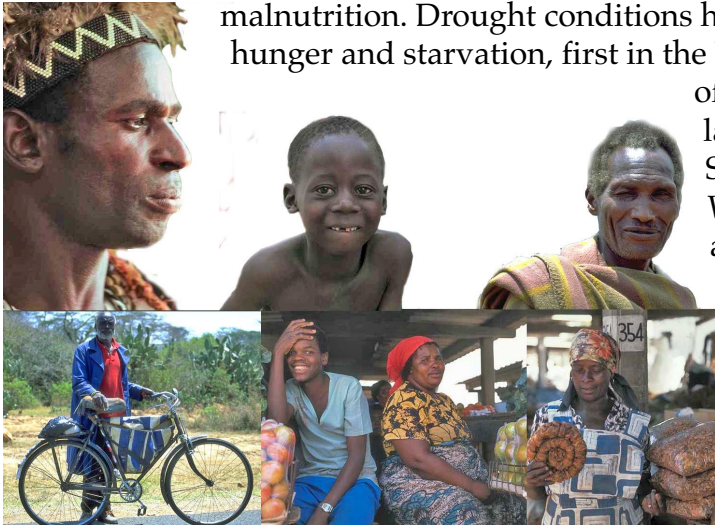


independent in 1993, border disputes and war erupted again, eventually spreading to Ethiopia's neighbor Somalia. Somalia is another country that has suffered from the effects of an unstable government. Since 1991 Somalia has been engulfed in **anarchy**. Rival clans and warlords fought for control of the government as a severe *drought* killed hundreds of thousands of Somalis.

Another area affected by drought has been Sudan's western Darfur region. An intense drought in 1983-1984 led to famine. This increased tensions between ethnic African tribes in Darfur and Sudan's predominantly Arab government. In 2003, armed conflict broke out. Darfuri rebels accused the government of neglecting the Darfur region and revolted against the Sudanese government. The government responded by sending aircraft to bomb villages. With the support of Sudan's military, further attacks on the villages by Arab tribal militias followed. These militias, also called the *Janjaweed*, have been accused of genocide. United Nations researchers estimate that at least 200,000 people in Darfur have died. Around 2.5 million people have been displaced. Many people fled to refugee camps or across the border into Chad. The world's largest relief effort has been mounted in response to the conflict. However, violence has prevented aid from reaching many parts of Darfur.

Independence did not bring economic prosperity to Africa. The dependence on the *export* of a single crop or natural resource, like Liberia's rubber or Nigeria's oil, has created economic instability in these countries. When the prices of these goods dropped, the economies of these African nations suffered. One-product economies, such as those of Ghana with cocoa and Burundi with coffee, are at the mercy of constant price changes on the world market. Nigeria has tried to use its oil and mineral wealth to fund the development of modernization projects within the country. However, **importing** manufactured goods and expensive technology from the West has also drained African economies. In their rush to industrialize, African nations failed to adequately develop agriculture. In addition, rapid population growth in many African nations has crippled efforts to modernize economic systems and improve standards of living.

Problems in Africa are not only political or economic. The people of Africa have recently suffered the world's worst food shortages because of crop failures and drought. Millions of people are in danger of starvation and



Rapid population growth in many African nations has crippled efforts to modernize economic systems and improve standards of living.

malnutrition. Drought conditions have led to widespread hunger and starvation, first in the West African countries of Mali and Niger and later in Ethiopia, Somalia, and the Sudan. Widespread hunger has also caused countless numbers of African people to migrate to neighboring countries in search of food. The AIDS epidemic has devastated Africa, killing millions in recent years and leaving behind hundreds of

thousands of orphaned children to fend for themselves. Because of all of these problems, widespread poverty has impacted both rural and urban life. Massive slums surround many African cities, mostly populated by rural people who fled to the city seeking a better life.

Economic and political changes will be a slow and painful process. A number of African leaders believe in *Pan Africanism*, the belief in unity of all black Africans, regardless of national boundaries. In 1963 Kwame Nkrumah of Ghana and Ahmed Sekou Toure of Guinea invited 32 African nations to form the *Organization of African Unity* (OAU). The OAU is an organization created to promote a common identity and a common sense of destiny for all Africans. Enlightened African leaders hope that someday a Pan-African Union will unite all the countries of the African continent into a broader community. OAU members hope that someday it can create an all-African common market similar to the European Union.



Practice

Use the list below to write the correct **country** for each **description** on the line provided. **One or more countries will be used more than once.**

Algeria	Egypt	South Africa
Democratic Republic of the Congo	Nigeria	Zimbabwe

- _____ 1. The official government policy of this country was apartheid.
- _____ 2. Once part of France, this country won independence in 1958.
- _____ 3. This country was involved in the Biafran Civil War.
- _____ 4. This country was governed by Nasser and Sadat.
- _____ 5. This country, once ruled by a white minority, used to be called *Rhodesia*.
- _____ 6. This former colony of Belgium was given independence in 1960.
- _____ 7. This country has the largest population in Africa.
- _____ 8. This country was defeated by Israel several times.
- _____ 9. The African National Congress and its leader, Nelson Mandela, fought to end white minority rule in this country.



Practice

Use the **information** in your **textbook** to complete the chart below.

The Struggle for Political and Economic Stability in Africa				
Country	Colonized by	Political Problems	Economic Problems	Social Problems
Algeria				
Nigeria				
Democratic Republic of Congo				
Zimbabwe				
South Africa				



Practice

Match each definition with the correct term. Write the letter on the line provided.

- | | |
|--|----------------------|
| _____ 1. segregation and discrimination against non-European groups in the Republic of South Africa from 1948 to the early 1990s | A. amnesty |
| _____ 2. to separate people on the basis of color | B. anarchy |
| _____ 3. a general pardon for offences against a government | C. apartheid |
| _____ 4. the deliberate and systematic extermination of a particular racial, national, or religious group | D. dissident |
| _____ 5. absence of political authority | E. drought |
| _____ 6. a period of dry weather; lack of rain | F. export |
| _____ 7. a person who openly expresses opinions that differ from those held by the general society | G. genocide |
| _____ 8. to send goods from one country to another country | H. guerrilla warfare |
| _____ 9. a type of warfare in which small groups of revolutionary fighters, not part of a regular army, use surprise attacks against their enemies | I. import |
| _____ 10. temporary rule by military authorities, limiting the rights of citizens | J. martial law |
| _____ 11. to bring goods into one country from another country | K. Marxism |
| _____ 12. a form of socialism in which workers own all land and all means of production (the final stage of socialism is communism) | L. segregate |



Latin America

Latin America is a geographically diverse region that stretches from Mexico at its northern border, through Central America and the Caribbean islands down to the tip of South America. Throughout their history, the nations of Latin America have been controlled by foreign powers. As colonies, they were directly controlled by their parent countries of Spain, Portugal, and France. After independence in the 19th century, the United States and Great Britain used their economic and political power to manipulate the countries of Latin America. These foreign powers used Latin America's people and resources to gain wealth. Most of Latin America still has not recovered from the colonial practices of these imperialist nations and remain very poor.



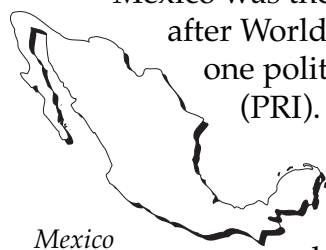


The economies of most Latin American nations, like many African nations, were based upon one major industry or **cash crop**. For example, Cuba depended on sugar cane, Colombia on coffee, Bolivia on tin, and Nicaragua on bananas. When a country's economy is based upon one major resource, it will usually have a weak economy. If poor weather destroys a crop, the entire economy of the country can be ruined.

Depending on the world supply of these goods, prices on the world market can rise and fall at any time. A fall in prices for a product can hurt an economy. An example of this happened in Mexico. Mexico discovered huge oil fields at a time when oil prices were high. In order to drill and refine the oil, the Mexican government took out large loans from banks around the world. When the price of oil on the world market fell, the Mexican government was stuck with huge debts and an oil surplus.

During the last 200 years, most Latin American countries have had military dictatorships. Latin American countries, like many African nations, have had a history of unstable governments. These military governments outlawed political parties and censored the press. In many Latin American countries, governments imprisoned or executed thousands of *dissidents*. Since the 1980s, most Latin American countries have replaced their dictatorships with democratically elected governments as they attempt to modernize their societies and economies.

Mexico



Mexico was the most politically stable country in Latin America after World War II. Since 1929 Mexico has been dominated by one political party, the *Institutional Revolutionary Party* (PRI). The PRI controlled Mexico's national and local governments for most of the 20th century. During the 1950s and 1960s, the Mexican government promoted steady economic growth. Although there were increases in industrial growth and national income, wealth was unevenly distributed. Most of the new wealth went to the educated upper classes. Little wealth reached the masses of poor people. For example, despite Mexico's new wealth from oil production, millions of peasants in rural areas remain desperately poor.

In 1968 thousands of students protested the policies of the Mexican government. Police opened fire on the protestors, killing hundreds of



students. During the 1970s, the government responded to the growing demands for social and economic reforms. The government began a land reform program and restricted foreign investment. Political reforms allowed competition between rival political parties in all elections. Many other democratic reforms and freedoms were put in place. However, economic problems continued to *plague* (trouble) Mexico. Although the discovery of oil caused an economic boom, the worldwide *recession* in the 1980s caused oil prices to fall. High interest rates on loans made it difficult for Mexico to pay its debts. As a result, Mexico had to cut government spending, especially for social programs that helped the poor. The government sold off government-owned companies and reduced regulations on private businesses. It also opened up Mexico to foreign investment.



Despite Mexico's new wealth from oil production, millions of peasants in rural areas remain desperately poor.

In 1994 the Mexican government had to deal with a guerrilla uprising in the southern state of Chiapas. The rebels demanded democratic, social, and economic reforms to help Mexico's poor. The PRI was widely criticized for its corrupt and ineffective use of power in Chiapas, as well as in Mexico.

Mexico signed the *North American Free Trade Agreement* (NAFTA) in 1993 with the United States and Canada. This agreement was supposed to



Mexico's population has continued to grow rapidly, and the gap between rich and poor has widened.

lower trade barriers between these countries and open new markets. It was hoped that increased business investment would increase prosperity in Mexico. However, economic improvements had little impact on the lives of Mexico's poorest citizens.

Mexico's population has continued to grow rapidly, and the gap between rich and poor has widened. Illegal immigration and



drug smuggling have created problems between the United States and Mexico. Economic and social pressure, plus dissatisfaction with the PRI, have led to increased challenges from opposition political parties. After 71 years of political control of Mexico, the PRI finally lost the presidency to a rival party in July 2000. Vicente Fox of the center-right *National Action Party* (PAN) was elected president. Mexico at last may be developing into a democracy that is not dominated by one political party but instead is open to a variety of different groups and points of view. Vicente Fox retired as president of Mexico at the end of his term of office. The 2006 presidential election resulted in a narrow margin of victory for Felipe Calderon of the PAN political party. Many believed that the election was “too close to call.” Lopez Obrador, the presidential candidate of the *Party of the Democratic Revolution* (PRD), appealed the election outcome, charging that the election was fraudulent. On September 5, 2006, the Federal Electoral Tribunal ruled the election was fair and that Felipe Calderon was the winner.

The Caribbean

Cuba

The Caribbean island nation of Cuba won its independence from Spain in 1898. It is only 90 miles from Florida. In the decades that followed, the United States became Cuba’s most important trading partner, purchasing Cuba’s main export—sugar. The United States heavily invested in Cuban sugar plantations and sugar mills. It also influenced Cuban politics, supporting Cuban dictator Fulgencio Batista. Batista allowed American corporations to control Cuba’s economy. By the 1950s, American investors controlled Cuba’s productive land, mines, and the oil industry. Batista’s Cuba was ruled as a police state. Corrupt government officials took bribes and payoffs from American gamblers who operated the casinos in Cuba.



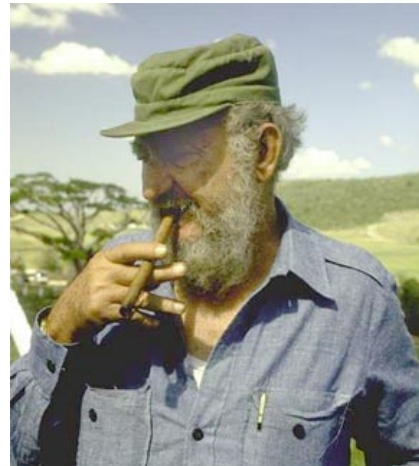
In the mid-1950s, a young lawyer named Fidel Castro began a guerrilla movement against Batista’s corrupt government. Support for Castro grew, and, by 1959, Castro and his guerrilla army overthrew the Batista government. Castro was welcomed as a hero by his many supporters who



believed that he was going to establish democracy in Cuba. Within a few months, Castro arrested and jailed his political opponents and turned Cuba into a Communist state. He nationalized all foreign-owned businesses and industries, and seized American money in local banks. Most of the land was eventually turned into Soviet-style, government-owned farms.

The Bay of Pigs Invasion

When the United States broke off diplomatic relations with Cuba in 1961, Castro formed an alliance with the Soviet Union. Castro's friendship with the Soviet Union made Cuba a focus of the Cold War in the Americas. Many Cubans, unhappy with Castro's harsh authoritarian rule, fled to the United States. With the help of the United States, some of these Cuban exiles planned an invasion of Cuba, hoping that the invasion would spark an uprising against Castro. About 2,000 anti-Castro exiles trained by the CIA landed at the Bay of Pigs on April 17, 1961. President



Fidel Castro

Kennedy gave approval for the invasion but did not provide any military support. The invasion was a failure. Most of the exiles were captured or killed. Castro used the Bay of Pigs invasion to rally public opinion against the United States. In 1962 the United States placed a trade embargo on Cuba. Travel between the countries was also restricted.

The Cuban Missile Crisis: The Superpowers Avoid War

Perhaps the closest the superpowers came to fighting each other was during the Cuban Missile Crisis in 1962. For the first time, the Cold War almost turned into a real war between the Soviet Union and the United States. Castro let the Soviet Union install nuclear missile bases in Cuba, just 90 miles off the Florida coast. If launched, these missiles could have destroyed every large city in the eastern United States. In October 1962, President Kennedy ordered a naval blockade of 200 warships to Cuba. Kennedy demanded that Premier Krushchev, the leader of the Soviet Union, remove the weapons. Both superpowers prepared for war. The



crisis ended a few days later when Krushchev removed the missiles in Cuba. The Cuban Missile Crisis had ended without either side taking any military action. In a secret agreement with the Soviet Union, the United States agreed not to invade Cuba and to remove its nuclear missiles from Turkey, an ally on the southern border of the Soviet Union. The United States kept its naval base at Guantanamo Bay, Cuba.

Cuba Exports Revolution

In the decades following the Cuban Missile Crisis, the Soviet Union became Cuba's main trading partner. The Soviet Union gave economic and military aid to Cuba. Castro used his influence in the different countries of Latin America to encourage local Communist rebels and their guerrilla activities aimed at establishing Communist dictatorships. The United States continued its trade embargo of Cuba in an effort to isolate it from the rest of the Western Hemisphere. Anti-Communist governments in Latin America were given economic and military assistance in an effort to halt the spread of **communism**.



Cuban farmer

Cuba during and after the Cold War

The United States established limited diplomatic ties with Cuba in the late 1970s. Emigration to the United States increased dramatically in 1980, when Castro allowed thousands of Cubans to sail to the United States. The *Freedom Flotilla*, which left from the Cuban port of Mariel, included people who were opponents of Castro, peasants, criminals, mental patients, and others unwanted by the Cuban government. Cuban Americans used this opportunity to bring family members to the United States. Boats and ships of all kinds brought the refugees into Florida.

In late 1980s and early 1990s, when *communism* collapsed in Eastern Europe, Cuba's foreign aid from the former Soviet Union ended. Cuba's economy suffered. However, Castro refused to give up on communism. He recruited foreign investment and encouraged tourists to visit Cuba. Castro improved ties with other nations in the Western Hemisphere. Although there have been minor improvements in United States-Cuban relations, the United States has refused to lift its embargo against Cuba.



In 1998 Pope John Paul II made a historic visit to Cuba, raising hopes that Castro would ease restrictions on personal freedoms and allow religious freedom for Cubans. Many believe that Cuba is no longer a threat and that the United States should lift its embargo. Cuba will continue to be a lasting symbol of the Cold War until relations are normalized or until Fidel Castro leaves office. In July of 2006, Fidel Castro transferred his duties as president of Cuba to his brother Raul Castro. The government claimed that the transfer of duties was temporary while Castro recovered from surgery. However, while the transfer was not intended to be permanent, there are no indications when or if he will be able to return to his previous duties.

Haiti

The country of Haiti is located on the eastern side of an island that lies east of Cuba. Part of the West Indies, French-speaking Haiti shares the mountainous island of Hispaniola with the Spanish-speaking country of the Dominican Republic. These countries are the poorest in the Western Hemisphere.



Haiti

Dictators have ruled Haiti during much of its history. François Duvalier, nicknamed “Papa Doc,” established a dictatorship over Haiti from 1957-1971. His son Jean-Claude Duvalier, or “Baby Doc,” succeeded his father as dictator in 1971. The use of secret police, corruption, and repression of human rights marked both Duvalier dictatorships. Jean-Claude Duvalier had to flee the country in 1986, when his government was overthrown in a military coup.

After four years of political instability and economic struggle, the Haitian people voted in their country’s first democratic elections ever. A Roman Catholic priest named Jean Bertrand Aristide was elected president. However, in 1991 Aristide was overthrown by the military and forced to flee the country. In 1994 United Nations military forces put Aristide back into power. Peacekeeping forces tried to help the country make the transition from military dictatorship to democracy.



François “Papa Doc” Duvalier (1907-1971)

François Duvalier was a Haitian politician and president (1957-1971). He was born in Port-au-Prince. He trained as a doctor—which gave him his nickname Papa Doc—at the University of Haiti. Duvalier became director of the National Public Health Service in 1946 and minister of health and labor in 1948. He organized opposition to the military government of Paul Magloire, promoted black nationalism, and was elected president in 1957 after the resignation of Magloire.

Duvalier held power from 1957 until his death. His regime saw the creation of his dreaded private militia, the *Tontons Macoutes*, and the exile of many people. Duvalier ruled by terror, helped by the Tontons Macoutes. His regime of terror stopped any political opposition. He declared himself president for life in 1964 and was succeeded by his son, Jean-Claude “Baby Doc” Duvalier.

Little progress was made towards bringing about political and economic stability in Haiti. Several free elections have failed to solve the country’s economic problems. Without a strong tradition of democratic government, Haiti has had a difficult time keeping democracy alive. Many of its freely elected leaders have suspended the parliament and have begun ruling by *decre* (order). Election fraud has been a problem as well. Large numbers of poor Haitians still flee their country every year seeking a better life. Many have migrated illegally to the United States, only to be sent back to their country by United States immigration officials.

Instability and violence continues to plague Haiti in the 21st century. Jean-Bertrand Aristide was reelected president in 2000 only to be overthrown by armed rebels in 2004 Haitian Rebellion. Aristide was forced to flee the country. After much delay, the interim (or temporary) government scheduled elections in February 2006 and Rene Preval was elected president.



Central America

Panama



Panama

Since World War II, the country of Panama has been peaceful and prosperous. Panama, once a part of Colombia, became a separate country with the help of the United States in 1903. The United States gave the Panamanians aid in their struggle for independence in return for control of the Panama Canal, a shortcut which connects the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans. Panama also gave up control of a strip of land on both sides of the canal where the United States went on to build many military bases.

Omar Torrijos governed Panama from 1968 to 1981. During his rule, Panama was a stable and prosperous country. Economic programs enabled many of the poor to have jobs and improve their *standard of living*.

Much of Panama's prosperity came from the American-owned Panama Canal. After a while, many Panamanians resented what they believed to be American domination of their country. In 1977 a treaty was signed by the leaders of the United States and Panama. The United States agreed to give control of the Panama Canal to Panama by December 1999, in return for Panama's promise to allow ships from any country to use the canal.



Panama Canal

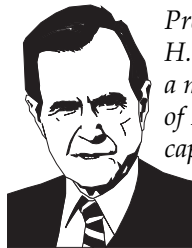


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After the death of Omar Torrijos in 1981, Panama entered a period of political instability. By 1988 a general named Manuel Noriega had seized power. He refused to allow newly elected officials to take office and ignored the results of presidential elections. Noriega's paramilitary supporters attacked opposition political



leaders. Noriega had worked as an agent for the *Central Intelligence Agency* (CIA), yet he began to get involved in the drug smuggling trade. His corrupt and brutal rule turned the United States government against him.



President George H. W. Bush ordered a military invasion of Panama to capture Noriega.

In 1989 United States President George H. W. Bush ordered a military invasion of Panama to capture Noriega. He was brought to Florida and convicted on narcotics charges. Guillermo Endara became the new president, whose election in 1989 Noriega had ignored. In May

1999 voters chose Mireya Moscoso as their new president.

Panama entered the 21st century in control of the Panama Canal. The canal was transferred from the United States to Panama in December 1999, ending nearly a century of control by the United States.

In the 2004 presidential election, Martin Torrijos, son of the former president Omar Torrijos, defeated the incumbent president Mireya Moscoso. Torrijos ran on a campaign of “zero tolerance” for corruption which has been an ongoing problem in the past two administrations.

Nicaragua



Nicaragua

From 1850-1936, a long series of rulers with unlimited authority controlled Nicaragua. The United States Marines occupied the country at times in the early 20th century, when the threat of civil war in Nicaragua endangered United States economic interests.

In 1937 a military commander named Anastasio Somoza Garcia became president and ruthlessly ruled Nicaragua for nearly 20 years. After he was assassinated in 1956, he was replaced by his son Luis. Eleven years later Luis’ younger brother Anastasio Somoza Debayle replaced him as president. All three Somozas became rich at the expense of the common people of Nicaragua.

In 1979 a Marxist revolutionary group known as the *Sandinistas* overthrew the last Somoza government. The Sandinista leader Daniel Ortega became the new president of Nicaragua. Although the Sandinistas made many reforms, such as redistribution of the farm land to the poor and increased spending for education and health care, the economy did not improve.



The revolutionaries lost the support of many Nicaraguans who had backed them during the revolution. A new group known as the *Contras*, or counterrevolutionaries, began launching guerrilla raids and attacks against the Sandinistas. The United States CIA gave aid and assistance to the Contras. The United States also ordered an embargo on trade with Nicaragua. This embargo was very damaging to the Nicaraguan economy because the United States had been its chief trading partner. In 1985 the United States Congress rejected President Ronald Reagan's request for military aid to the Contras. The secret transfer of funds to the Contras from money received in a secret arms sale to Iran caused a major scandal. The scheme took place at a time when military aid to the Contras was forbidden by law.

Fighting between the Sandinistas and the Contras dragged on for years. The civil war caused great hardship in Nicaragua. The Sandinistas agreed to hold presidential elections. In a surprising upset, the Sandinistas were defeated in February 1990. Violeta Barrios de Chamorro, a moderate, became the newly-elected president, ending 11 years of Sandinista rule.

The pace of reforms in her **coalition government**, or temporary alliance of various political governments, failed to satisfy business interests and other political groups. In 1996 the conservative candidate Arnaldo Aleman won the presidential election. He campaigned under a strong anti-Sandinista platform.

Presidential elections were held in November of 2001. Enrique Bolanos of the Liberal Constitutional Party was elected, defeating Daniel Ortega of the Sandinista Party. Bolanos had served as vice president under the former president, Arnaldo Aleman. The new president promised to fight corruption and work to strengthen the economy.

El Salvador



El Salvador

El Salvador is another Central American nation troubled by political violence. During the 20th century, this nation was ruled by a long series of military strongmen. During the 1960s, mostly military candidates won the presidency.

Reformers and **left-wing** revolutionaries constantly challenged the military dictators and the wealthy landowning class. During the 1970s, discontent over a poor economy and a repressive



dictatorship led to civil war between the government, the right-wing *National Republican Alliance* (ARENA) party, and leftist antigovernment guerrilla groups. Right-wing death squads killed church workers, labor leaders, students, and anyone whom they believed supported or sympathized with the leftists. The United States Cold War policy in Central and South America was to discourage the spread of communism. As a result, the United States intervened on the side of the military, despite the fact that the military had a record of abusing human rights. The United States gave millions of dollars of military aid to El Salvador's military government, and American military advisers went to assist the Salvadoran army.

From 1984-1989, José Napoleon Duarte, a civilian and a member of the moderate Christian Democrats, served as president. Although his new government attempted to make agricultural reforms, violence continued, and he was not reelected. In 1989, Alfredo Cristiani of ARENA was elected. In 1992, the government signed a peace treaty with the guerrilla forces, formally ending the civil war that lasted for 12 years and claimed the lives of 75,000 people. Since this time, El Salvador's presidents have been members of the ARENA party, including President Francisco Flores, who was elected in 1999.

South America

Argentina



Argentina

At the beginning of the 20th century, Argentina was one of the richest nations in all of Latin America. A small but wealthy ruling class dominated its government. After the Great Depression and the rise of fascism in Argentina in the 1930s, the country was often under military rule. In 1943, a group of army officers led by Colonel Juan Perón seized power in Argentina. In 1946 he was elected president, with the overwhelming support of Argentina's workers known as the *descamisados* (the shirtless ones). Perón and his glamorous wife Eva, a former film and radio star, quickly gained the support of the lower classes (made up of the workers and soldiers) by supporting pay raises for union members and increasing the military budget. Perón also



followed a policy of increased **industrialization** in order to please his chief supporters—labor and the urban middle class. He appealed to Argentine pride when he nationalized foreign-owned industries.

Eva Perón (also known as *Evita* to her followers) used state funds to help the poor and orphans. She began programs that donated goods to the poor and built hospitals, schools, and nursing homes. Eva helped her husband get votes by helping women get the right to vote. During this time, the Peróns also used state funds to finance their lavish lifestyle. While achieving widespread support of the lower classes, Perón's authoritarian government crushed all opposition. He created Fascist gangs modeled after Hitler's Brownshirts to terrify his opponents. Perón's popularity declined in the 1950s. His popular wife Eva died in 1953, and his agricultural policies soon led to a decline in food production. Soon Argentina's economy began to experience declining income and high **inflation**, with problems in agriculture (chiefly its beef and grain exports). As anti-Perón protests grew, Perón's dictatorship became more harsh. Protestors were often jailed or tortured. Opposition to Perón continued, and eventually the military overthrew his government in 1955. Perón was forced into exile in Spain.

In the 1960s and 1970s, military and civilian governments alternated in power. The military leaders allowed Juan Perón to return from exile in Spain. In 1973 Perón was again elected president. In 1974 he died and his new wife Isabel ruled as the first woman president in the Western Hemisphere. When she could not solve the country's economic problems, her government was overthrown by the military in 1976. The new military government used harsh measure to suppress opposition. They kidnapped, tortured, and murdered thousands of innocent citizens, mostly young people. It is estimated that up to 30,000 people were killed. In the late 1970s, groups of Argentine women known as the *Mothers of the Plaza de Mayo* began gathering weekly in the main square in Buenos Aires to demand a government accounting for relatives who had disappeared during the military's terrorist campaign.



Eva Perón (1919-1952)

Eva Duarte de Perón (Evita) was the second wife of Argentine president Juan Perón. She was revered by the lower classes. Eva Duarte married Colonel Juan Perón, a widower, in 1945. Evita had had an undistinguished career as a stage and radio actress. She helped in her husband's presidential campaign, winning the love of the masses, whom she addressed as *los descamisados* (the shirtless ones).

Following Perón's election, Evita began to play an increasingly important role in the political affairs of the nation. She acted as minister of health and labor, giving wage increases to the unions. This increased political support for Perón. She also cut off government subsidies to the traditional *Sociedad de Beneficencia* (Aid Society), making more enemies among the rich. She replaced it with her own Eva Perón Foundation, which established thousands of schools, hospitals, homes for the aged, orphanages, and other charitable institutions. Evita introduced compulsory religious education into all Argentine schools. During the early months of the Perón administration, she launched an active campaign for national women's suffrage. Due largely to her efforts, women were allowed to vote for the first time in a national election. Although she knew she was dying of cancer, in 1951 she obtained the nomination for vice president, but her failing health caused her to decline the nomination. Eva died on July 26, 1952, at the age of 32.

After her death, her working-class followers tried unsuccessfully to have her canonized. Eva Perón remains a controversial figure in Argentine history.

In 1982, Argentina attempted to seize the British-held Falkland Islands in the Atlantic Ocean east of Argentina to divert the people's attention from worsening economic problems. Argentina had long claimed these islands, which they called the *Malvinas*, as part of Argentina. In a brief war, the British defeated the Argentine forces and recaptured the Falklands. When the Argentine forces surrendered to the British, angry citizens denounced the military government. In 1983 the government allowed elections to be held. The new government tried to restore democratic government in Argentina. The economy continued to decline rapidly during the 1980s. Extremely high levels of *inflation* in 1989 resulted in widespread rioting and looting. In the 1990s, Argentina's economy began to improve. The government worked to control the soaring inflation rates and reduce the country's international debt and unemployment rate.



During the early 21st century, the Argentine government was faced with continued economic problems resulting from unemployment, poverty, and trade deficits. Argentina defaulted on its international debt obligations, but was able to refinance some of its debts with the International Monetary Fund (IMF). By the end of 2002, its economy began to stabilize.

Colombia



From the late 1940s to the mid 1960s, Colombia suffered from an extended period of instability resulting from violent rivalries between conservative and liberal political groups. Armed conflicts caused 200,000 deaths. This period is referred to as *La Violencia*, or the violence. During the 1960s to 1990s, terrorist groups with ties to the drug trade weakened the government. Drugs like marijuana and cocaine became Colombia's largest export, mainly going to the United States. *Drug lords* (leaders of drug gangs) have *amassed* (collected) huge fortunes over the years from drug trafficking. They have murdered government officials, journalists, and other innocent people. Hundreds of government officials, mostly prosecutors and judges, who tried to stop the drug trade have been murdered by the drug lords.

The government of Colombia made some progress in breaking the power of the *drug cartels* (illegal groups that run the drug trade). After a dramatic rise in violence by the Medellin drug cartel in 1989, the government began to seize the cartel's property and seize their drugs, despite the threat of violent revenge attacks or retaliations. In 1997 radical leftist terrorist groups began a wave of kidnappings, murders, and violence against local government officials and the Colombian army. The leftist rebel groups known as the *Revolutionary Armed Forces of Colombia* (FARC) and the *National Liberation Army* (ELN) gained control of large areas of Colombia. These rebel groups continue to grow in strength largely due to the weapons acquired with millions of dollars from the drug trade and kidnappings. Civil unrest, economic instability, clashes with leftist guerrillas, and drug wars have continued to plague Colombia.



Peru



Since the 1940s, Peru has been governed by both military and civilian dictatorships. The rise and fall of these governments has been linked to the ups and downs of Peru's economy. Its economy depends heavily on the overseas sale of raw materials such as sugar, cotton, and copper. Another cause of unrest is the large Native American peasant population, who are mainly poor and landless. General Juan Velasco ruled Peru from 1968-1975.

He tried to improve the Peruvian economy by distributing land to the peasants and by nationalizing foreign-owned industries. When inflation and unemployment continued to rise, other Peruvian military leaders removed General Velasco from power. Military control of the government did not solve Peru's severe economic problems, and soon civilians controlled Peru's government.

During the 1980s and 1990s, Peru experienced a violent guerrilla war as a radical Communist group known as the *Shining Path* fought to overthrow the government. They killed government officials, missionaries, priests, and other innocent people. Drug traffickers helped finance Shining Path guerrillas in exchange for protection from the police and soldiers.

In 1990 the Peruvian people elected Alberto Fujimori as president. The son of Japanese immigrants, Fujimori began a *zero tolerance* policy toward terrorism. He suspended the constitution, dissolved the legislature, and declared martial law. By 1995 he had ended the 15-year civil war with the Shining Path and was reelected president. Economically, Fujimori had success in limiting inflation and in introducing free-market reforms. Fujimori resigned in 2000, ending 10 years as president of Peru. The Peruvian Congress refused to accept Fujimori's resignation. They instead, under Peru's constitution, dismissed the president for "moral incapacity" and declared him unfit for office. The country's vice president declined to take charge, leaving Peru's congress to choose an interim president until a special election in 2001. Alejandro Toledo was elected president. He was the first Indian elected president in Peru's history. By 2003, the last of the Shining Path's leaders was prosecuted.



Alberto Fujimori (1938-)

Alberto Fujimori was born in Lima, Peru. He earned an agronomic engineering degree in the study of managing land and crops from the National Agrarian University in Lima in 1961. Fujimori is the son of a Japanese immigrant and his wife, Susana Higuchi, who is also Japanese by birth.

Fujimori was elected president of Peru in 1990. He inherited a country in economic chaos on the verge of collapse. He suspended the constitution and the congress. Fujimori tried to re-establish a free-market system and lowered inflation. He also decreased guerrilla activity. Fujimori won re-election in a landslide victory in 1995.

Despite growing dissatisfaction with his government, Fujimori continued his dictatorial style. Fujimori resigned in 2000. He admitted that he committed errors but that he was not a criminal. Outraged lawmakers refused to accept his resignation and declared him morally unfit for office. "The dictator has fallen!" Fujimori critics chanted in Congress. Fujimori fled to Japan, his ancestral homeland. This ended his 10 years as president of Peru.

Brazil



Brazil is the world's fifth largest country in landmass, occupying half of the continent of South America. This gigantic country has a wide variety of natural resources, including minerals, fertile farmland, the world's largest tropical rain forest, and the massive Amazon River. Many countries in Latin America have economies focused on the export of one agriculture product—for Brazil it was coffee. As a result, the government was dominated by powerful coffee growers.

Since 1930, successive governments have pursued industrial and agricultural growth. Between 1930-1945 Getulio Vargas was the dictator of Brazil. Like Juan Perón in Argentina, he won the favor of working-class people by improving wages and benefits. Brazil became a leading



industrial power in the 1970s. The middle and upper classes supported the military dictatorships that governed Brazil until the mid-1980s. These dictatorships ruled the country with a heavy hand, opening the country to foreign investment and starting huge development projects in the Amazon jungle. By 1985, democratic elections were held and the nation returned to civilian rule. In 1989, Brazilians were able to vote directly for a president for the first time in 29 years. Today Brazil is a land of great contrasts. One-half of all Brazilians are of African or of mixed ancestry and live in the outskirts of cities in *favelas* (slums) with no electricity or running water. One-half are of European ancestry and belong to the upper and middle classes who live mostly in the cities.



One-half of all Brazilians claim mixed ancestry.

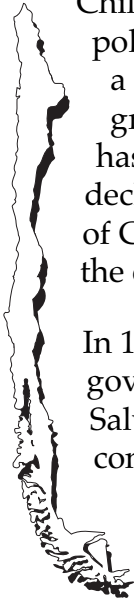
Modernization has caused problems. Foreign debt in Brazil is among the largest in the world.

Because of this debt, by 1990 the government had to greatly cut its spending. To spur the growth of its economy, Brazil has encouraged the development of the Amazon region. This has caused huge problems for the environment, especially in the destruction of the rain forest. Although progress has been made in modernization, Brazil has a long way to go toward improving the standard of living among all its people. Brazil faces many challenges as it continues on the path of democracy.

During the Cardoso administration from 1995-2002, Brazil moved toward a more capitalist or free-market economy and encouraged foreign investment. However, Brazil still faces serious challenges. These include improving government efficiency, modernizing its transportation system, improving the quality of its public services, and fostering continued economic growth.



Chile



Chile

Chile is another South American nation that has experienced political unrest. In Chile, as in most other South American nations, a small number of wealthy landowners and powerful business groups own and control most of the land and industries. Chile has suffered from rural poverty, labor unrest, inflation, and a decline in the mining industry. Copper exports made up 80 percent of Chile's export income. Whenever the price of copper went down, the entire Chilean economy was negatively affected.

In 1970, Chile held free elections. For the first time, a *Marxist* government (a type of Communist government) was elected. Salvador Allende became the new president. His government took control of the major industries. Nationalization of the copper industry angered the American owners and United States President Richard Nixon. Many of these industries had been owned by American companies. Accordingly, the United States cut off all aid to the Marxist government.

During this time, workers began to seize control of land owned by the wealthy. The upper and middle classes actively opposed the Marxist government of Allende. In 1973 with the approval and support of the CIA, a group of army officers overthrew the Marxist government and set up a right-wing government. Official reports stated that Allende committed suicide, but many claim he was assassinated. General Augusto Pinochet (peen-o-shay) became president and dictator of Chile.

Repression continued throughout the 1980s in Chile. Thousands of Chileans who opposed the government were jailed, tortured, or killed. The government's terrible abuse of human rights led to growing unrest against Pinochet in the mid-1980s. In 1989 Chileans rejected Pinochet's bid for another eight-year term. A new president, Patricio Aylwin, was elected later in 1989.

While in Britain seeking medical treatment in 1998, Pinochet was arrested after Spain sought his **extradition** for the murder of Spanish citizens in Chile during his dictatorship. Spain was unable to put him on trial due to



Chile has suffered from rural poverty.



health reasons. When he returned to Chile, the Chilean Supreme Court decided that a Chilean prosecutor could put him on trial for the murder, torture, and kidnapping of thousands of people during his 17-year dictatorship.

Since the late 1980s, Chile's economy has expanded rapidly as its exports have increased and the middle class has prospered. In 1994 Aylwin was succeeded as president by Eduardo Frei, and that same year Chile was invited and made preparations to sign the *North American Free Trade Agreement* (NAFTA). Ricardo Lagos was elected president in January 2000, the first Socialist to run the country since Allende.

Augusto Pinochet (1915-2006)

Augusto Pinochet was Chile's dictator from 1973 to 1990. He was born in Valparaiso, Chile and graduated from the military academy in Santiago in 1936. He was a career army officer and led a military coup overthrowing the Allende government in 1973. Pinochet then established himself at the head of the ensuing military regime, giving himself an eight-year presidential term. He immediately moved to crush Chile's liberal opposition, arresting approximately 130,000 individuals in a three-year period. A new constitution went into effect in 1981. Under its terms, Pinochet would serve as president for another eight-year term. In 1988, he lost his bid for another presidential term, but he remained in office until after free elections installed a new president, the Christian Democrat Patricio Aylwin, in 1990.

Pinochet was able to retain his post as commander-in-chief of the army until 1998. He was able to serve in the Chilean Senate, a post he was to hold for the rest of his life. When Pinochet traveled to the United Kingdom for medical treatment, he was arrested based on a Spanish warrant which accused him of human rights violations against Spanish citizens. He was kept under house arrest for more than a year. Eventually, he was released on medical grounds and allowed to return to Chile. He was indicted in his homeland for human rights abuses that were committed while he served as Chile's president. The Chilean Supreme Court recently ruled that he was fit to stand trial.

Gen. Augusto Pinochet, 91, the former Chilean dictator whose government tortured and murdered thousands during his 17-year rule, suffered a heart attack and died December 10, 2006.

The first woman president, Michelle Bachelet Jeria, was elected in January of 2006. Her administration promised to expand Chile's free market economy and to work to reduce the gap between rich and poor.



The United States and Latin America

Since 1945, the people of Latin America have experienced unstable governments and economic turmoil. Militaries have often overthrown civilian governments and established military dictatorships. The challenge of establishing democracy in countries where rich **elites** have traditionally ruled will be difficult. Conflicts between rich and poor and among the various political factions have limited the development of stable democracies.

Although Latin American nations have increased their agricultural exports and built up their industries, they still have a long way to go. Except in Argentina and perhaps Chile and Colombia there is only a small middle class in most Latin American countries. The rich control the government and economy while the vast majority of people live in poverty.

United States President Franklin Roosevelt launched the *Good Neighbor Policy* during the 1930s. This policy emphasized economic development in Latin America. The idea of being a good neighbor was extended by President Kennedy in the early 1960s with the *Alliance for Progress Program*. He felt that the United States had to change its image among the people of Latin America. President Kennedy wanted to help the poor and **illiterate** people of Latin America. The Alliance tried to promote economic development and social reform in Latin America.

In the 1970s and 1980s, the United States government became fearful of the expanding Communist influences in Latin America. As a result, the United States supported anti-Communist forces in Chile, El Salvador, and Nicaragua. During the first Bush administration (1989-1993), the United States military invaded Panama and overthrew the dictatorship of Manuel Noriega. Noriega was *indicted* (charged with a crime) by United States courts on charges of drug smuggling and brought to the United States to stand trial.

Two issues which today concern the United States are the number of *immigrants* (legal and illegal) coming to the United States from Latin America and the rate of population growth in Latin America. Slums in Latin American cities are growing at an alarming rate. The rate of poverty and disease continues to rise in many Latin American countries. Latin



American countries have borrowed heavily to speed industrial development. Many of these nations have been unable to pay back their loans. To pay off their debts, countries have had to industrialize rapidly. This has led to a high rate of pollution in their cities. They have also tried to boost their agricultural production. However, this has led to the destruction of rain forests and other lands. The destruction of their rain forests have had negative effects on the world's environment. Vast differences between rich and poor, problems caused by drug trafficking, and violent civil wars between terrorist groups and governments have added to the social and economic instability of Latin America.



Practice

Use pages 608-629 and the list below to complete the following statements.

cash	Good Neighbor	military
Chile	governments	Nicaragua
coffee	grain	oil
Contras	immigrants	population
Cuban Missile Crisis	industry	Sandinistas
El Salvador	Mexico	South

1. Latin America stretches from the northern border of _____ to the southern tip of _____ America.
2. The economies of most Latin American nations are usually based upon one major _____ or _____ crop.
3. A good example of the effect of unstable prices for products on the world market happened in Mexico, when the price of _____ fell on the world market.
4. In the mid 1900s, most, but not all, of the Latin American governments were _____ dictatorships.
5. Latin American countries, like many African countries, have a history of unstable _____ .
6. The Marxist group that overthrew the Somoza dictatorship in Nicaragua were known as _____ .



7. The United States gave aid and assistance to the counterrevolutionaries in Nicaragua known as the _____ .
8. The closest the superpowers came to fighting each other was during the _____ in 1962.
9. Many Latin American countries depend on the export of one or two major agricultural products. Argentina's chief exports are beef and _____ . Brazil's major export is _____ .
10. President Franklin Roosevelt began the _____ Policy to help economic development in Latin America.
11. During the 1970s and 1980s, the United States supported anti-Communist activities in _____ , _____ , and _____ .
12. Two Latin American issues particularly concerning the government of the United States are the number of _____ (both legal and illegal) and the rate at which the _____ of Latin America is growing.



Practice

Use pages 608-629 and the list below to write the correct country described on the line provided.

Argentina
Brazil
Chile
Colombia

Cuba
El Salvador
Haiti
Mexico

Nicaragua
Panama
Peru

1. This Central American country signed the trade agreement known as NAFTA with the United States and Canada.

2. The United States has had a trade embargo against this island nation since 1962. _____
3. The military dictator of this Central American country was indicted and brought to the United States to stand trial for drug trafficking.

4. Many people flee this island nation once ruled by Duvalier and migrate illegally to the United States because of political repression and economic stability. _____
5. The military dictatorship of Anastasio Somoza was overthrown by a Marxist group known as the Sandinistas in this Central American country. _____



6. The authoritarian government of Juan Perón and his wife Evita controlled this South American nation during the 1940s and 1950s.

7. Alberto Fujimori, son of Japanese immigrants, was the president of this South American country. _____
8. Right-wing death squads in this Central American country killed church workers, labor leaders, and anyone suspected of supporting the leftist revolutionaries. _____
9. Drug lords in this South American country have murdered government officials who have tried to interfere in their drug trade.

10. Development of the Amazon region has caused environmental problems in this South American country. _____
11. General Augusto Pinochet was the ruthless dictator of this South American country. The Supreme Court has ruled that he was fit to stand trial for the murder, torture, and kidnapping of thousands of people during his 17 years of dictatorship.



Practice

Use the list below to write the correct term for each definition on the line provided.

cash crop	extradition	left wing
coalition government	illiterate	right wing
communism	industrialization	
exile	inflation	

- _____ 1. banishment or expulsion from one's country
- _____ 2. temporary alliance of various political powers
- _____ 3. all political parties and groups who favor conservative or reactionary policies
- _____ 4. unable to read or write
- _____ 5. a crop grown by a farmer for sale, not personal use
- _____ 6. the means of production and distribution are owned and controlled by the state
- _____ 7. the surrender of a fugitive from justice by one state or authority to another
- _____ 8. a sharp increase in prices while the value of money decreases
- _____ 9. the process of developing systems to manufacture goods by machine
- _____ 10. all political parties and groups who favor liberal reform or radical, Socialist, or Communist policies



Review

The Middle East is one of the most unstable regions in the world because of continued interference by foreign powers attracted to the region's oil reserves. Hostility among various religious and ethnic groups has led to ongoing terrorist activities. Permanent peace in the Middle East also depends on Israel and the Palestinians reaching a peaceful resolution of their differences.



In recent years, crop failures and drought have led to widespread hunger and starvation in Africa.

Third World nations in Africa have faced many challenges after gaining independence. Different political parties and ethnic groups have often fought for control of the government. This led to unstable governments, military rule, and sometimes even civil war. Countries in Africa have experienced many bloody civil wars as they have struggled to form stable and

democratic governments. The economies of these Third World nations are usually also unstable. Their economies had been shaped to meet the needs of their former parent countries. This was particularly true in Africa. Once foreign powers left, the local people had to begin the long and difficult task of reshaping their economy to fit their own needs.

In recent years, crop failures and drought have led to widespread hunger and starvation. The AIDS epidemic has also devastated Africa. Millions have died, leaving behind thousands of orphaned children.

Latin America nations have also experienced both political and economic turmoil. Conflicts and rivalries between Communist rebels and civilian governments have led to numerous civil wars. The struggle to end military rule and establish democratic governments is one of Latin America's biggest challenges. The economies of many Latin American countries have improved, but still have a long way to go. The vast majority of Latin American people still live in poverty. Heavy borrowing and rapid industrial development has led to many Latin American countries falling deeply in debt to Western banks. Pollution, drug trafficking, and illegal immigration to the United States are issues that remain unsolved.



Practice

Match each definition with the correct term. Write the letter on the line provided.

- | | | |
|-------|--|-----------------|
| _____ | 1. a government ruled by a person who has complete control over the life of the people | A. amnesty |
| _____ | 2. segregation and discrimination against non-European groups in the Republic of South Africa from 1948 to the early 1990s | B. anarchy |
| _____ | 3. a general pardon for offences against a government | C. apartheid |
| _____ | 4. a government's restriction or suspension of foreign trade with a particular country | D. cash crop |
| _____ | 5. a member of a group that uses violence to intimidate a government into granting their demands | E. dictatorship |
| _____ | 6. absence of political authority | F. embargo |
| _____ | 7. a crop grown by a farmer for sale, not personal use | G. terrorist |

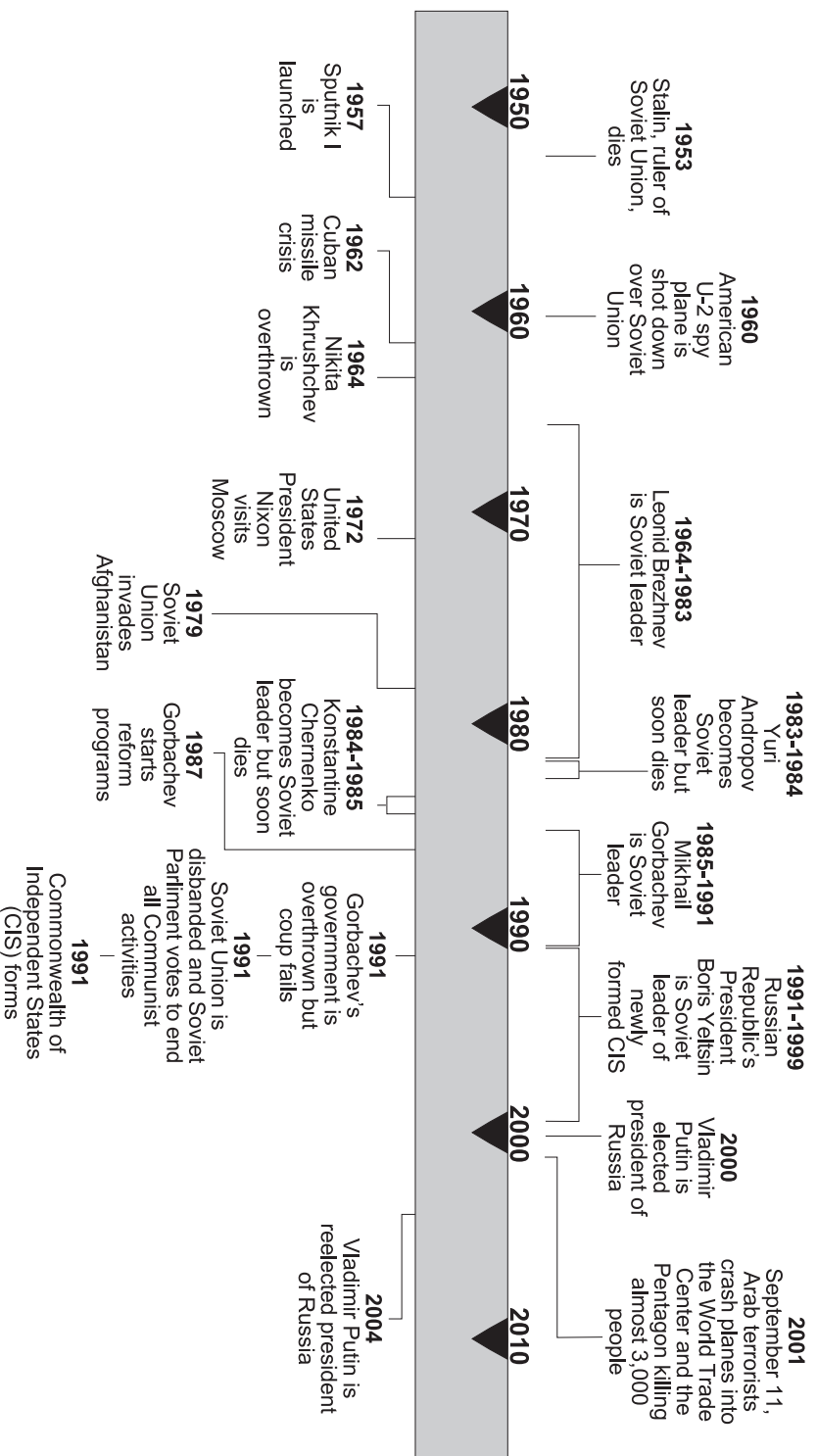
Unit 12: The Fall of the Soviet Union and the End of the Cold War (1945-21st Century)

This unit emphasizes the rivalry between the superpowers during the Cold War and the course of events that ultimately resulted in the collapse of the Soviet Union and the end of the Cold War.

Unit Focus

- causes and effects of tensions between the Soviet Union and the United States
- conditions in the Soviet Union during the 1970s and 1980s that led to the breakup of the Soviet Union and the end of communism
- Mikhail Gorbachev's views on *glasnost* and *perestroika*
- Boris Yeltsin's efforts to enact economic and political reforms

Unit 12 Timeline





Vocabulary

Use the vocabulary words and definitions below as a reference for this unit.

- al Qaeda or al-Qaeda** a radical fundamentalist Muslim terror network organized by Osama bin Laden in the 1990s
- bureaucracy** a system of managing government through departments run by appointed officials
- command economic system** an economic system with centralized planning by the state
- demokratizatsiya** Russian term for democratization, which encourages individual initiative
- demonstrate** to show ideas or feelings through public meetings or parades
- détente** relaxation of conflict between United States and Soviet Union in the 1970s
- discriminate** to treat differently than others because of unfair prejudices
- dissident** a person who expresses an opinion or belief that differs from those of the government
- glasnost** Russian term for the policy of “openness” and free expression begun by Mikhail Gorbachev in the 1980s



- intervention** the act of interfering in another country's affairs
- market economic system** an economic system characterized by competition, supply and demand, and the absence of regulation
- peaceful coexistence** Soviet policy of competing with the United States while avoiding war
- perestroika** Russian term for restructuring of the Soviet government and economy begun by Mikhail Gorbachev in the 1980s
- propaganda** information designed to convince people of certain beliefs or ideas
- standard of living** a general measure of people's overall wealth and quality of life
- superiority** the quality of being better than something or someone
- Taliban** a very conservative Islamic government in Afghanistan



The Fall of the Soviet Union and the End of the Cold War (1945-21st Century)

The United States and Soviet Union Solving Their Differences

After World War II, the Soviet Union and the United States became the world's two *superpowers*. Both nations had the capability to destroy each other and much of the entire world with nuclear weapons. Therefore, the future and safety of the world depended on United States and Soviet Union solving their differences without using nuclear weapons.



The Beginning and Ending of *Détente*

After World War II, both superpowers continued to develop large militaries. This military buildup was known as the *arms race*. In hopes of limiting the arms race, President Richard Nixon visited Moscow in 1972. Leaders in both countries agreed to limit production of nuclear weapons. This began a new *period of relaxing conflicts* between the superpowers, known as **détente** (day tahnt). However, the period of *détente* ended in 1979 when the Soviet Union invaded Afghanistan. And, two years later, when the Soviets forced the Polish government to crush a democratic reform movement in Poland, relations between the two superpowers worsened. Both countries began to increase their military buildup again.



The Soviets, alarmed by the American buildup, increased the number of missiles they had in Eastern Europe. The United States and its NATO allies responded by placing additional missiles in Western Europe.

Mikhail Gorbachev Reforms the Soviet Union

In 1985, Mikhail Gorbachev, a new leader in the Soviet Union, recognized that the Soviet Union could no longer afford its costly arms race with the United States. After taking office, Gorbachev announced that he wanted to use *diplomacy* in Eastern Europe instead of military force and **intervention**. These new policies led to an easing of conflict between the superpowers.

As international tensions eased, Gorbachev turned to the problems in the Soviet Union. In 1987, Gorbachev started a program of reforms that included more freedoms and democracy for his nation's people. His programs brought about **glasnost**, a new *openness* in Soviet society. However, his **perestroika** (pehr uh stroy kuh), or *restructuring* of the Soviet economy, caused the Soviet people many hardships. In 1991, economic problems, as well as ethnic and nationalist unrest in the Soviet republics, led to the overthrow of Gorbachev's government. The Soviet Union eventually broke up into smaller and separate countries.



The Soviet economy caused the Soviet people many hardships.



Practice

Answer the following using complete sentences.

1. Following World War II, what did the superpowers' military weapons give them the power to do? _____

2. What is *détente*? _____

3. Why did *détente* end in 1979? _____

4. Who is Mikhail Gorbachev? _____

5. Gorbachev will be remembered for *glasnost* and *perestroika*. Define these Russian terms. _____



The History of the Soviet Union: Life under Communist Dictatorship

For more than 70 years the Communist Party controlled the government of the Soviet Union. People had no real vote in who ran the government. The Communist Party and its leader, the general secretary, had almost complete control over the people.

The Planned Economy Produces a Strong Military but Few Consumer Goods

The Communist Party *planned* what the government-run industries produced. This kind of controlled economy is called a *planned economy* or *command economy*. The government planned what crops the government-controlled farms grew and what jobs people performed. Everything from how natural resources were used to the prices of manufactured goods was decided by the government. This planned economy, however, did not raise the **standard of living** in the Soviet Union. It lagged far behind that of many Western European nations and other industrialized nations of the world.

The Communist government needed a huge and growing **bureaucracy** to plan and direct the jobs of factory workers, farmers, and office workers. As it grew in size, the Soviet *bureaucracy* became less efficient.

The industrialized nations in the West have primarily used their resources to produce consumer goods. But the Soviets have used most of their factories to produce tanks, missiles, and other military weapons. Consequently, the Soviet Union had a strong military but produced few consumer goods for the Soviet people.

The Soviet focus on building a strong military caused serious economic problems during the 1960s and 1970s. Food and consumer goods became very scarce. The Soviet people also had a hard time finding adequate housing. Most families lived in small, crowded apartments. Few families owned automobiles, televisions, or telephones.

Still another issue was the poor quality of products that Soviet workers produced. All workers who held the same job received the same wages, whether they worked hard or not. Consequently, people had little motivation to work hard and produce a better quality of goods. Communist Party officials, however, enjoyed higher salaries and better living conditions than the average Soviet citizen.



Lack of Civil Rights and Freedoms in the Soviet Union

If you read the Constitution of the Soviet Union, you might think that the Soviet government treated all its citizens equally. You might think that all Soviet citizens shared equally in the economy of the Soviet Union and had many civil rights.

But Soviet citizens did not enjoy free speech, freedom of the press, or freedom of religion. Here are some examples of the Soviet Union's control of its people.

1. Soviet citizens read, watched, and heard only what the government produced. The Communist government used **propaganda**. Soviet citizens could not **demonstrate** without the approval of the government. Those who spoke out against the government were usually arrested. The KGB (secret police) watched Soviet citizens very carefully. The government discouraged the practice of religion.
2. The Soviet Union held elections. However, only members of the Communist Party could run for office. Soviet citizens simply marked their ballots showing their approval of Communist Party candidates. In other words, Soviets had no party choice in who ran their government.
3. Certain ethnic and religious groups within the Soviet Union were **discriminated** against. Jews, for example, could not travel freely or leave the country without special permission.

Soviet Leaders 1917–2000

Vladimir Lenin	1917-1924
Joseph Stalin	1924-1953
Nikita Khrushchev	1954-1964
Leonid Brezhnev	1964-1983
Yuri Andropov	1983-1984
Konstantine Chernenko	1984-1985
Mikhail Gorbachev	1985-1991*

**The Soviet Union was disbanded after August 1991.*



Practice

Answer the following using complete sentences.

1. What kind of economy did the Soviet Union have under communism? _____

2. What parts of the economy did the government control? _____

3. What products were Soviet factories used to produce? _____

4. Why did the Soviets produce few consumer goods? _____

5. What economic problems were caused by the focus on building a strong military? _____

6. What are three examples of the way the Soviet government limited the rights of its people? _____



The Soviet Union (1954-1964)

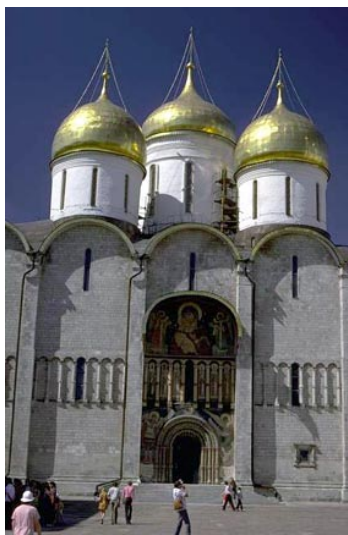
Khrushchev (1954-1964) Points the Soviet Union towards Peace

Stalin ruled the Soviet Union as a dictator from 1928 until he died in 1953 (see Unit 5). His death touched off a struggle for power among the remaining leaders of the Soviet Communist Party. Unlike the United States, the Soviet Union did not have a system in place to determine who will replace a leader who dies in office. In 1953, an internal struggle took place for control of the Soviet Union. Nikita Khrushchev eventually rose to power in 1958. Khrushchev led the Soviet Union until 1964, when he was overthrown.



Joseph Stalin

Under Khrushchev's leadership, the government began a program called *de-Stalinization*, to purge the country of Stalin's memory. This program grew out of a speech by Khrushchev in which he blamed Stalin for many of the Soviet Union's troubles. He publicly denounced Stalin for jailing and killing many loyal citizens. The Soviets destroyed statues and monuments of the former dictator and moved and reburied his body outside the Kremlin Wall. Under de-Stalinization, society in the Soviet Union during the 1950s became more relaxed. Writers, artists, and composers began to enjoy some limited freedom of expression. Khrushchev closed many of Stalin's prison camps. Industry began producing more consumer goods. The power of the secret police was reduced. In his relations with the West and particularly the United States,



Kremlin

Khrushchev spoke of **peaceful coexistence**. *Peaceful coexistence* would include slowing the arms race and banning the testing of nuclear weapons. The Soviet would compete with the West but avoid war. Khrushchev also called for peaceful competition with the West.

Events of Conflict: Sputnik I, the U-2, and the Cuban Missile Crisis

However, many events that took place under Khrushchev's leadership strained relations between the Soviet Union and the United States. The first occurred in 1957 when *Sputnik I*, the first man-made satellite, was launched into space. The Russians had achieved something

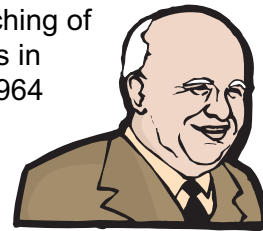


that the United States at that time was unable to do: send rockets into space. The United States feared that *Sputnik I* would give the Soviet Union a military advantage. United States President Dwight D. Eisenhower immediately set the United States on a course that would lead to American **superiority** in the space race. The second incident occurred in 1960 when an American *U-2 spy plane* was shot down over the Soviet Union. Soviet anger over the U-2 incident refueled the Cold War between the United States and the Soviet Union.

Nikita Sergeyevich Khrushchev (1894-1971)

Nikita Khrushchev was a Soviet statesman, first secretary of the Soviet Communist Party, and premier of the USSR (1958-1964). He was born in Kalinovka, Ukraine. Khrushchev joined the Bolshevik Party in 1918, fought in the Russian civil war, and rose in the Communist Party. After Stalin's death, Khrushchev succeeded him as party secretary. Three years later at the 20th Party Congress, he denounced Stalin.

Among the events of Khrushchev's rule were the launching of the *Sputnik I* satellite, a failed attempt to install missiles in Cuba, and the break with China. He was deposed in 1964 partly due to his failed farm policy and loss of face in the Cuban missile crisis. He went into retirement and was replaced by Leonid Brezhnev and Alexei Kosygin.



Perhaps the most frightening incident that took place between the United States and the Soviet Union was the *Cuban missile crisis* in 1962. Fidel Castro had overthrown the government of Cuba and set up a Communist government in its place. Under Castro, Cuba developed close relations with the Soviet Union. The Soviet Union gave financial and military aid to Cuba. Cuba is only 90 miles south of the United States. Having a Communist country so close to its borders made the United States government very uncomfortable.

United States spy planes began taking pictures of Soviet military bases in Cuba. In 1962 the United States government discovered that the Soviets were placing missiles with nuclear capability in Cuba. President John F. Kennedy demanded the removal of these missiles. At a special meeting of the Security Council at the United Nations, the United States showed the world pictures of these Soviet missiles at military bases in Cuba.



President John F. Kennedy



Kennedy told Khrushchev that the United States Navy would stop any Soviet ship carrying missiles to Cuba. The situation grew very tense. People in the United States thought war was certain.

After a week of suspense, Khrushchev withdrew the missiles in exchange for a pledge that the United States would not invade Cuba. The Cuban missile crisis was over. At first Americans felt pleased that they had won a diplomatic victory. However, it soon became apparent that following this event, the Soviet Union began increasing its arms buildup. The arms race between the superpowers was still very much alive. Because of the Cuban missile crisis, however, Khrushchev and Kennedy agreed that it would be wise to set up a “hotline,” a direct telephone line between Kennedy and Khrushchev, for emergency discussions. In this way, the leaders of the Soviet Union and the United States could speak by telephone if a crisis occurred in the world.

The Khrushchev Era: Soviets and Americans Worked towards Peaceful Coexistence

The Khrushchev era, for all its tense moments, took some important steps towards peaceful coexistence with the United States. For example, Khrushchev visited the United States to gain a better understanding of the American people and their ways. He was impressed with the politeness of the American people. He probably realized that the average American, like the average Soviet, did not want to destroy the world. When Khrushchev left the United States, both governments felt a renewed hope for peace.

Finally, during the Khrushchev era, the United States and the Soviet Union agreed to the first *nuclear test ban treaty*. This treaty did not stop the nuclear arms race between the two countries. It did, however, mark the first time that the two superpowers sat together and discussed the issue of nuclear weapons.



Practice

Answer the following using complete sentences.

1. What new policy did Nikita Khrushchev begin in the Soviet

Union? _____

2. List three events that took place during Khrushchev's reign that affected relations between the United States and the

Soviet Union? _____

3. What caused the Cuban missile crisis? _____

4. Why was the first nuclear test ban treaty important as a

step towards peaceful relations? _____



The Soviet Union (1964-1991)

The Brezhnev Era: 1964-1982



Leonid Brezhnev

After Khrushchev was removed from power, two men took over. Leonid Brezhnev (brehzh nehv) became the leader of the Communist Party, and Alexsei Kosygin (kuh see guhn) became the premier. Brezhnev was the more powerful of the two. Under Brezhnev and Kosygin, the Soviet Union continued to seek peaceful coexistence with the United States. Within the Soviet Union, Brezhnev worked to increase its industrial production. He also tried to improve the nation's agricultural productivity by allowing free enterprise on private plots given to members of communes.

However, under Brezhnev's leadership, the Soviet Union worked very hard to keep its Communist allies in line. In 1968 the people of Czechoslovakia tried to make its Communist government more democratic. Brezhnev saw the change as a threat to Soviet-style communism. He sent Soviet tanks into Czechoslovakia to halt the Czechs' attempts to reform their government. The Czechoslovakian people could do nothing in the face of the Soviet military.

During the late 1970s and early 1980s, Brezhnev also tried to prevent the government of Poland from giving more rights to its people. The Soviet Union prepared to invade Poland. To prevent a Soviet invasion of Poland, President Ronald Reagan placed trade restrictions on the sale of industrial and farming equipment and wheat to the Soviet Union. The Soviets continued to threaten the Polish government, but they chose not to invade Poland.

Brezhnev also clamped down on **dissidents** (persons who express opinions that differ from those held by the government). Anyone who protested government actions might be arrested. For example, the secret police arrested Alexander Solzhenitsyn (sol zhuh neet suhn), winner of a 1970 Nobel Prize, for his protests against the lack of civil rights in the Soviet Union. Solzhenitsyn was exiled from the Soviet Union for his anti-government writings and speeches.



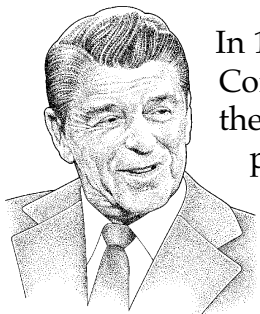
During Brezhnev's leadership, the Soviet Union and the United States carried on a policy of *détente* (relaxation of conflict). Under *détente*, the superpowers would work together to improve relations. This was done through nuclear arms talks, cultural and sports exchanges, and trade. Both countries knew they had many differences to overcome, but they tried to find common ground on which to cooperate. For example, the United States had *surplus* (or extra) wheat; the Soviet Union needed wheat. Under *détente*, they agreed to trade.

Leonid Ilyich Brezhnev (1906-1982)

Leonid Brezhnev was a Soviet political leader who became the first secretary of the Communist Party and head of the Soviet government in 1964. He was born in Dneprodzerzhinsk, Ukraine. He was trained as a metallurgical engineer but soon became involved in government and party work. Brezhnev served in the Red Army, rising to the rank of major general. He also rose in rank as a party official after he returned to civilian life in 1946.

In 1952 Brezhnev became a member of the party central committee and was chairman of the presidium of the Supreme Soviet (the national legislature). Brezhnev's career was temporarily interrupted by Stalin's death in 1953. He was eventually asked to serve again in the Secretariat, working closely with Nikita Khrushchev. In 1964 a group of other leaders and Brezhnev succeeded in ousting Khrushchev, and Brezhnev and Kosygin took over. During his administration, he oversaw a military buildup while also pursuing a policy of *détente* with the West. Soviet relations with China grew worse, however. After several years of bad health, Brezhnev died in 1982, leaving the Soviet Union without strong leadership until Mikhail Gorbachev.

Under Brezhnev's leadership, relations between the Soviet Union and China grew worse. (At the same time, the United States and China began a friendly relationship after years of *hostility*, or angry relations.) The breakdown of relations between the Soviet Union and China was perhaps Brezhnev's greatest failure.



President Ronald Reagan

In 1981, President Ronald Reagan, a strong anti-Communist leader, took office. During his administration, the United States began to abandon *détente*. A new program known as the *Strategic Defense Initiative* (SDI) was established to protect the United States against enemy missiles. The *Star Wars* program, as it came to be called, increased tensions between the United States and Soviet Union.



Following the death of Brezhnev in 1982, the Soviet Union's aging Communist leaders desperately tried to maintain their power. Brezhnev's successor, Yuri Andropov, died after only 15 months in power. Just 13 months after that, Andropov's successor, Konstantin Chernenko, became deathly ill. In March of 1985, the Soviet government chose Mikhail Gorbachev as the new leader of the Soviet Union. Gorbachev's leadership would bring about the final *thaw* in the Cold War.

The Reforms of Mikhail Gorbachev: 1985-1991

Mikhail Gorbachev represented a new generation in Soviet leadership. He was the first Soviet leader born *after* the Bolshevik Revolution of 1917. Gorbachev's policy of *perestroika* (restructuring) and *glasnost* (openness) brought about many changes in the Soviet Union and Eastern Europe. His policies promoted economic growth and encouraged discussion of new ideas. Some of his changes included the following.

- Gorbachev fired hundreds of incompetent officials. He gave managers of factories and farms greater authority in decision-making. He permitted citizens to privately own small businesses.
- He relaxed censorship, or government control of the press, literature, and other media. Citizens were permitted to express opinions about the nation's social and economic problems.
- Government reforms included the secret ballot and permitting more than one candidate to run for election to office. The Soviet constitution was changed, and, by 1989, multi-party-candidate elections were held.
- Gorbachev persuaded Soviet leaders to agree that the Communist Party would loosen its control of Soviet society and politics. This new policy was called **demokratizatsiya** or *democratization*, the gradual opening of the political system.
- In Eastern Europe, Gorbachev reduced Soviet military forces in Europe. He allowed the countries of Eastern Europe to make decisions and reform their governments.



Gorbachev's outlook and personality made him a popular world leader in the West. However, at home in the Soviet Union, he faced increasing criticism. The reforms promised through his programs of perestroika and glasnost came slowly. The large Soviet bureaucracy resisted change. Gorbachev was criticized by both hard-line Communists and reformists. Uncertainty and distrust of Gorbachev and his programs grew among government and business leaders.

Mikhail Sergeyeovich Gorbachev (1931-)

Mikhail Gorbachev was general secretary of the Communist Party of the USSR and president of the Supreme Soviet from 1988 to 1991. He was born in Privolye, Russia (located in Southern Russia). He studied at Moscow State University and Stavropol Agricultural Institute. He joined the Communist Party in 1952 and held a variety of posts in the district party organization. Gorbachev became secretary for agriculture in 1979. In 1988 he became chairman of the presidium of the Supreme Soviet, and in 1990 he became the first (and last) executive president of the USSR.

Concerned by the country's economic backwardness, he tried to help the stagnant Soviet economy. He called for quick technological modernization and granted greater degrees of civil liberty and journalistic and cultural freedom. A review of Soviet history was allowed under the policy of glasnost. Gorbachev pursued a policy of détente and nuclear disarmament with the West, reduced military expenditure, and ended the Soviet military occupation of Afghanistan in 1989. He survived a brief coup in August 1991, but he was eventually forced to resign following the abolition of the Communist Party and the dissolution of the Soviet Union in December 1991.



Mikhail Gorbachev

Economic problems that had existed in the Soviet Union in the past continued and worsened as Gorbachev began his reforms. People became impatient. Promises of improved Soviet technology and improved quantity and quality of goods were not fulfilled. Gorbachev believed the changes he wanted to make would, in time, strengthen the Soviet system.



Another problem facing Gorbachev were new challenges to his leadership. In the past, Soviet leaders had faced little opposition within the government. During Gorbachev's leadership, however, bureaucrats worked quietly to defeat his reforms. Military leaders also opposed his changes as well.

Boris Yeltsin, once a powerful ally, was now Gorbachev's rival. He felt that perestroika was moving too slowly. Yeltsin's popularity and his criticism of Gorbachev's policies won him the presidency of the Russian Republic. Soviet citizens led by Yeltsin called for Gorbachev to step down.

The Breakup of the Soviet Union

Until 1991 the Soviet Union was a union of 15 separate republics or states. The largest was Russia, which included the Soviet capital, Moscow. The republics together included many nationalities and ethnic groups. Many of the ethnic groups within the Soviet republics had disliked Russian control over Soviet affairs. Many had long-standing ethnic, religious, and political conflicts among themselves. During the years of Communist control, Soviet security forces and the army kept rival ethnic and religious groups under control. However, in the open atmosphere of glasnost, people began expressing some old hatreds for different ethnic and religious groups.

In the republics of Armenia and Azerbaijan, ethnic hatreds led to violence. Many republics demanded sovereignty, or self-rule. Anti-Soviet demonstrations spread throughout the Baltics. In 1990 the Baltic republics of Latvia, Lithuania, and Estonia declared that they wanted to become independent nations, free of Soviet rule. The Soviet military attacked and killed demonstrators in Lithuania and Latvia in early 1991. The Western countries denounced this crackdown. They threatened to cancel trade agreements and financial aid. Gorbachev eventually withdrew troops from the Baltic republics. The crackdown on the Baltic States and the lack of economic progress in the Soviet Union hurt Gorbachev's popularity. Public demonstrations against Gorbachev and the Communist Party took place throughout the Soviet Union.



*Russia and the States of the Former Soviet Union
Commonwealth of Independent States (CIS)*

During the *coup* (takeover) on August 19, 1991, Gorbachev was overthrown by hard-liners (people who resist change) in the military and secret police. The hard-liners, who called themselves the *State Committee*, declared a state of emergency and tried to rule using the military. The Russian Republic's President Boris Yeltsin, however, called for a general strike and denounced the coup and its attempt to take control of the government. Some 50,000 people *demonstrated* at the Russian Parliament in support of Yeltsin. By August 21, the coup had failed, and Gorbachev was restored as president. The coup attempt sparked anger against the Communist Party leaders. Two days later Gorbachev resigned as General Secretary of the Communist Party. He suggested that the party be disbanded, or end its existence. The coup was a turning point. It led to the final breakup of the Soviet Union. Several republics quickly declared their independence including Russia, the Ukraine, and Kazakhstan.

On August 29, 1991, the Soviet Parliament voted to suspend all activities of the Communist Party. On December 21, 1991, the Russian Parliament approved a new Commonwealth of Independent States (CIS), a loose federation open to all former members of the Soviet Union. By early December, all 15 republics declared their independence. The Soviet Union ended with President Gorbachev's resignation on Christmas Day, 1991.



The Yeltsin Era (1991-1999)

Gorbachev was not able to hold the Soviet Union together. He turned over his responsibilities as commander-in-chief to Boris Yeltsin, the president of Russia. As president of Russia, Yeltsin was the most powerful and influential leader in the CIS. In early 1992, Yeltsin began to *dismantle* or take apart Russia's huge nuclear weapons arsenal. About 80 percent of the former Soviet Union's nuclear weapons are in Russia. The rest of the nuclear weapons were scattered throughout the other former Soviet republics. The independent republics agreed to shift the control of all weapons to the Russians. Eventually a nuclear arms agreement, known as *START II*, was reached between Russia and the United States. They agreed on a mutual reduction of the nuclear arsenals of each country.

Boris Nikolayevich Yeltsin (1931-2007)

Boris Yeltsin was the president of Russia from 1991-1999. He was born in Bukta, Russia and studied at the Urals Polytechnic. Yeltsin joined the Communist Party in 1961 and in 1985 was made Moscow party boss and a Politburo member by Mikhail Gorbachev. Rising in the ranks and resigning from the Communist Party, Yeltsin was elected president of the Russian Federation in 1991. This was the first direct presidential election. Yeltsin overshadowed Gorbachev. In August of 1991, an anti-Gorbachev coup that Yeltsin opposed began the final disintegration of the USSR.

In December 1991, Yeltsin declared the Soviet Union dead, and he remained in power as president of the Russian Federation. He pursued economic reforms. Confrontation with conservative hard-liners followed, leading to his decision to suspend parliament in 1993. In 1995, opposition to Yeltsin grew as a result of ongoing economic problems and the war in Chechnya. Ill health and accusations of widespread corruption in government led him to resign six months before his term in office was up. The former leader died from heart failure April 23, 2007.

As a result of the fall of communism in Europe and the former Soviet Union, the United States and Western Europe decided to change the role of the National Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO). No longer a military alliance against the Communists, it became an alliance of collective security for Europe. Russia and many former Warsaw Pact nations joined NATO.

Yeltsin and the leaders of the newly independent republics faced many problems in their efforts to make the transition from a communist **command economic system** to a capitalist or free **market economic system**. The quick shift to a free *market economic system* caused shock



waves throughout Russia. When trade barriers, price controls, and government subsidies to state-owned businesses were removed, inflation and prices soared. Many inefficient factories were forced out of business and thousands of workers lost their jobs. These economic hardships led to a political crisis. In 1993, former Communists in the Russian Parliament who opposed Yeltsin's policies attempted to take control of the government. Anti-Yeltsin forces called for a strike and members of Parliament locked themselves inside the Parliament building. The stand-off ended when the military defeated the rebels. Military troops bombed the building and forced the rebel legislators to surrender. Yeltsin used this victory to expand his political powers. He banned several opposition parties, fired opponents, and called for new parliamentary elections. The country's new constitution centralized power in the executive presidency and limited the powers of the regions. One of these regions, *Chechnya*, wanted to secede (withdraw) from Russia.



Russia's continued economic decline left millions in poverty.

Chechnya is a Muslim area in southwestern Russia. In 1991 Chechnya declared its independence. The Russian government denied its right to form an independent republic. In 1994 Chechnya's leaders proclaimed their independence. Yeltsin ordered the army to restore the Russian government's control over the breakaway republic. After months of fighting, Grozny, the rebel capital, fell to Russian troops.

"Russia must enter the new millennium with new faces, with new intelligent, strong, energetic people, and we who have been in power for many years must go." Boris Yeltsin

By 1996, Yeltsin's popularity had been severely weakened. In the 1996 presidential elections, former Communists and a right-wing Nationalist candidate forced Yeltsin into a runoff. Yeltsin won the election and organized a new government. However, between 1996-1999, the Russian economy continued to worsen. Russia's continued economic decline left millions in poverty. Ill health sidelined Yeltsin during much of his second term. Although he continued to dominate Russian politics, his ill health and accusations of widespread corruption in government led him to



resign from the presidency six months before his term was up. However, after Yeltsin left office, world leaders later praised his leadership for dismantling the Communist system and building new political institutions in Russia.

On December 31, 1999, Russian Prime Minister Vladimir Putin became the acting president. He became Russia's second democratically elected president in March 2000. Putin, a 47-year-old former KGB officer, faced the challenge of restoring Russia's national pride and economic health after decades of decline. He also faced ending the continued fighting in Chechnya. Putin's handling of the war in Chechnya and his no-nonsense attitude appealed to many Russians, who wanted strong leadership to



Vladimir Putin became Russia's second democratically elected president in March 2000.

handle their country's economic, political, and social problems. Putin promised to continue Yeltsin's democratic and free market policies. He also promised to crush widespread lawlessness and corruption that weakened the government.

Russia under Vladimir Putin

After Putin's election, in 2000, Russia took a more assertive role in foreign affairs by strengthening Russia's relations with members of the CIS. Putin also strongly opposed the United States invasion of Iraq without the support of the United Nations.

During Putin's first term of office, fighting in Chechnya continued. In 2002 Chechen militants launched a series of terrorist attacks in both Chechnya and Moscow. Violence and instability plague Chechnya to this day.

In 2004, Putin won reelection as president of Russia. Many claim that the electoral campaign process was manipulated by the state-run media. Putin's government made it impossible for opposition candidates to have fair access to the media during the presidential campaign.

Efforts to improve the economy have had mixed results. Putin has supported a market economy and has promoted more trade and investment; however, economic and social problems like unemployment, a poor *standard of living* and life expectancy, and a continued population decline still plague Russia.



Challenges Facing the Global Community

The collapse of the Soviet Union led to many changes in the map of Europe. All of the former Soviet republics became independent nations. In Eastern Europe, Communist dictatorships collapsed and new, more democratic governments replaced them. Some former Communist countries in Europe which had depended on aid from the Soviet Union struggled to survive. Without the Soviet Union's political and military control, many of these Eastern European nations experienced civil wars as ethnic, nationalist, and religious groups battled for power and freedom. In Yugoslavia, for example, the effects of the fall of communism in 1989 and the Soviet collapse in 1991 led to the break-up of Yugoslavia into individual republics. Its many ethnic groups were involved in a brutal civil war that lasted for years. In another instance, however, Czechoslovakia peacefully split into two new independent nations, the Czech Republic and Slovakia.

Twice before in the 20th century, the world has had to cope with the collapse of an empire. The first period of collapse came at the end of World War I when three of Europe's great empires fell. At the end of World War II, more empires were left to rebuild.



Without the Soviet Union's political and military control, many of these Eastern European nations experienced civil wars as ethnic, nationalist, and religious groups battled for power and freedom.

A new world order has come about due to the collapse of the Soviet Empire and the end of the Cold War. Many nations that are now free of Soviet influence will struggle to determine what kind of government will rule them. These nations will also have to develop their own economic policies and programs. The collapse of the Soviet Union has peacefully ended the Cold War with the United States. The global supremacy of the two superpowers has ended.

Although the number of countries turning toward democracy has increased over the past decade, there are still many countries ruled by a range of military dictatorships, repressive or *severely restrictive* monarchies, and dominant one-party systems. Most of these dictatorships are located



in the Middle East, Asia, and Africa—most notably, Saudi Arabia, North Korea, Myanmar, China, Sudan, and Zimbabwe. Most dictatorships have a long history of human rights violations, and thus are a threat to world peace and economic and social prosperity.

The expansion of free trade by opening up the world's markets and the elimination of trade barriers is one of the trends of the 21st century. The World Trade Organization (WTO) and the European Union (EU) have worked toward the goal of creating trade policies that will enable member nations the opportunity to raise their standard of living, promote investment, and create a sense of world community. A global economy and culture will be created as new technologies link our world together.

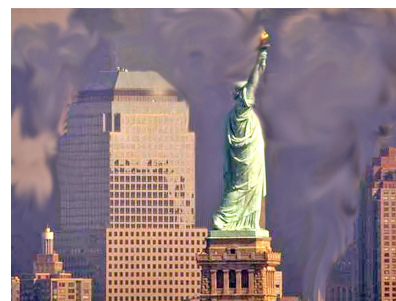
The 21st century has also seen an increase in global terrorism. The United States and its global allies will have to work closely together to locate and eliminate terrorist networks. Some terrorist groups are connected to the Arab-Israeli conflict. Groups such as Hamas and Hezbollah have used various forms of terror tactics, such as roadside bombings, suicide bombings, and missile attacks against innocent civilians as a means to prevent a peace settlement between Israel and the Palestinians.



The twin towers of the World Trade Center in New York City before 09/11/01.

On September 11, 2001 (9/11), 19 Arab terrorists hijacked four commercial airplanes and crashed two of the planes into the twin towers of the World Trade Center in New York City and another into the Pentagon in Washington, D.C. The fourth plane crashed in a remote field in Pennsylvania. More than 2,800 innocent civilians lost their lives. Many of these people were passengers on the hijacked airlines and people who worked at the World Trade Center and the Pentagon. Many fireman and policemen also lost their lives when they attempted to rescues

those that were trapped in the fiery wreckage. Those who planned and carried out these attacks were members of a radical fundamentalist Muslim terror network known as **al Qaeda** or **al-Qaeda**. After a lengthy investigation by United States



As seen from New York Harbor, downtown Manhattan is obscured by smoke after the attacks.



government officials, it was concluded that Osama bin Laden, a wealthy Saudi Arabian exile, had organized and directed the terrorist attacks. Efforts to bring him to justice led to a war to overthrow the **Taliban** government in Afghanistan (see Unit 10).

The stated goals of al-Qaeda are to expel all western or American influences from Muslim nations, destroy Israel, and to overthrow all pro-West governments in the Middle East. Despite the global war on terrorism, al-Qaeda continues to be a worldwide threat. Since September 11, 2001, there have been at least 12 major attacks carried out by al-Qaeda-linked terrorist groups. Al-Qaeda has also been linked to the bombing of the United States embassies in Africa in 1998 and the attack on the USS Cole, a Navy vessel that was harbored in the Yemeni port of Aden in 2000. Two of the most recent attacks include the Madrid bombings and the London bombing. In March of 2004, over 200 people were killed and over 1,000 injured in the bombings of Madrid's railway station. In July of 2005, four bombs exploded in three London subway stations and on a double-decker bus, killing 52 and injuring more than 700. An al-Qaeda-linked group in Europe claimed responsibility and claimed the attacks were in retaliation for Great Britain's involvement in the war in Afghanistan and Iraq (see Unit 10).

Another threat to global security is the spread of weapons of mass destruction (WMD). North Korea and Iran pose the greatest threat to world peace because these countries have been developing both nuclear and chemical weapons. Both nations have resisted pressure to discontinue their weapon's programs. Many nations worry that these countries will sell these weapons to terrorist groups.



Practice

Answer the following using complete sentences.

1. Who became the most powerful person in the Soviet Union after Nikita Khrushchev was removed? _____

2. How did the Soviet Union respond when the government of Czechoslovakia gave its people more freedom? _____

3. What was President Ronald Reagan's response to the Soviet Union when it threatened Poland with invasion? _____

4. What were some ways the superpowers carried on a policy of *détente* between 1964 and 1982? _____

5. What was Leonid Brezhnev's biggest failure as leader of the Soviet Union? _____



6. What are two important changes Mikhail Gorbachev brought about in the Soviet Union in the mid-1980s? _____

7. What have been some of the negative effects of the collapse of the Soviet Union? _____

8. What is the name for the new nation formed by Russia and the former Soviet republic after the collapse of the Soviet Union in 1991?

9. Who became the new leader after Gorbachev resigned? _____



10. What problems faced the former Soviet Union during the 1990s?

11. Who was elected president of the Russian Republic in 2000? _____

12. Describe the problems that face President Vladimir Putin in Russia.

13. What trade policies have the European Union (EU) and the World Trade Organization (WTO) supported and why? _____

14. List and explain the challenges that the global community faces in the 21st century. _____



Review

The generation of people born after 1945 have lived with the Cold War most of their lives. The Cold War superpowers—the United States and the Soviet Union—threatened each other with their nuclear weapons. The arms race they carried on threatened the existence of the entire world. The fact that we sit here now is evidence that leaders of the superpowers were able to avoid a nuclear war and its immense destructive force.

The Soviet people's discontent and the decline of communism led to changes in the Soviet Union and Eastern Europe. Communist governments fell in the former Soviet Union and in many countries in Eastern Europe. After 70 years of Communist rule, the Soviet Union and its empire collapsed. A new world order began to emerge. In 1992 the United States and Russia signed an arms control treaty to stop the spread of dangerous nuclear weapons. The *START II treaty*, as it is called, reduced the total of nuclear warheads and missiles in the former Soviet Union and the United States.

All former Soviet republics became independent nations, and most of the nations in this new world order have been trying to develop democratic governments. This has caused division and hostilities between many ethnic groups in Eastern Europe and the former Soviet Union as various groups battle for power and freedom. Different nationalities and ethnic groups within nations are struggling to create a state or nations of their own. In some cases this has led to ethnic violence and civil war.

As Communist dictatorships and state-run economies disappeared from Europe, the 21st century saw a highly competitive global economy open up. New technologies have linked world regions more closely together, creating a global economy and culture. The global economy stands to create great wealth and wonderful opportunities. However, like all economic systems, it also has the potential to create problems. The global economy, based on sophisticated technology, may widen the already large gap between rich and poor nations.

After September 11th (9/11), the United States and its allies began a global war on terrorism. The United States and its allies invaded Afghanistan when the *Taliban* refused to shut down the al-Qaeda terrorist training camps



The United States and its allies invaded Afghanistan.



and turn over Osama bin Laden. The invasion of Iraq resulted in the overthrow of Saddam Hussein and the establishment of a democratically elected government; however, a prolonged insurgency continues. Terrorism, the spread of weapons of mass destruction (WMD), and most especially the threat posed by the nuclear weapons systems being developed by Iran and North Korea, pose the greatest threat to world peace. The world's nations must learn to cooperate to find solutions and to meet the needs of all peoples on Earth.



Practice

Use the list below to write the correct term for each definition on the line provided.

bureaucracy	intervention
demonstrate	perestroika
détente	propaganda
discriminate	standard of living
glasnost	

- _____ 1. a general measure of people's overall wealth and quality of life
- _____ 2. a system of managing government through departments run by appointed officials
- _____ 3. information designed to convince people of certain beliefs or ideas
- _____ 4. relaxation of conflict between United States and Soviet Union in the 1970s
- _____ 5. Russian term for the policy of "openness" and free expression begun by Mikhail Gorbachev in the 1980s
- _____ 6. the act of interfering in another country's affairs
- _____ 7. Russian term for restructuring of the Soviet government and economy begun by Mikhail Gorbachev in the 1980s
- _____ 8. to treat differently than others because of unfair prejudices
- _____ 9. to show ideas or feelings through public meetings or parades



Practice

Match each definition with the correct term. Write the letter on the line provided.

- | | |
|--|----------------------------|
| _____ 1. Soviet policy of competing with the United States while avoiding war | A. command economic system |
| _____ 2. the quality of being better than something or someone | B. demokratizatsiya |
| _____ 3. a person who expresses an opinion or belief that differs from those of the government | C. dissident |
| _____ 4. Russian term for democratization, which encourages individual initiative | D. market economic system |
| _____ 5. an economic system with centralized planning by the state | E. peaceful coexistence |
| _____ 6. an economic system characterized by competition, supply and demand, and the absence of regulation | F. superiority |

Appendices

Nazi War Criminal Diary Excerpts

Nazi War Criminal Adolf Eichmann

Adolf Eichmann was the principal military officer in charge of the Nazi's mass murder of six million Jews during World War II. After the war, Eichmann escaped from a prisoner of war camp in Germany. In 1960 he was captured again in Argentina by agents of the Israeli government. Eichmann was transported to Israel and put on trial for his Nazi war crimes. The 1961 trial of Eichmann was the first trial televised in the history of television. For many people, this was also their first education about the Holocaust.

Eichmann freely admitted to most of the charges against him. He admitted his role in sending millions of Jews to their deaths. However, he claimed he was powerless to resist orders from his military superiors.

The trial lasted 16 weeks and included testimony from many survivors whose lives were shattered. Eichmann was found guilty on all 15 counts of criminal charges against him. He was hanged and cremated in 1962. His ashes were scattered in the Mediterranean Sea.

The following is from Eichmann's 1961 prison memoir. The 1,300-page diary was released in 2000 for the first time by Israel's State Archives in the original German. The passages were translated by *The Associated Press*.

Excerpts from prison memoirs of Adolf Eichmann

by *The Associated Press*, 03/01/00

About the Holocaust:

"I said (in court) that what happened with the Jews, which the government of the German Reich brought about during the last great war, was the most enormous crime in the history of mankind."

"And I witnessed the gruesome workings of the machinery of death; gear meshed with gear, like clockwork."

"It was the biggest and most enormous dance of death of all times."

About his beliefs:

“I had thousands of ideals and I slid, like many others, into a situation from which there was no exit. Time has given me distance to the events.... Many things that were valid then, are no longer valid now. Things I considered to be basic values, I have thrown overboard over the years.”

About his involvement in the Holocaust:

“Because I have seen hell, death and the devil, because I had to watch the madness of destruction, because I was one of the many horses pulling the wagon and couldn’t escape left or right because of the will of the driver, I now feel called upon and have the desire, to tell what happened.”

About his relationship with Jews:

“I was never an anti-Semite.”

About the division of labor in his early days in the “Jewish Department” of the Nazi security services:

“Mr. von Mildenstein dealt with the Zionists, I had the Orthodox Jews, and a third employee handled the assimilated Jews.”

About the first phase of the deportation of Jews:

“The result was terrible chaos...the timetables of trains were being upset.”

Quoting one of his superiors, deputy SS leader Reynhard Heydrich, who he says informed him in the fall of 1941 about the planned genocide:

“The Fuehrer has ordered the physical extermination of the Jews. (A Nazi official in Poland) has received from the Fuehrer the necessary instructions. He was told to use the trenches dug as tank traps. I want to know what he does and how far he has come. Go see him and report back to me on what you have seen and heard.”

About his role in the killings:

“I personally had nothing to do with this. My job was to observe and report on it.”

“My sensitive nature revolted at the sight of corpses and blood.”

About mass executions he witnessed in January 1942 in the town of Minsk in Nazi-occupied Belarus:

“When I arrived at the place of the execution, the gunmen fired into a pit the size of several rooms. They fired from small submachine guns. As I arrived, I saw a Jewish woman and a small child in her arms in the pit. I wanted to pull out the child, but then a bullet smashed the skull of the child. My driver wiped brain particles from my leather coat. I got into the car. Berlin, I told the driver. I drank schnapps like it was water. I had to numb myself. I thought about my own children. At the time, I had two.”

About one of his assignments:

“I still remember the work I had concerning a very secret investigation, the background of the dietitian of the Fuehrer.... It turned out that the dietitian, based on the Nuremberg (race) laws, was one in 32 parts Jewish. At the time there was such a fuss about it that my boss asked for all the files in the matter. I never heard about this again. Only one thing, that Hitler married his dietitian shortly before his death. Her name was Eva Braun.”

Reprinted courtesy of *The Associated Press*

Holocaust Survivor Revisits Auschwitz

My Father's Shoes

By Jeff Jacoby, *Boston Globe* Newspaper Columnist, 04/15/99

It was in September 1997, during a trip he'd always insisted he wouldn't take. He never wanted to go back to his native Czechoslovakia, he'd said; never wanted to revisit Auschwitz, where his parents, his brothers, and his two younger sisters were murdered by the Germans in 1944.

But in recent years the hard line softened. He began to talk about showing us the world he had come from. So here he was, back at Auschwitz, arriving not in a sealed boxcar but in a rented van with a driver, accompanied not by his father and mother and hundreds of dazed and famished Jews but by his wife, three of his children, and a guide.

We entered the main administration building, where we hoped to find some documentation of my father's entry into Auschwitz. But Krzysztof Antonczyk, head of the computer unit, had bad news—his staff hadn't been able to locate any records for Markus Jakobovic, as my father was called in 1944. Disappointing. Suddenly we remembered something. Immediately after the "selection" at the train platform in Auschwitz, those who were not sent to the gas chambers—the lucky ones, the ones who were merely going to be starved and enslaved—were registered and tattooed with a number. And on an impulse, my father at that moment gave a last name that wasn't his own.

A staff member went to chase down A-10502. We were ushered into a little room to wait. There was a table and some chairs, a colorful tablecloth, framed pictures of kittens and puppies on the wall. A woman poked her head in and asked if we'd like some tea or coffee. Sure, my father said, he'd have some coffee, and she returned with it a few minutes later. And as he sat there, sipping his coffee in the cheery room with kittens and puppies on the wall, I got up restlessly, walked over to the window, and peered out. Below me was the main entrance, and the words over the gate said: ARBEIT MACHT FREI. (German for "Work Makes You Free.")

In the end Antonczyk wasn't able to find documentation of my father's arrival at Auschwitz. But he did turn up evidence of his departure: a page from one of the long lists of Jews who were herded out of Auschwitz on death marches in January 1945. Page 630, Line 21: "Jakubovic, Markus—Slovak Jude." And something more: a copy of the card recording my father's entry into Mauthausen, a concentration camp in Austria.

Written evidence. Markus Jakubovic of Legina, Slovakia, had been in Auschwitz; on a death march; at Mauthausen. There it was, in black and white.

After so many years, we had a piece of paper. What we never had, my siblings and I, was a grandfather and a grandmother. What we never had were two uncles and two more aunts. What we never had was a family tree with living branches instead of withered stumps. What we never had was the cousins who would have been born, the stories that would have been told, the memories that would have been preserved.

What we never even had were graves to visit.

Between 1938 and 1945, while the world looked the other way, the Germans and their collaborators murdered one-third of all the Jews on earth, 6 million of them. And my father's family—David and Leah Jakubovic and their children Franceska, Zoltan, Yrvin, and Alice—accounted for 1 one-millionth—0.000001—of the total.

Once I asked my father what had been uppermost in his mind when he was in the camps. Had there been something he always concentrated on, a mantra he clung to, a goal he never lost sight of?

I was hoping, I suppose, for something lapidary. Something like the exhortation of Simon Dubnov, a renowned Jewish historian, who was murdered by a Latvian guard in the Riga ghetto in 1941. Dubnov's last words were, "Yiddin, schreibt un farschreibt"—"Jews, write it all down." Perhaps my father would say that he never stopped thinking about one day bearing witness to what he had seen. Or that he was always looking for ways to sabotage the Nazis. Or that he dreamed of revenge. Or that every morning and evening he whispered the *Sh'ma*, the Jewish credo—"Hear, O Israel, the Lord is our God, the Lord is One."

This is what my father told me: “I was always careful to watch my shoes. I slept with my shoes under my head, because if you lost your shoes you wouldn’t survive for long.”

It was hardly the answer I had imagined. Shoes? He’s in the middle of the Holocaust, and he’s thinking about his shoes?

But my father was right. If shoes were absolutely essential—and when you are force-marched from Poland to Austria in the middle of winter and you will be shot dead if you fall or lag, they are—then shoes were precisely what he had to think about. The Jakubovic family, awash in blood, was nearly extinct. My father had to survive. The Jews had to survive. Somehow, despite everything, they had to go on, and if shoes could keep this Jew alive, then nothing was more important than shoes.

My father, God willing, will turn 74 this year. He has five children and—so far—13 grandchildren. He keeps the Sabbath and fasts on Yom Kippur and eats matza on Passover. Every morning and every evening, he says the *Sh’ma*. He is a Jew who survived, and who survived as a Jew. May the memory of those who perished be a blessing.

Reprinted courtesy of the *Boston Globe*

Through Their Eyes: A Survivor's Story and a Liberator's Testimony

A Survivor's Story—Abe's Story

Abe Resnick survived the Holocaust to become one of South Florida's most respected leaders. The following is Abe's recollection of his life during the nightmare years, including the years he spent in the Kovno Ghetto.

Abe's Life before and after Nazi Attack Russia

Abraham Resnickowitz was born in 1924, in Rokishki, Lithuania, a town of 7,000 citizens—50 percent of whom were Jewish. Life in Rokishki before World War II was good. Abe's family, including his father, a governmental insurance inspector, his mother, and two younger sisters, enjoyed an active social life. Rokishki was a quiet, peaceful town, paved with cobblestone streets. A small lake was situated in the middle of the town, surrounded by shade trees. Once a week the town attracted people from neighboring villages to its outdoor market, which sold delicious foods and beautiful clothing.

As a young teen-age boy, Abe had many friends. Often, they went on outings, riding their bikes from the town into the countryside. There they would meet other friends and sit around campfires singing songs and sharing their future plans. They could not know then that most of their plans would never come true. They could not know then that the peace and serenity of their world would soon erupt into chaos and destruction.

When it was time for formal education, Abe was sent to the Gymnasium, a private institute of higher learning, located in Lithuania's capital city, Kovno. The years there were good to Abe. He studied hard, focusing on medicine, but also led an active life, filled with cultural pursuits. In 1941, after completing eight years at the Gymnasium, he was ready to apply to a university in Italy to study medicine. Before he had the opportunity to attend medical school, before he even had the opportunity to visit with his parents at the end of the school year, the Nazis attacked Russia, including Lithuania. Kovno was bombed. Abe tried to flee, hoping he could reach home. He was only 150 miles away, but it might as well have been thousands of miles. The roads were shelled and surrounded by the Nazi Army. Abe had no recourse but to return to his apartment in Kovno, where his grandmother, aunt, and uncle also lived.

Abe in the Kovno Ghetto

The Nazis immediately began their campaign of cruelty against the Jews, aided by Nazi sympathizers and local Lithuanian anti-Semites. Women were raped. Children were shot on sight. Within a few weeks, the Nazis formed a small ghetto in an area of about two square miles to hold between 20,000 and 25,000 Jews. Abe, his grandmother, uncle, and aunt were forced into the Kovno Ghetto. Soon after the family was imprisoned in the ghetto, the Nazis announced they needed 500 educated people for a special assignment with a promised reward of extra food. Abe tried to volunteer but was too late, as the quota was quickly filled. Disappointed at a missed opportunity, later to discover that the special assignment was execution. The Nazis had wanted to rid the ghetto of its most educated prisoners, those that might prove to be the most difficult to control. Abe had escaped death, for the first time.

The Nazis demanded that all Jews in the Kovno Ghetto relinquish all their valuables. If any valuables were found on anyone at anytime, all members of that person's family were hanged. To prove they meant business, the Nazis hanged an innocent Jew in the center of the ghetto. Abe was forced to watch. These and other images of terror and brutality were to become the memories of childhood that would never leave him. Over 50 years later, these memories still haunt Abe.

Four months after the horror began, in October 1941, the Nazis began separating people—some were motioned to the left, others to the right. Abe realized that the older and weaker people were on one side, while the younger and stronger were ordered to the other. He quickly grabbed his grandmother and pushed her to the side he was on. For a time, he was able to save her.

By now, Abe had heard rumors that most of the Jews in the small towns like Rokishki, his home, were being shot and buried in ditches they had been forced to dig. Witnesses from other ghettos who were transported to the Kovno Ghetto verified these rumors, and Abe heard the devastating news that his entire family had perished—his mother, his father, his sisters. He would never again see their faces. He was 17. He felt completely alone.

Abe Escapes the Ghetto and Joins the Russian Army

Abe remained in the Kovno Ghetto until May 1944. He worked hard in forced labor brigades with little food to sustain him. His only goal was self-preservation—to survive—hour by hour, day by day. At this time, only 7,000 of the original 38,000 Jews were still living in the ghetto; the rest had either died due to the inhumane conditions in the ghetto or had been transported to death camps. Now, the Nazis began liquidating the ghetto to rid it of the remaining few, because the Russian armies were approaching. Abe and a few of his comrades knew they had to escape. After careful planning, they eluded the guards and hid in an abandoned house in the ghetto. When night fell, they cut through the barbed wire surrounding the ghetto, and moved quickly in the darkness of the woods. In the morning, they made their way to a nearby village. They were immediately spotted and one of his group was killed by the local militia. Abe and three companions escaped—another reprieve from death.

Abe and his friends decided it would be safer if they moved in different directions. Once they split up, Abe never saw or heard of any of the others again. It was not long before Abe found a group of partisans (underground fighters who banded together against Nazi occupation forces, usually operating in Russia, Poland, and Lithuania) in Lithuania and joined their efforts for a short period of time. A few months later, the army liberated Kovno and Abe then joined the Russian Army, hoping to avenge the death of his family by fighting against the Nazis. Abe became an interpreter for the Russians and subsequently was promoted to a lieutenant in the Russian Army. He participated in liberating Berlin and the concentration camp of Sachsenhausen. Years later he would say that this was one of the momentous occasions in his life.

Abe Immigrates to Cuba, Then Must Flee to Florida

Abe remained with the Russian Army until 1947. When he saw the opportunity to escape, he made his way to France and eventually immigrated to Cuba, where he knew a few of his relatives lived. Abe spent 13 productive, happy years in Havana, Cuba. He was able to find some of his relatives; he married, raised two sons, and became a prominent business and community leader.

But his security was short-lived. In 1959, with Fidel Castro's rise to power as the head of a Communist regime in Cuba, Abe's freedom was

threatened. He and his family were forced to flee from Cuba, arriving in Miami Beach, Florida, in 1961. Abe was 36 years old and was forced to build a new life for himself and his family—again.

Survival was an old game for Abe. He held many types of jobs to keep his family fed, until one day he discovered his talents in real estate. By 1965, he owned many properties in Miami Beach, Florida, and once again rose to prominence in the community as a respected business leader and a dedicated community activist. In 1985, Abe Resnick was elected commissioner of Miami Beach, the first Cuban-Jewish Holocaust survivor to be so honored. He was reelected three times and served until 1993, when he chose to retire. Abe was appointed to the Executive Council of the Holocaust museum in Washington, D.C., by President Bush in 1992, and is one of the founders of the Holocaust Memorial in Miami Beach.

Today, Abe is a man at peace with himself, living in Miami Beach with his wife, two sons, and six grandchildren—all of whom are very proud of their grandfather. As Abraham Resnickowitz, he survived the horrors of the Holocaust. As Abe Resnick, he built a life dedicated to serving others—a life based on a commitment to humanity. How proud his parents and sisters would be.

Answer the following.

- The Kovno Ghetto is one of the most well-known of the ghettos established by the Nazis. Research this ghetto to learn what life was like for those imprisoned within its boundaries.
- After escaping from the ghetto, Abe joined one of the partisan groups. Who were the partisans? What part did they play in the war effort against the Nazis?
- What is your definition of a “survivor”? How does Abe meet this description?
- What impressed you most about Abe and the way in which he has lived his life?

Testimony of a Liberator—Leon Bass

Dr. Bass is an African-American soldier who helped liberate Buchenwald Concentration Camp at the end of World War II. The following are excerpts from a talk Dr. Bass gave to students at English High School in Boston.

...The war appeared to be over, and our unit went to a place called Weimar. Weimar today is in East Germany, but at that time there was no East Germany—just Germany.... Immediately about five of us took off with one of our officers to a place called Buchenwald.... Buchenwald was a concentration camp. I had no idea of what kind of camp this was. I thought it might have been a prisoner-of-war camp where they kept soldiers who were captured. But on this day in 1945 I was to discover what human suffering was all about. I was going to take off the blinders that caused me to have tunnel vision. I was going to see clearly that, yes, I suffered and I was hurting because I was black in a white society, but I had also begun to understand that suffering is universal. It is not just relegated to me and mine; it touches us all. And so I walked through the gates of Buchenwald, and I saw the dead and the dying. I saw people who had been so brutalized and were so maltreated. They had been starved and beaten. They had been worked almost to death, not fed enough, no medical care. One man came up and his fingers were webbed together, all of his fingers together, by sores and scabs. This was due to malnutrition, not eating the proper foods. There were others holding on to each other, trying to remain standing. They had on wooden shoes; they had on the pajama-type uniform; their heads had been shaved. Some had the tattoos with numbers on their arms. I saw this. I saw them with the wooden bowls. Some of them were standing waiting for food and hitting on the fence (this was wire fence) and making guttural sounds—not words—just sounds.

I said, “My God, what is this insanity that I have come to? What are these people here for? What have they done? What was their crime that would cause people to treat them like this?” You see, I wasn’t prepared for this. I was only 19; I had no frame of reference to cope with the kind of thing I was witnessing....

I didn’t come up to Boston just to tell you the horror story; as horrible as it is, the story must be told. History cannot be swept under the rug. It shouldn’t be and you must not permit it to be. We have things in our history that are ugly; slavery was ugly.... It was an evil, horrible institution and the Holocaust is just as evil, if not more so. There was a

planned, organized, systematic approach to annihilating a whole group of people. They killed not only six million Jews but millions of others. There were Gypsies there, there were Catholics there, there were Communists, trade unionists, homosexuals; anyone who didn't fit the scheme of things for the Nazis was in Buchenwald and all the other camps to be annihilated. They came pretty close to doing it too. But somebody had to stand up, somebody had to dare to be a Daniel and walk into the den and say, "This evil cannot continue...."

Answer the following.

- What do you think Dr. Bass thought he would find when he liberated Buchenwald? How did his expectations differ from reality?
- Dr. Bass said, "...I was going to take off the blinders that caused me to have tunnel vision. I was going to see clearly that, yes, I suffered and I was hurting because I was black in a white society, but I had also begun to understand that suffering is universal...."

What did he mean when said he had had tunnel vision?
What important lessons did Dr. Bass discover about after his experiences at Buchenwald?

- Why does Dr. Bass tour the country, making students aware of the Holocaust?
- What do you believe is the most important message the students at English High gained from Dr. Bass's talk?

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by Antia Meyer Meinbach and Miriam Klein Kassenoff
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Eye-Witness Accounts of the Bombing of Hiroshima

The following testimonies are from three of the 100 A-bomb survivors who were interviewed by the Hiroshima Peace and Cultural Foundation in Japan to commemorate the International Year of Peace 1986. After many years of struggling, those who survived the bombing are rapidly aging. Each person agreed to be interviewed to hand down an accurate record of their experiences to future generations.

Testimony of Taeko Teramae

Ms. Taeko Teramae was 15 years old when the bomb was dropped. She was in the central telephone office, 0.5 kilometers away from the center of the explosion. Many mobilized students were working in the central telephone center that day. Some 7000 mobilized students were killed by the A-bomb in the city of Hiroshima.

Teramae: When the bomb fell, I was 15 years old. I was a third grader at the girls' junior high school. I saw something shining in the clear blue sky. I wondered what it was, so I stared at it. As the light grew bigger, the shining thing got bigger as well. And at the moment when I spoke to my friend, there was a flash, far brighter than one used for a camera. It exploded right in front of my eyes. There was a tremendous noise when all the buildings around me collapsed. I also heard people crying for help and for their mothers.

I was caught under something which prevented me from moving freely. I was so shocked that I couldn't believe what had happened. I thought maybe I was having some kind of nightmare, but of course, I wasn't. I felt pain when I pinched myself to see if it was real. I thought the bomb had been dropped on the central telephone office. The dust was rising and something sandy and slimy entered my mouth. I couldn't figure out what it was since I couldn't move or see. I couldn't see anything in the dark. A little later, I smelled something like sulfur. It smelled like the volcano, Mt. Aso, and I threw up.

I heard more voices calling "Mother! Mother!" But when our class teacher, Mr. Wakita, told us to behave like good students and stop crying, all the cries for help and for Mother stopped all of a sudden. We began to calm down and try to behave as Mr. Wakita told us to. I tried very hard to move my arms and my legs, and finally I was able to move a little.

I was so surprised to see the dark sky with all the red flames through the window because it was only a few minutes before when the sky was blue and clear. It was all quiet. The city was wrapped, enveloped in red flames. Mr. Wakita came to help me. He asked me if I wanted to swim across the river. The bridge was burning and the river was very high. I had no choice. I

could barely see by then, though. And Mr. Wakita took my arms and told me to swim across the river together with him, so together we went into the river and began to swim.

When we reached the middle of the river, I could no longer see anything and I was starting to feel faint. And as I began to feel faint, I also began to lose control. Mr. Wakita encouraged me and helped me to reach the other side of the river. Finally, we reached the other side. What surprised me so much was all the cries of the students for help and for their mothers. It just didn't stop. I couldn't see anything. All I could do was listen to their cries.

I asked my teacher, I asked him what was going on. Mr. Wakita explained to me how the high school students were burnt and crouching in pain in the streets. I couldn't see anything. There were many students who were mobilized to destroy buildings to widen the streets in the area of Tsurumi Bridge, City Hall, and the Chugoku Newspaper on that day. And since they were outside, they were directly exposed to the bomb. Many of them died, many of them died right there. Someone called for help in vain, and some jumped into the river and drown to death. If my teacher, Mr. Wakita had not come to help me, I would have died in the river.

Interviewer: *How were your wounds?*

Teramae: If my wounds had been on my arms or my legs, I would have known, but my wounds were on my face, so I had no idea for some time. I just didn't know. I asked my parents how I looked, but they just said that I had only minor wounds. They didn't tell me the truth. After I got better, I found a piece of mirror and looked into it. I was so surprised, I found my left eye looked just like a pomegranate, and I also found cuts on my right eye, on my nose, and on my lower jaw. It was horrible. I was very shocked to find myself looking like a monster. I even wished I had died with my sisters. I was just overcome with apprehension when I thought about it.

Interviewer: *What is your biggest hope or dream now that you want to realize?*

Teramae: Well, my hope is to have a comprehensive meeting of A-bomb survivors. That's what I want. We had such a meeting the other day and in that meeting, both male and female A-bomb survivors repeatedly said that they wanted their health back again, even for just one day. They said they can't even wear short sleeve shirts because of the scars on their arms left from the bomb. Lonely A-bomb survivors include those who lost their families and also the mobilized students who have remained single because of the wounds caused by the A-bomb. There are great many of them. So, I do hope to do something to support always lonely people.

Testimony of Yoshitaka Kawamoto

Mr. Yoshitaka Kawamoto was 13 years old. He was in the classroom at Zakobacho, 0.8 kilometers away from the center of the explosion. He is now working as the director of the Hiroshima Peace Memorial Museum, telling visitors from all over the world what the atomic bomb did to the people of Hiroshima.

One of my classmates, I think his name is Fujimoto, he muttered something and pointed outside the window, saying, "A B-29 is coming." He pointed outside with his finger. So I began to get up from my chair and asked him, "Where is it?" Looking in the direction that he was pointing towards, I got up on my feet, but I was not yet in an upright position when it happened.

All I can remember was a pale lightening flash for two or three seconds. Then, I collapsed. I don't know how much time passed before I came to. It was awful, awful. The smoke was coming in from somewhere above the debris. Sandy dust was flying around. I was trapped under the debris and I was in terrible pain and that's probably why I came to. I couldn't move, not even an inch. Then, I heard about 10 of my surviving classmates singing our school song. I remember that. I could hear sobs. Someone was calling his mother. But those who were still alive were singing the school song for as long as they could. I think I joined the chorus. We thought that someone would come and help us out. That's why we were singing a school song so loud. But nobody came to help, and we stopped singing one by one. In the end, I was singing alone.

Then I started to feel fear creeping in. I started to feel my way out pushing the debris away little by little, using all my strength. Finally I cleared the things around my head. And with my head sticking out of the debris, I realized the scale of the damage. The sky over Hiroshima was dark. Something like a tornado or a big fire ball was storming throughout the city. I was only injured around my mouth and around my arms. But I lost a good deal of blood from my mouth, otherwise I was okay.

I thought I could make my way out. But I was afraid at the thought of escaping alone. We had been going through military drills every day, and they had told us that running away by oneself is an act of cowardice, so I thought I must take somebody along with me. I crawled over the debris, trying to find someone who was still alive. Then, I found one of my classmates lying alive. I held him up in my arms. It is hard to tell, his skull was cracked open, his flesh was dangling out from his head. He had only one eye left, and it was looking right at me. First, he was mumbling something, but I couldn't understand him. He started to bite off his finger nail.

I took his finger out from his mouth. And then, I held his hand, then he started to reach for his notebook in his chest pocket, so I asked him, I said, "You want me to take this along to hand it over to your mother?" He nodded. He was going to faint. But still I could hear him crying out, saying "Mother, Mother."

I thought I could take him along. I guess that his body below the waist was crushed. The lower part of his body was trapped, buried inside of the debris. He told me to go away. And by that time, another wing of the school building, or what used to be the school building, had caught on fire.

I tried to get to the playground. Smoke was filling in the air, but I could see the white sandy earth beneath. I thought this must be the playground, then I started to run in that direction. I turned back and I saw my classmate Wada looking at me. I still remember the situation and it still appears in my dreams. I felt sorry for him, but it was the last time I ever saw him.

As I was running, hands were trying to grab my ankles, they were asking me to take them along. I was only a child then. And I was horrified at so many hands trying to grab me. I was in pain, too. So all I could do was to get rid of them, it's terrible to say, but I kicked their hands away. I still feel bad about that.

I went to Miyuki Bridge to get some water. At the river bank, I saw so many people collapsed there. And the small steps to the river were jammed, filled with people pushing their way to the water. I was small, so I pushed on the river along the small steps. In the water were dead people. I had to push the bodies aside to drink the muddy water. We didn't know anything about radioactivity that time. I stood up in the water, and so many bodies were floating away along the stream. I can't find the words to describe it. It was horrible. I felt fear.

Instead of going into the water, I climbed up the river bank. I couldn't move. I couldn't find my shadow. I looked up. I saw the cloud, the mushroom cloud growing in the sky. It was very bright. It had so much heat inside. It caught the light and it showed every color of the rainbow. Reflecting on the past, it's strange, but I could say that it was beautiful. Looking at the cloud, I thought I would never be able to see my mother again, I wouldn't be able to see my younger brother again. And then, I lost consciousness.

When I came to, it was about seven in the evening. I was at the transportation bureau at Ujina. I found myself lying on the floor of the warehouse. And an old soldier was looking in my face. He gave me a light

slap on the cheek and he said, "You are a lucky boy." He told me that he had gone with one of the few trucks left to collect the dead bodies at Miyuki Bridge. They were loading bodies, treating them like sacks. They picked me up from the river bank and then, threw me on top of the pile. My body slid off. When they grabbed my by the arm to put me back onto the truck, they felt that my pulse was still beating, so they reloaded me onto the truck carrying the survivors.

I was so weak. My hair came off, even the hair in my nose fell out. My hair, it started to come off about two weeks later. I became completely bald. My eyes, I lost my eye sight, probably not because of the radioactivity, but because I became so weak. I couldn't see for about three months. But I was only 13, I was still young, and I was still growing when I was hit by the A-bomb. So about one year later. I regained my health. I recovered good health.

Today I am still working as you can see. As the director of the Hiroshima Peace Memorial Museum, today, I am handing my message over to the children who visit. I want them to learn about Hiroshima. And when they grow up, I want them to hand down the message to the next generation with accurate information. I'd like to see him conveying the right sense of judgment so that we will not lead mankind to annihilation. That is our responsibility.

Testimony of Akira Onogi

Mr. Akira Onogi was 16 years old when the bomb was dropped. He was at home 1.2 km away from center of the explosion. The house was under the shade of the warehouse, which protected him from the first blast. All five members of the Onogi family miraculously survived the immediate fire at their house.

Onogi: I was in the second year of junior high school and was in mobilized work with my classmates at the Eba Plant, Mitsubishi shipbuilding. On the day when A-bomb was dropped, I happened to be taking the day off and I was staying at home. I was reading lying on the floor with a friend of mine. Under the eaves I saw blue flash of light just like a spark made by a train or some short circuit. Next, a steam-like blast came.

Interviewer: *From which direction?*

Onogi: Well, I'm not sure, anyway, when the blast came, my friend and I were blown into another room. I was unconscious for a while, and when I came to, I found myself in the dark. Thinking my house was directly hit by a bomb, I removed red soil and roof tiles covering me by hand and for the first time I saw the sky. I managed to go out to open space and I looked around wondering what my family were doing. I found that all the houses around there had collapsed for as far as I could see.

Interviewer: *All the houses?*

Onogi: Yes, well, I couldn't see anyone around me but I heard somebody shouting "Help! Help!" from somewhere. The cries were actually from underground as I was walking on. Since no choices were available, I'd just dug out red soil and roof tiles by hand to help my family; my mother, my three sisters, and a child of one of my sisters. Then, I looked next door and I saw the father of neighboring family standing almost naked. His skin was peeling off all over his body and was hanging from finger tips. I talked to him but he was too exhausted to give me a reply. He was looking for his family desperately.

When we were escaping from the edge of the bridge, we found this small girl crying and she asked us to help her mother. Just beside the girl, her mother was trapped by a fallen beam on top of the lower half of her body. Together with neighbors, we tried hard to remove the beam, but it was impossible without any tools. Finally a fire broke out endangering us. So we had no choice but to leave her. She was conscious and we deeply bowed to her with clasped hands to apologize to her and then we left.

About one hour later, it started raining heavily. There were large drops of black rain. I was wearing a short sleeve shirt and shorts and it was freezing. Everybody was shivering. We warmed ourselves up around the burning fire in the middle of the summer.

Interviewer: *You mean the fire did not extinguish by the rain?*

Onogi: That's right. The fire didn't subside it at all. What impressed me very strongly was a five or six-year-old boy with his right leg cut at the thigh. He was hopping on his left foot to cross over the bridge. I can still record this scene very clearly. The water of the river now is very clean and clear, but on the day of bombing, all the houses along this river were blown by the blast with their pillars, beams, and pieces of furniture blown into the river or hanging off the bridges. The river was also filled with dead people blown by the blast and with survivors who came here to seek water. Anyway, I could not see the surface of the water at all. Many injured people with peeled skin were crying out for help. Obviously they were looking at us and we could hardly turn our eyes toward the river.

Interviewer: *Wasn't it possible to help them?*

Onogi: No, there were too many people. We took care of the people around us by using the clothes of dead people as bandages, especially for those who were terribly wounded. By that time, we somehow became insensible to all those awful things. After a while, the fire reached the river bank and we decided to leave the river. We crossed over this railway bridge and escaped in the direction along the railway. The houses on both sides of the railroad were burning and railway was the hollow in the fire. I thought I was going to die here. It was such an awful experience. You know for about 10 years after bombing I always felt paralyzed whenever we saw the sparks made by trains or lightning. Also, even at home, I could not sit beside the windows because I had seen so many people badly wounded by pieces of glass. So I always sat with the wall behind me for about 10 years. It was some sort of instinct to self-preservation.

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