





Restructuring the Postwar World,

1945-Present

Essential Question

How did the United States and the Soviet Union compete for economic and military superiority in the Cold War era?



What You Will Learn

In this chapter, you will learn that the United States and the Soviet Union competed for dominance in the post–World War II world, with important consequences for other nations.

SECTION 1 Cold War: Superpowers Face Off

Main Idea The opposing economic and political philosophies of the United States and the Soviet Union led to global competition.

SECTION 2 Communists Take Power in China

Main Idea After World War II, Chinese Communists defeated Nationalist forces and two separate Chinas emerged.

SECTION 3 Wars in Korea and Vietnam

Main Idea In Asia, the Cold War flared into actual wars supported mainly by the superpowers.

SECTION 4 The Cold War Divides the World

Main Idea The superpowers supported opposing sides in Latin American and Middle Eastern conflicts.

SECTION 5 The Cold War Thaws

Main Idea The Cold War began to thaw as the superpowers entered an era of uneasy diplomacy.

Previewing Themes

ECONOMICS Two conflicting economic systems, capitalism and communism, competed for influence and power after World War II. The superpowers in this struggle were the United States and the Soviet Union.

Geography Study the map and the key. What does the map show about the state of the world in 1949?

REVOLUTION In Asia, the Americas, and Eastern Europe, people revolted against repressive governments or rule by foreign powers. These revolutions often became the areas for conflict between the two superpowers.

Geography Look at the map. Which of the three areas mentioned was not Communist in 1949?

EMPIRE BUILDING The United States and the Soviet Union used military, economic, and humanitarian aid to extend their control over other countries. Each also tried to prevent the other superpower from gaining influence.

Geography Why might the clear-cut division shown on this map be misleading?



1945 ◀ United Nations

formed.

1949 Communists take control of China. 1957 Soviets launch Sputnik. Cuba becomes Communist. (Fidel Castro)



WORLD

1945

196

1947

Independent India partitioned into India and Pakistan. 1957

Ghana achieves independence from Great Britain.







If you were president, what policies would you follow to gain allies?

World War II has ended. You are the leader of a great superpower—one of two in the world. To keep the balance of power in your nation's favor, you want to gain as many allies as possible. You are particularly interested in gaining the support of nations in Africa, Asia, and Central and South America who do not yet favor either superpower.

You call your advisers together to develop policies for making uncommitted nations your allies.

Support anti-government rebels. Send troops. Give economic Join together aid. in an alliance. EXAMINING the ISSUES How might the actions taken affect your country? the other superpower?

 How might being caught in a struggle between superpowers affect a developing nation?

As a class, discuss how the conflict between the superpowers affects the rest of the world. As you read about how the superpowers tried to gain allies, notice the part weaker countries played in their conflict.



Cold War: Superpowers Face Off

MAIN IDEA

ECONOMICS The opposing economic and political philosophies of the United States and the Soviet Union led to global competition.

WHY IT MATTERS NOW

The conflicts between the United States and the Soviet Union played a major role in reshaping the modern world.

TERMS & NAMES

- United Nations
- · Cold War
- iron curtain
- NATO
- containment
- Warsaw Pact
- Truman Doctrine brinkmanship
- Marshall Plan

SETTING THE STAGE During World War II, the United States and the Soviet Union had joined forces to fight against the Germans. The Soviet army marched west; the Americans marched east. When the Allied soldiers met at the Elbe River in Germany in 1945, they embraced each other warmly because they had defeated the Nazis. Their leaders, however, regarded each other much more coolly. This animosity caused by competing political philosophies would lead to a nearly half-century of conflict called the Cold War.

Allies Become Enemies

Even before World War II ended, the U.S. alliance with the Soviet Union had begun to unravel. The United States was upset that Joseph Stalin, the Soviet leader, had signed a nonaggression pact with Germany in 1939. Later, Stalin blamed the Allies for not invading German-occupied Europe earlier than 1944. Driven by these and other disagreements, the two allies began to pursue opposing goals.

Yalta Conference: A **Postwar Plan** The war was not yet over in February 1945. But the leaders of the United States, Britain, and the Soviet Union met at the Soviet Black Sea resort of Yalta. There, they agreed to divide Germany into zones of occupation controlled by the Allied military forces. Germany also would have



Use the graphic organizer online to take notes on important early Cold War events.



to pay the Soviet Union to compensate for its loss of life and property. Stalin agreed to join the war against Japan. He also promised that Eastern Europeans would have free elections. A skeptical Winston Churchill predicted that Stalin would keep his pledge only if the Eastern Europeans followed "a policy friendly to Russia."

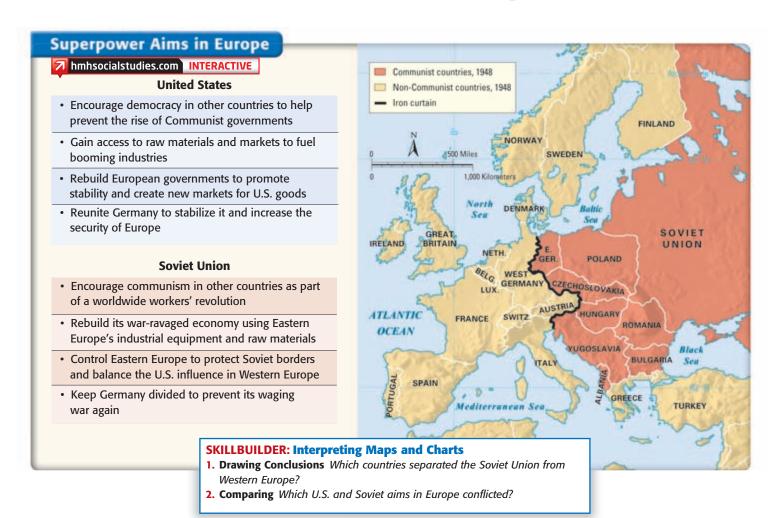
Creation of the United Nations In June 1945, the United States and the Soviet Union temporarily set aside their differences. They joined 48 other countries in forming the **United Nations** (UN). This international organization was intended to protect the members against aggression. It was to be based in New York.

The charter for the new peacekeeping organization established a large body called the General Assembly. There, each UN member nation could cast its vote on a broad range of issues. An 11-member body called the Security Council had the real power to investigate and settle disputes, though. Its five permanent members were Britain, China, France, the United States, and the Soviet Union. Each could veto any Security Council action. This provision was intended to prevent any members of the Council from voting as a bloc to override the others.

Differing U.S. and Soviet Goals Despite agreement at Yalta and their presence on the Security Council, the United States and the Soviet Union split sharply after the war. The war had affected them very differently. The United States, the world's richest and most powerful country, suffered 400,000 deaths. But its cities and factories remained intact. The Soviet Union had at least 50 times as many fatalities. One in four Soviets was wounded or killed. Also, many Soviet cities were demolished. These contrasting situations, as well as political and economic differences, affected the two countries' postwar goals. (See chart below.)

Summarizing A Why did the United States and the Soviet Union

split after the war?



hmhsocialstudies.com **INTERACTIVE FEATURE**

See how the Iron Curtain descended across Eastern Europe.

Eastern Europe's Iron Curtain

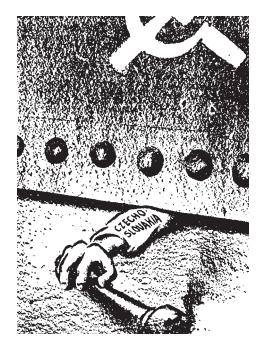
A major goal of the Soviet Union was to shield itself from another invasion from the west. Centuries of history had taught the Soviets to fear invasion. Because it lacked natural western borders, Russia fell victim to each of its neighbors in turn. In the 17th century, the Poles captured the Kremlin. During the next century, the Swedes attacked. Napoleon overran Moscow in 1812. The Germans invaded Russia during World Wars I and II.

Soviets Build a Buffer As World War II drew to a close, the Soviet troops pushed the Nazis back across Eastern Europe. At war's end, these troops occupied a strip of countries along the Soviet Union's own western border. Stalin regarded these countries as a necessary buffer, or wall of protection. He ignored the Yalta agreement and installed or secured Communist governments in Albania, Bulgaria, Hungary, Czechoslovakia, Romania, Poland, and Yugoslavia.

The Soviet leader's American partner at Yalta, Franklin D. Roosevelt, had died on April 12, 1945. To Roosevelt's succes-

sor, Harry S. Truman, Stalin's reluctance to allow free elections in Eastern European nations was a clear violation of those countries' rights. Truman, Stalin, and Churchill met at Potsdam, Germany, in July 1945. There, Truman pressed Stalin to permit free elections in Eastern Europe. The Soviet leader refused. In a speech in early 1946, Stalin declared that communism and capitalism could not exist in the same world.

An Iron Curtain Divides East and West Europe now lay divided between East and West. Germany had been split into two sections. The Soviets controlled the eastern part, including half of the capital, Berlin. Under a Communist government, East Germany was named the German Democratic Republic. The western zones became the Federal Republic of Germany in 1949. Winston Churchill described the division of Europe:



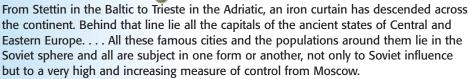
▲ The Iron Curtain is shown dropping on Czechoslovakia in this 1948 political cartoon.

MAIN IDEA

Analyzing **Primary Sources**

B) Why might Winston Churchill use "iron curtain" to refer to the division between Western and Eastern Europe?

PRIMARY SOURCE (B)



WINSTON CHURCHILL, "Iron Curtain" speech, March 5, 1946

Churchill's phrase "iron curtain" came to represent Europe's division into mostly democratic Western Europe and Communist Eastern Europe.

United States Tries to Contain Soviets

U.S.-Soviet relations continued to worsen in 1946 and 1947. An increasingly worried United States tried to offset the growing Soviet threat to Eastern Europe. President Truman adopted a foreign policy called **containment**. It was a policy directed at blocking Soviet influence and stopping the expansion of communism. Containment policies included forming alliances and helping weak countries resist Soviet advances.

The Truman Doctrine In a speech asking Congress for foreign aid for Turkey and Greece, Truman contrasted democracy with communism:

PRIMARY SOURCE

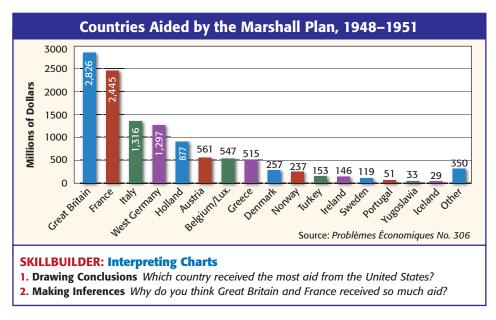
One way of life is based upon the will of the majority, and is distinguished by free institutions . . . free elections . . . and freedom from political oppression. The second way of life is based upon the will of a minority forcibly imposed upon the majority. It relies upon terror and oppression . . . fixed elections, and the suppression of personal freedoms. I believe it must be the policy of the United States to support free people . . . resisting attempted subjugation [control] by armed minorities or by outside pressures.

PRESIDENT HARRY S. TRUMAN, speech to Congress, March 12, 1947

Truman's support for countries that rejected communism was called the **Truman Doctrine**. It caused great controversy. Some opponents objected to American interference in other nations' affairs. Others argued that the United States could not afford to carry on a global crusade against communism. Congress, however, immediately authorized more than \$400 million in aid to Turkey and Greece.

The Marshall Plan Much of Western Europe lay in ruins after the war. There was also economic turmoil—a scarcity of jobs and food. In 1947, U.S. Secretary of State George Marshall proposed that the United States give aid to needy European countries. This assistance program, called the **Marshall Plan**, would provide food, machinery, and other materials to rebuild Western Europe. (See chart.) As Congress debated the \$12.5 billion program in 1948, the Communists seized power in Czechoslovakia. Congress immediately voted approval. The plan was a spectacular success. Even Communist Yugoslavia received aid after it broke away from Soviet domination. **C**

MAIN IDEA Making Inferences What was Truman's major reason for offering aid to other countries?



The Berlin Airlift While Europe began rebuilding, the United States and its allies clashed with the Soviet Union over Germany. The Soviets wanted to keep their former enemy weak and divided. But in 1948, France, Britain, and the United States decided to withdraw their forces from Germany and allow their occupation zones to form one nation. The Soviet Union responded by holding West Berlin hostage.

Although Berlin lay well within the Soviet occupation zone of Germany, it too had been divided into four zones. (See map on next page.) The Soviet Union cut off highway, water, and rail traffic into Berlin's western zones. The city faced starvation. Stalin gambled that the Allies would surrender West Berlin or give up



MAIN IDEA

Summarizing

D What Soviet actions led to the Berlin airlift?

their idea of reunifying Germany. But American and British officials flew food and supplies into West Berlin for nearly 11 months. In May 1949, the Soviet Union admitted defeat and lifted the blockade. **D**

The Cold War Divides the World

These conflicts marked the start of the **Cold War** between the United States and the Soviet Union. A cold war is a struggle over political differences carried on by means short of military action or war. Beginning in 1949, the superpowers used spying, propaganda, diplomacy, and secret operations in their dealings with each other. Much of the world allied with one side or the other. In fact, until the Soviet Union finally broke up in 1991, the Cold War dictated not only U.S. and Soviet foreign policy, but influenced world alliances as well.

Superpowers Form Rival Alliances The Berlin blockade heightened Western Europe's fears of Soviet aggression. As a result, in 1949, ten western European nations joined with the United States and Canada to form a defensive military alliance. It was called the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO). An attack on any NATO member would be met with armed force by all member nations.

The Soviet Union saw NATO as a threat and formed it's own alliance in 1955. It was called the **Warsaw Pact** and included the Soviet Union, East Germany, Czechoslovakia, Poland, Hungary, Romania, Bulgaria, and Albania. In 1961, the East Germans built a wall to separate East and West Berlin. The Berlin Wall symbolized a world divided into rival camps. However, not every country joined the new alliances. Some, like India, chose not to align with either side. And China, the largest Communist country, came to distrust the Soviet Union. It remained nonaligned.

The Threat of Nuclear War As these alliances were forming, the Cold War threatened to heat up enough to destroy the world. The United States already had atomic bombs. In 1949, the Soviet Union exploded its own atomic weapon. President Truman was determined to develop a more deadly weapon before the Soviets did. He authorized work on a thermonuclear weapon in 1950.

The hydrogen or H-bomb would be thousands of times more powerful than the A-bomb. Its power came from the fusion, or joining together, of atoms, rather than the splitting of atoms, as in the A-bomb. In 1952, the United States tested the first H-bomb. The Soviets exploded their own in 1953.

Dwight D. Eisenhower became the U.S. president in 1953. He appointed the firmly anti-Communist John Foster Dulles as his secretary of state. If the Soviet Union or its supporters attacked U.S. interests, Dulles threatened, the United States would "retaliate instantly, by means and at places of our own choosing." This willingness to go to the brink, or edge, of war became known as **brinkmanship**. Brinkmanship required a reliable source of nuclear weapons and airplanes to deliver them. So, the United States strengthened its air force and began producing stockpiles of nuclear weapons. The Soviet Union responded with its own military buildup, beginning an arms race that would go on for four decades. **(E)**

The Cold War in the Skies The Cold War also affected the science and education programs of the two countries. In August 1957, the Soviets announced the development of a rocket that could travel great distances—an intercontinental ballistic missile, or ICBM. On October 4, the Soviets used an ICBM to push Sputnik, the first unmanned satellite, above the earth's atmosphere. Americans felt they had fallen behind in science and technology, and the government poured money into science education. In 1958, the United States launched its own satellite.

In 1960, the skies again provided the arena for a superpower conflict. Five years earlier, Eisenhower had proposed that the United States and the Soviet Union be able to fly over each other's territory to guard against surprise nuclear attacks. The Soviet Union said no. In response, the U.S. Central Intelligence Agency (CIA) started secret high-altitude spy flights over Soviet territory in planes called U-2s. In May 1960, the Soviets shot down a U-2 plane, and its pilot, Francis Gary Powers, was captured. This U-2 incident heightened Cold War tensions.

While Soviet Communists were squaring off against the United States, Communists in China were fighting a civil war for control of that country.

MAIN IDEA

Recognizing **Effects**

How did the U.S. policy of brinkmanship contribute to the arms race?

SECTION

ASSESSMENT

TERMS & NAMES 1. For each term or name, write a sentence explaining its significance.

United Nations
 iron curtain
 containment
 Truman Doctrine
 Marshall Plan
 Cold War
 NATO
 Warsaw Pact
 brinkmanship

USING YOUR NOTES

2. Which effect of the Cold War was the most significant? Explain.



MAIN IDEAS

- 3. What was the purpose in forming the United Nations?
- 4. What was the goal of the Marshall Plan?
- 5. What were the goals of NATO and the Warsaw Pact?

CRITICAL THINKING & WRITING

- **6. COMPARING AND CONTRASTING** What factors help to explain why the United States and the Soviet Union became rivals instead of allies?
- 7. ANALYZING MOTIVES What were Stalin's objectives in supporting Communist governments in Eastern Europe?
- 8. ANALYZING ISSUES Why might Berlin be a likely spot for trouble to develop during the Cold War?
- 9. WRITING ACTIVITY **ECONOMICS** Draw a political cartoon that shows either capitalism from the Soviet point of view or communism from the U.S. point of view.

MULTIMEDIA ACTIVITY PREPARING A CHART



Use the Internet to research NATO today. Prepare a chart listing members today and the date they joined. Then compare it with a list of the founding members.

INTERNET KEYWORD

North Atlantic Treaty Organization

Science & Technology

The Space Race

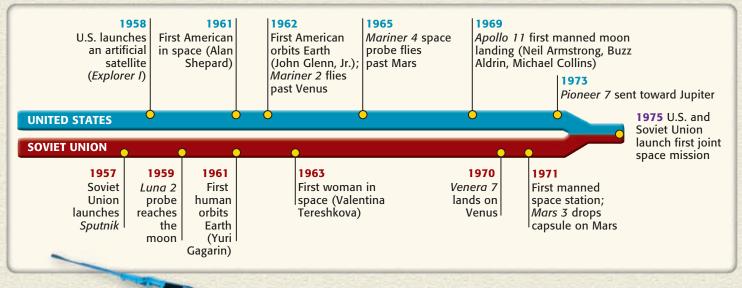
Beginning in the late 1950s, the United States and the Soviet Union competed for influence not only among the nations of the world, but in the skies as well. Once the superpowers had ICBMs (intercontinental ballistic missiles) to deliver nuclear warheads and aircraft for spying missions, they both began to develop technology that could be used to explore—and ultimately control—space. However, after nearly two decades of costly competition, the two superpowers began to cooperate in space exploration.



RESEARCH WEB LINKS Go online for more on the space race.



▲ In a major technological triumph, the United States put human beings on the moon on July 20, 1969. Astronaut Buzz Aldrin is shown on the lunar surface with the lunar lander spacecraft.







▲ The Soviet Union launched *Sputnik*, the first successful artificial space satellite, on October 4, 1957. As it circled the earth every 96 minutes, Premier Nikita Khrushchev boasted that his country would soon be "turning out long-range missiles like sausages." The United States accelerated its space program. After early failures, a U.S. satellite was launched in 1958.

◆ The joint Apollo and Soyuz mission ushered in an era of U.S.-Soviet cooperation in space.

Connect to **Today**

1. Comparing Which destinations in space did both the United States and the Soviet Union explore?

See Skillbuilder Handbook, page-R7.

2. Making Inferences What role might space continue to play in achieving world peace?

Communists Take Power in China

MAIN IDEA

REVOLUTION After World War II, Chinese Communists defeated Nationalist forces and two separate Chinas emerged.

WHY IT MATTERS NOW

China remains a Communist country and a major power in the world.

TERMS & NAMES

- Mao Zedong
- Red Guards
- Jiang Jieshi commune
- · Cultural Revolution

SETTING THE STAGE In World War II, China fought on the side of the victorious Allies. But the victory proved to be a hollow one for China. During the war, Japan's armies had occupied and devastated most of China's cities. China's civilian death toll alone was estimated between 10 to 22 million persons. This vast country suffered casualties second only to those of the Soviet Union. However, conflict did not end with the defeat of the Japanese. In 1945, opposing Chinese armies faced one another.

Communists vs. Nationalists



Use the graphic organizer online to take notes on the causes and effects of the Communist Revolution in China.

As you read in Chapter 30, a bitter civil war was raging between the Nationalists and the Communists when the Japanese invaded China in 1937. During World War II, the political opponents temporarily united to fight the Japanese. But they continued to jockey for position within China.

World War II in China Under their leader, **Mao Zedong** (MOW-dzuh•dahng), the Communists had a stronghold in northwestern China. From there, they mobilized peasants for guerrilla war against the Japanese in the northeast. Thanks to their efforts to promote literacy and improve food production, the Communists won the peasants' loyalty. By 1945, they controlled much of northern China.

Meanwhile, the Nationalist forces under Jiang Jieshi (jee*ahng-jee*shee) dominated southwestern China. Protected from the Japanese by rugged mountain ranges, Jiang gathered an army of 2.5 million men. From 1942 to 1945, the United States sent the Nationalists at least \$1.5 billion in aid to fight the Japanese. Instead of benefiting the army, however, these supplies and money often ended up in the hands of a few corrupt officers. Jiang's army actually fought few battles against the Japanese. Instead, the Nationalist army saved its strength for the coming battle against Mao's Red Army. After Japan surrendered, the Nationalists and Communists resumed fighting.

Civil War Resumes The renewed civil war lasted from 1946 to 1949. At first, the Nationalists had the advantage. Their army outnumbered the Communists' army by as much as three to one. And the United States continued its support by providing nearly \$2 billion in aid. The Nationalist forces, however, did little to win popular support. With China's economy collapsing, thousands of Nationalist soldiers deserted to the Communists. In spring 1949, China's major cities fell to



Chinese Political Opponents, 1945

-				
١	Nationalists		Communists	
	Jiang Jieshi	Leader	Mao Zedong	
1	Southern China	Area Ruled	Northern China	
	United States	Foreign Support	Soviet Union	
	Defeat of Communists	Domestic Policy	National liberation	
	Weak due to inflation and failing economy	Public Support	Strong due to promised land reform for peasants	
	Ineffective, corrupt leadership and poor morale	Military Organization	Experienced, motivated guerrilla army	

SKILLBUILDER: Interpreting Charts

- 1. Drawing Conclusions Which party's domestic policy might appeal more to Chinese peasants?
- 2. Forming and Supporting Opinions Which aspect of the Communist approach do you think was most responsible for Mao's victory? Explain.

the well-trained Red forces. Mao's troops were also enthusiastic about his promise to return land to the peasants. The remnants of Jiang's shattered army fled south. In October 1949, Mao Zedong gained control of the country. He proclaimed it the People's Republic of China. Jiang and other Nationalist leaders retreated to the island of Taiwan, which Westerners called Formosa.

Mao Zedong's victory fueled U.S. anti-Communist feelings. Those feelings only grew after the Chinese and Soviets signed a treaty of friendship in 1950. Many people in the United States viewed the takeover of China as another step in a Communist campaign to conquer the world. A

The Two Chinas Affect the Cold War

China had split into two nations. One was the island of Taiwan, or Nationalist China, with an area of 13,000 square miles. The mainland, or People's Republic of China, had an area of more than 3.5 million square miles. The existence of two Chinas, and the conflicting international loyalties they inspired, intensified the Cold War.

The Superpowers React After Jiang Jieshi fled to Taiwan, the United States helped him set up a Nationalist government on that small island. It was called the Republic of China. The Soviets gave financial, military, and technical aid to Communist China. In addition, the Chinese and the Soviets pledged to come to each other's defense if either was attacked. The United States tried to halt Soviet expansion in Asia. For example, when Soviet forces occupied the northern half of Korea after World War II and set up a Communist government, the United States supported a separate state in the south.

China Expands under the Communists In the early years of Mao's reign, Chinese troops expanded into Tibet, India, and southern, or Inner, Mongolia. Northern, or Outer, Mongolia, which bordered the Soviet Union, remained in the Soviet sphere.

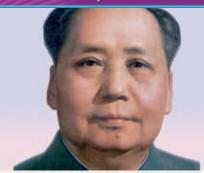
In a brutal assault in 1950 and 1951, China took control of Tibet. The Chinese promised autonomy to Tibetans, who followed their religious leader, the Dalai Lama. When China's control over Tibet tightened in the late 1950s, the Dalai Lama fled to India. India welcomed many Tibetan refugees after a failed revolt in Tibet in

MAIN IDEA

Recognizing **Effects**

A How did the outcome of the Chinese civil war contribute to Cold War tensions?

History Makers



Mao Zedong 1893-1976

Born into a peasant family, Mao embraced Marxist socialism as a young man. Though he began as an urban labor organizer, Mao quickly realized the revolutionary potential of China's peasants. In 1927, Mao predicted:

The force of the peasantry is like that of the raging winds and driving rain. . . . They will bury beneath them all forces of imperialism, militarism, corrupt officialdom, village bosses and evil gentry.

Mao's first attempt to lead the peasants in revolt failed in 1927. But during the Japanese occupation, Mao and his followers won widespread peasant support by reducing rents and promising to redistribute land.

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RESEARCH WEB LINKS Go online for more on Mao Zedong.

1959. As a result, resentment between India and China grew. In 1962, they clashed briefly over the two countries' unclear border. The fighting stopped but resentment continued.

The Communists Transform China

For decades, China had been in turmoil, engaged in civil war or fighting with Japan. So, when the Communists took power, they moved rapidly to strengthen their rule over China's 550 million people. They also aimed to restore China as a powerful nation.

Communists Claim a New "Mandate of Heaven" After taking control of China, the Communists began to tighten their hold. The party's 4.5 million members made up just 1 percent of the population. But they were a disciplined group. Like the Soviets, the Chinese Communists set up two parallel organizations, the Communist party and the national government. Mao headed both until 1959.

Mao's Brand of Marxist Socialism Mao was determined to reshape China's economy based on Marxist socialism. Eighty percent of the people lived in rural areas, but most owned no land. Instead, 10 percent of the rural population controlled 70 percent of the farmland. Under the Agrarian Reform Law of 1950, Mao seized the holdings of these landlords. His forces killed more than a million landlords who resisted. He then divided the land among the peasants. Later, to further Mao's socialist principles, the government forced peasants to join collective farms. Each of these farms was comprised of 200 to 300 households.

Mao's changes also transformed industry and business. Gradually, private companies were nationalized, or brought under government ownership. In 1953, Mao launched a five-year plan that set high production goals for industry. By 1957, China's output of coal, cement, steel, and electricity had increased dramatically. **B**

"The Great Leap Forward" To expand the success of the first Five-Year Plan, Mao proclaimed the "Great Leap Forward" in early 1958. This plan called for still larger collective farms, or **communes**. By the end of 1958, about 26,000 communes had been created. The average commune sprawled over 15,000 acres and supported over 25,000 people. In the strictly controlled life of the communes, peasants worked the land together. They ate in communal dining rooms, slept in communal dormitories, and raised children in communal nurseries. And they owned nothing. The peasants had no incentive to work hard when only the state profited from their labor.

The Great Leap Forward was a giant step backward. Poor planning and inefficient "backyard," or home, industries hampered growth. The program was ended in 1961 after crop failures caused a famine that killed about 20 million people.

New Policies and Mao's Response China was facing external problems as well as internal ones in the late 1950s. The spirit of cooperation that had bound the Soviet Union and China began to fade. Each sought to lead the worldwide Communist movement. As they also shared the longest border in the world, they faced numerous territorial disputes.

MAIN IDEA

Analyzing Issues

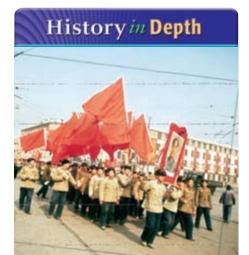
B What aspects of Marxist socialism did Mao try to bring to China?

After the failure of the Great Leap Forward and the split with the Soviet Union, Mao reduced his role in government. Other leaders moved away from Mao's strict socialist ideas. For example, farm families could live in their own homes and could sell crops they grew on small private plots. Factory workers could compete for wage increases and promotions.

Mao thought China's new economic policies weakened the Communist goal of social equality. He was determined to revive the revolution. In 1966, he urged China's young people to "learn revolution by making revolution." Millions of high school and college students responded. They left their classrooms and formed militia units called **Red Guards**.

The Cultural Revolution The Red Guards led a major uprising known as the **Cultural Revolution**. Its goal was to establish a society of peasants and workers in which all were equal. The new hero was the peasant who worked with his hands. The life of the mind—intellectual and artistic activity—was considered useless and dangerous. To stamp out this threat, the Red Guards shut down colleges and schools. They targeted anyone who resisted the regime. Intellectuals had to "purify" themselves by doing hard labor in remote villages. Thousands were executed or imprisoned.

Chaos threatened farm production and closed down factories. Civil war seemed possible. By 1968, even Mao admitted that the Cultural Revolution had to stop. The army was ordered to put down the Red Guards. Zhou Enlai (joh ehn•leye), Chinese Communist party founder and premier since 1949, began to restore order. While China was struggling to become stable, the Cold War continued to rage. Two full-scale wars were fought—in Korea and in Vietnam.



The Red Guards

The Red Guards were students, mainly teenagers. They pledged their devotion to Chairman Mao and the Cultural Revolution. From 1966 to 1968, 20 to 30 million Red Guards roamed China's cities and countryside causing widespread chaos. To smash the old, non-Maoist way of life, they destroyed buildings and beat and even killed Mao's alleged enemies. They lashed out at professors, government officials, factory managers, and even parents.

Eventually, even Mao turned on them. Most were exiled to the countryside. Others were arrested and some executed.

MAIN IDEA

Drawing Conclusions

Why did the Cultural Revolution fail?

SECTION

ASSESSMENT

TERMS & NAMES 1. For each term or name, write a sentence explaining its significance.

- Mao Zedong
- Jiang Jieshi
- commune
- Red Guards
- Cultural Revolution

USING YOUR NOTES

2. Which effect of the Communist Revolution in China do you think had the most permanent impact? Explain.

Cause	Effect
1.	l.
2.	2.
3.	3.

MAIN IDEAS

- 3. How did the Chinese Communists increase their power during World War II?
- 4. What actions did the Nationalists take during World War II?
- **5.** What was the goal of the Cultural Revolution?

CRITICAL THINKING & WRITING

- **6. MAKING INFERENCES** Why did the United States support the Nationalists in the civil war in China?
- 7. ANALYZING ISSUES What policies or actions enabled the Communists to defeat the Nationalists in their long civil war?
- **8. IDENTIFYING PROBLEMS** What circumstances prevented Mao's Great Leap Forward from bringing economic prosperity to China?
- **9. WRITING ACTIVITY REVOLUTION** Write **summaries** of the reforms Mao Zedong proposed for China that could be placed on a propaganda poster.

CONNECT TO TODAY CREATING A COMPARISON CHART

Find political, economic, and demographic information on the People's Republic of China and Taiwan and make a **comparison chart**.

Wars in Korea and Vietnam

MAIN IDEA

REVOLUTION In Asia, the Cold War flared into actual wars supported mainly by the superpowers.

WHY IT MATTERS NOW

Today, Vietnam is a Communist country, and Korea is split into Communist and non-Communist nations.

TERMS & NAMES

- 38th parallel
- Douglas

 MacArthur
- Ho Chi Minh
- · domino theory
- Ngo Dinh Diem
- Vietcong
- Vietnamization
- Khmer Rouge

SETTING THE STAGE When World War II ended, Korea became a divided nation. North of the **38th parallel**, a line that crosses Korea at 38 degrees north latitude, Japanese troops surrendered to Soviet forces. South of this line, the Japanese surrendered to American troops. As in Germany, two nations developed. (See map on next page.) One was the Communist industrial north, whose government had been set up by the Soviets. The other was the non-Communist rural south, supported by the Western powers.

War in Korea



Use the graphic organizer online to take notes on the Korean and Vietnam wars.

By 1949, both the United States and the Soviet Union had withdrawn most of their troops from Korea. The Soviets gambled that the United States would not defend South Korea. So they supplied North Korea with tanks, airplanes, and money in an attempt to take over the peninsula.

Standoff at the 38th Parallel On June 25, 1950, North Koreans swept across the 38th parallel in a surprise attack on South Korea. Within days, North Korean troops had penetrated deep into the south. President Truman was convinced that the North Korean aggressors were repeating what Hitler, Mussolini, and the Japanese had done in the 1930s. Truman's policy of containment was being put to the test. And Truman resolved to help South Korea resist communism.

South Korea also asked the United Nations to intervene. When the matter came to a vote in the Security Council, the Soviets were absent. They had refused to take part in the Council to protest admission of Nationalist China (Taiwan), rather than

▼UN forces landing at Inchon in South Korea in 1950



Communist China, into the UN. As a result, the Soviet Union could not veto the UN's plan to send an international force to Korea to stop the invasion. A total of 15 nations, including the United States and Britain, participated under the command of General **Douglas MacArthur**.

Meanwhile, the North Koreans continued to advance. By September 1950, they controlled the entire Korean peninsula except for a tiny area around Pusan in the far southeast. That month, however, MacArthur launched a surprise attack. Troops moving north from Pusan met with forces that had made an amphibious landing at Inchon. Caught in this "pincer action," about half of the North Koreans surrendered. The rest retreated.

The Fighting Continues The UN troops pursued the retreating North Koreans across the 38th parallel into North Korea. They pushed them almost to the Yalu River at the Chinese border. The UN forces were mostly from the United States. The Chinese felt threatened by these troops and by an American fleet off their coast. In October 1950, they sent 300,000 troops into North Korea.

War in Korea, SOVIET 1950-1953 UNION hmhsocialstudies.com INTERACTIVE MAP CHINA 100 Miles Chinese Intervention, October 1950 Chos Hungnam NORTH Sea of Japan Wonsan KOREA (East Sea) Pyongyang Yellow Sea 38th Parallel Panmunjom . Inchon Seoul **U.S. Marine Strike** September 1950 SOUTH **KOREA** Taejon **Pohang** Farthest North Korean advance Taegu September 1950 Farthest UN advance, November 1950 Farthest Chinese and North Korean advance, January 1951 JAPAN Armistice line, 1953 **GEOGRAPHY SKILLBUILDER: Interpreting Maps** 1. Movement What was the northernmost Korean city UN troops had reached by November 1950? 2. Movement Did North or South Korean forces advance farther into the other's territory?

The Chinese greatly outnumbered the UN forces. By January 1951, they had pushed UN and South Korean troops out of North Korea. The Chinese then moved into South Korea and captured the capital of Seoul. "We face an entirely new war," declared MacArthur. He called for a nuclear attack against China. Truman viewed MacArthur's proposals as reckless. "We are trying to prevent a world war, not start one," he said. MacArthur tried to go over the President's head by taking his case to Congress and the press. In response, Truman removed him.

Over the next two years, UN forces fought to drive the Chinese and North Koreans back. By 1952, UN troops had regained control of South Korea. Finally, in July 1953, the UN forces and North Korea signed a cease-fire agreement. The border between the two Koreas was set near the 38th parallel, almost where it had been before the war. In the meantime, 4 million soldiers and civilians had died.

Aftermath of the War After the war, Korea remained divided. A demilitarized zone, which still exists, separated the two countries. In North Korea, the Communist dictator Kim II Sung established collective farms, developed heavy industry, and built up the military. At Kim's death in 1994, his son Kim Jong II took power. Under his rule, Communist North Korea developed nuclear weapons but had serious economic problems. On the other hand, South Korea prospered, thanks partly to massive aid from the United States and other countries. In the 1960s, South



MAIN IDEA Recognizing Effects

Mhat effects did the Korean war have on the Korean people and nation? Korea concentrated on developing its industry and expanding foreign trade. A succession of dictatorships ruled the rapidly developing country. With the 1987 adoption of a democratic constitution, however, South Korea established free elections. During the 1980s and 1990s, South Korea had one of the highest economic growth rates in the world.

Political differences have kept the two Koreas apart, despite periodic discussions of reuniting the country. North Korea's possession of nuclear weapons is a major obstacle. The United States still keeps troops in South Korea.

War Breaks Out in Vietnam

Much like its involvement in the Korean War, the involvement of the United States in Vietnam stemmed from its Cold War containment policy. After World War II, stopping the spread of communism was the principal goal of U.S. foreign policy.

The Road to War In the early 1900s, France controlled most of resource-rich Southeast Asia. (French Indochina included what are now Vietnam, Laos, and Cambodia.) But nationalist independence movements had begun to develop. A young Vietnamese nationalist, **Ho Chi Minh**, turned to the Communists for help in his struggle. During the 1930s, Ho's Indochinese Communist party led revolts and strikes against the French.

The French responded by jailing Vietnamese protesters. They also sentenced Ho

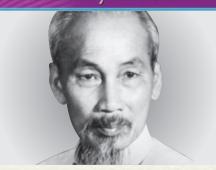
to death. He fled into exile, but returned to Vietnam in 1941, a year after the Japanese seized control of his country during World War II. Ho and other nationalists founded the Vietminh (Independence) League. The Japanese were forced out of Vietnam after their defeat in 1945. Ho Chi Minh believed that independence would follow, but France intended to regain its colony.

The Fighting Begins Vietnamese Nationalists and Communists joined to fight the French armies. The French held most major cities, but the Vietminh had widespread support in the countryside. The Vietminh used hit-and-run tactics to confine the French to the cities. In France the people began to doubt that their colony was worth the lives and money the struggle cost. In 1954, the French suffered a major military defeat at Dien Bien Phu. They surrendered to Ho.

The United States had supported France in Vietnam. With the defeat of the French, the United States saw a rising threat to the rest of Asia. President Eisenhower described this threat in terms of the **domino theory**. The Southeast Asian nations were like a row of dominos, he said. The fall of one to communism would lead to the fall of its neighbors. This theory became a major justification for U.S. foreign policy during the Cold War era. **B**

Vietnam—A Divided Country After France's defeat, an international peace conference met in Geneva to discuss the future of Indochina. Based on these talks, Vietnam was divided at 17° north latitude. North of that line, Ho Chi Minh's Communist forces governed. To the south, the United States and France set up an anti-Communist government under the leadership of **Ngo Dinh Diem** (NOH dihn D'YEM).

History Makers



Ho Chi Minh 1890-1969

When he was young, the poor Vietnamese Nguyen That (uhng•wihn thaht) Thanh worked as a cook on a French steamship. In visiting U.S. cities where the boat docked, he learned about American culture and ideals. He later took a new name—Ho Chi Minh, meaning "He who enlightens." Though a Communist, in proclaiming Vietnam's independence from France in 1945, he declared, "All men are created equal."

His people revered him, calling him Uncle Ho. However, Ho Chi Minh did not put his democratic ideals into practice. He ruled North Vietnam by crushing all opposition.

MAIN IDEA

Making Inferences

B What actions might the United States have justified by the domino theory?



Diem ruled the south as a dictator. Opposition to his government grew. Communist guerrillas, called **Vietcong**, began to gain strength in the south. While some of the Vietcong were trained soldiers from North Vietnam, most were South Vietnamese who hated Diem. Gradually, the Vietcong won control of large areas of the countryside. In 1963, a group of South Vietnamese generals had Diem assassinated. But the new leaders were no more popular than he had been. It appeared that a takeover by the Communist Vietcong, backed by North Vietnam, was inevitable.

The United States Gets Involved

Faced with the possibility of a Communist victory, the United States decided to escalate, or increase, its involvement. Some U.S. troops had been serving as advisers to the South Vietnamese since the late 1950s. But their numbers steadily grew, as did the numbers of planes and other military equipment sent to South Vietnam.

U.S. Troops Enter the Fight In August 1964, U.S. President Lyndon Johnson told Congress that North Vietnamese patrol boats had attacked two U.S. destroyers in the Gulf of Tonkin. As a result, Congress authorized the president to send U.S. troops to fight in Vietnam. By late 1965, more than 185,000 U.S. soldiers were in combat on Vietnamese soil. U.S. planes had also begun to bomb North Vietnam. By 1968, more than half a million U.S. soldiers were in combat there.

The United States had the best-equipped, most advanced army in the world. Yet it faced two major difficulties. First, U.S. soldiers were fighting a guerrilla war in unfamiliar jungle terrain. Second, the South Vietnamese government that they were defending was becoming more unpopular. At the same time, support for the Vietcong grew, with help and supplies from Ho Chi Minh, the Soviet Union, and China. Unable to win a decisive victory on the ground, the United States turned to air power. U.S. forces bombed millions of acres of farmland and forest in an attempt to destroy enemy hideouts. This bombing strengthened peasants'opposition to the South Vietnamese government.

The United States Withdraws During the late 1960s, the war grew increasingly unpopular in the United States. Dissatisfied young people began to protest the tremen-

dous loss of life in a conflict on the other side of the world. Bowing to intense public pressure, President Richard Nixon began withdrawing U.S. troops from Vietnam in 1969.

Nixon had a plan called **Vietnamization**. It allowed for U.S. troops to gradually pull out, while the South Vietnamese increased their combat role. To pursue Vietnamization while preserving the South Vietnamese government, Nixon authorized a massive bombing campaign against North Vietnamese bases and supply routes. He also authorized bombings in neighboring Laos and Cambodia to destroy Vietcong hiding places.

In response to protests and political pressure at home, Nixon kept withdrawing U.S. troops. The last left in 1973. Two years later, the North Vietnamese overran South Vietnam. The war ended, but more than 1.5 million Vietnamese and 58,000 Americans lost their lives.

Postwar Southeast Asia

War's end did not bring an immediate halt to bloodshed and chaos in Southeast Asia. Cambodia (also known as Kampuchea) was under siege by Communist rebels.

▼ The skulls and bones of Cambodian citizens form a haunting memorial to the brutality of its Communist government in the 1970s.



During the war, it had suffered U.S. bombing when it was used as a sanctuary by North Vietnamese and Vietcong troops.

Cambodia in Turmoil In 1975, Communist rebels known as the Khmer Rouge set up a brutal Communist government under the leadership of Pol Pot. In a ruthless attempt to transform Cambodia into a Communist society, Pol Pot's followers slaughtered 2 million people. This was almost one quarter of the nation's population. The Vietnamese invaded in 1978. They overthrew the Khmer Rouge and installed a less repressive government. But fighting continued. The Vietnamese withdrew in 1989. In 1993, under the supervision of UN peacekeepers, Cambodia adopted a democratic constitution and held free elections.

Vietnam after the War After 1975, the victorious North Vietnamese imposed tight controls over the South. Officials sent thousands of people to "reeducation camps" for training in Communist thought. They nationalized industries and strictly controlled businesses. They also renamed Saigon, the South's former capital, Ho Chi Minh City. Communist oppression caused 1.5 million people to flee Vietnam. Most escaped in dangerously overcrowded ships. More than 200,000 "boat people" died at sea. The survivors often spent months in refugee camps in Southeast Asia. About 70,000 eventually settled in the United States or Canada. Although Communists still govern Vietnam, the country now welcomes foreign investment. The United States normalized relations with Vietnam in 1995.

While the superpowers were struggling for advantage during the Korean and Vietnam wars, they also were seeking influence in other parts of the world.

Connect to Today



Vietnam Today

Vietnam remains a Communist country. But, like China, it has introduced elements of capitalism into its economy. In 1997, a travel magazine claimed that Hanoi, the capital of Vietnam, "jumps with vitality, its streets and shops jammed with locals and handfuls of Western tourists and businesspeople." Above, two executives tour the city.

Along Hanoi's shaded boulevards, billboards advertise U.S. and Japanese copiers, motorcycles, video recorders, and soft drinks. On the streets, enterprising Vietnamese businesspeople offer more traditional services. These include bicycle repair, a haircut, a shave, or a tasty snack.

SECTION

MAIN IDEA

What was one

of the effects of Pol

Pot's efforts to turn

Cambodia into a

rural society?

Recognizing

Effects

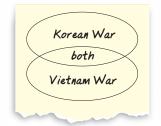
ASSESSMENT

TERMS & NAMES 1. For each term or name, write a sentence explaining its significance.

• 38th parallel • Douglas MacArthur • Ho Chi Minh • domino theory • Ngo Dinh Diem • Vietcong • Vietnamization • Khmer Rouge

USING YOUR NOTES

2. In what ways were the causes and effects of the wars in Korea and Vietnam similar?



MAIN IDEAS

- **3.** What role did the United Nations play in the Korean
- 4. How did Vietnam become divided?
- 5. What was the Khmer Rouge's plan for Cambodia?

CRITICAL THINKING & WRITING

- 6. ANALYZING MOTIVES What role did the policy of containment play in the involvement of the United States in wars in Korea and Vietnam?
- 7. IDENTIFYING CAUSES How might imperialism be one of the causes of the Vietnam War?
- **8. FORMING OPINIONS** Do you think U.S. involvement in Vietnam was justified? Why or why not?
- 9. WRITING ACTIVITY EMPIRE BUILDING Write a twoparagraph **expository essay** for either the United States or the Soviet Union supporting its involvement in Asia.

CONNECT TO TODAY WRITING A BIOGRAPHY

Research the present-day leader of one of the countries discussed in this section. Then write a three-paragraph biography.

The Cold War Divides the World

WHY IT MATTERS NOW

MAIN IDEA

REVOLUTION The superpowers

supported opposing sides in

Latin American and Middle

Eastern conflicts.

Many of these areas today are troubled by political, economic,

and military conflict and crisis.

TERMS & NAMES

- Third World
- nonaligned nations
- Fidel Castro
- · Anastasio Somoza
- Daniel Ortega
- Ayatollah Ruholla Khomeini

SETTING THE STAGE Following World War II, the world's nations were grouped politically into three "worlds." The first was the industrialized capitalist nations, including the United States and its allies. The second was the Communist nations led by the Soviet Union. The **Third World** consisted of developing nations, often newly independent, who were not aligned with either superpower. These nonaligned countries provided yet another arena for competition between the Cold War superpowers.

Fighting for the Third World



Use the graphic organizer online to take notes on Third World confrontations.

The Third World nations were located in Latin America, Asia, and Africa. They were economically poor and politically unstable. This was largely due to a long history of colonialism. They also suffered from ethnic conflicts and lack of technology and education. Each needed a political and economic system around which to build its society. Soviet-style communism and U.S.-style free-market democracy were the main choices.

Cold War Strategies The United States, the Soviet Union, and, in some cases, China, used a variety of techniques to gain influence in the Third World. (See feature on next page.) They backed wars of revolution, liberation, or counterrevolution. The U.S. and Soviet intelligence agencies—the CIA and the KGB—engaged in various covert, or secret, activities, ranging from spying to assassination attempts. The United States also gave military aid, built schools, set up programs to combat poverty, and sent volunteer workers to many developing nations. The Soviets offered military and technical assistance, mainly to India and Egypt.

Association of Nonaligned Nations Other developing nations also needed assistance. They became important players in the Cold War competition between the United States, the Soviet Union, and later, China. But not all Third World countries wished to play a role in the Cold War. As mentioned earlier India vowed to remain neutral. Indonesia, a populous island nation in Southeast Asia, also struggled to stay uninvolved. In 1955, it hosted many leaders from Asia and Africa at the Bandung Conference. They met to form what they called a "third force" of independent countries, or **nonaligned nations**. Some nations, such as India and Indonesia, were able to maintain their neutrality. But others took sides with the superpowers or played competing sides against each other.

History in Depth

How the Cold War Was Fought

During the Cold War, the United States and the Soviet Union both believed that they needed to stop the other side from extending its power. What differentiated the Cold War from other 20th century conflicts was that the two enemies did not engage in a shooting war. Instead, they pursued their rivalry by using the strategies shown below.



NATO, 1955

Warsaw Pact, 1955

Non-aligned, 1955

Egypt built the Aswan Dam with Soviet aid.

Major Strategies of the Cold War

Foreign Aid	Espionage	Multinational Alliances	
The two superpowers tried to win allies by giving financial aid to other nations. For instance, Egypt took aid from the Soviet Union to build the Aswan High Dam (see photograph above).	Fearing the enemy might be gaining the advantage, each side spied on the other. One famous incident was the Soviet downing of a U.S. U-2 spy plane in 1960.	To gain the support of other nations, both the Soviet Union and the United States entered into alliances. Two examples of this were NATO and the Warsaw Pact (shown on map above).	
Propaganda	Brinkmanship	Surrogate Wars	
Both superpowers used propaganda	The policy of brinkmanship meant	The word <i>surrogat</i> e means substitute.	

to try to win support overseas. For example, Radio Free Europe broadcast radio programs about the rest of the world into Eastern Europe. going to the brink of war to make the other side back down. One example was the Cuban Missile Crisis.

Although the United States and the Soviet Union did not fight each other directly, they fought indirectly by backing opposing sides in many smaller conflicts.

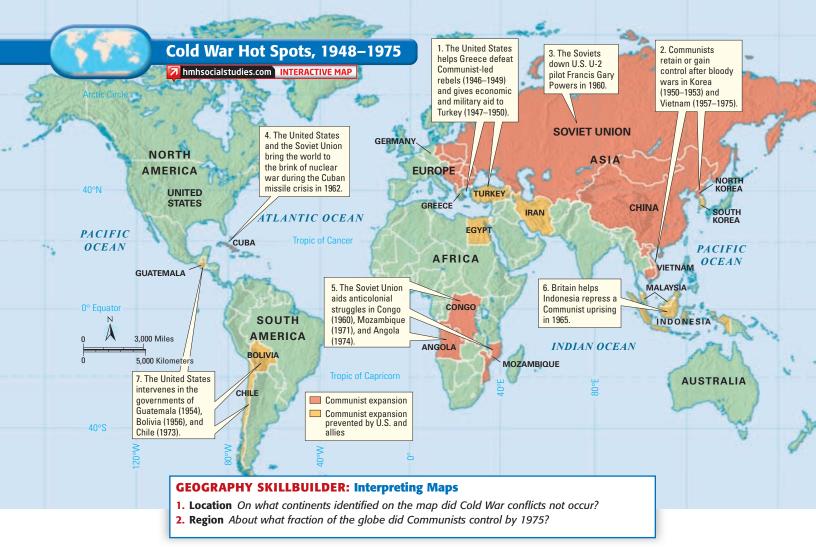
800 Kilometers

SOVIET UNION

FINLAND

SKILLBUILDER: Interpreting Visuals

- 1. Generalizing Judging from the map, how would you describe the effect on Europe of multinational alliances?
- 2. Analyzing Motives What motive did the two superpowers have for fighting surrogate wars?



Confrontations in Latin America

After World War II, rapid industrialization, population growth, and a lingering gap between the rich and the poor led Latin American nations to seek aid from both superpowers. At the same time, many of these countries alternated between short-lived democracy and harsh military rule. As described in Chapter 28, U.S. involvement in Latin America began long before World War II. American businesses backed leaders who protected U.S. interests but who also often oppressed their people. After the war, communism and nationalistic feelings inspired revolutionary movements. These found enthusiastic Soviet support. In response, the United States provided military and economic assistance to anti-Communist dictators.

Fidel Castro and the Cuban Revolution In the 1950s, Cuba was ruled by an unpopular dictator, Fulgencio Batista, who had U.S. support. Cuban resentment led to a popular revolution, which overthrew Batista in January 1959. A young lawyer named **Fidel Castro** led that revolution. At first, many people praised Castro for



bringing social reforms to Cuba and improving the economy. Yet Castro was a harsh dictator. He suspended elections, jailed or executed his opponents, and tightly controlled the press.

When Castro nationalized the Cuban economy, he took over U.S.-owned sugar mills and refineries. In response, Eisenhower ordered an embargo on all trade with Cuba. Castro then turned to the Soviets for economic and military aid.

In 1960, the CIA began to train anti-Castro Cuban exiles. In April 1961, they invaded Cuba, landing at the Bay of Pigs. However, the United States did not provide the hoped for air support. Castro's forces easily defeated the invaders, humiliating the United States.

Nuclear Face-off: the Cuban Missile Crisis The failed Bay of Pigs invasion convinced Soviet leader Nikita Khrushchev that the United States would not resist Soviet expansion in Latin America. So, in July 1962, Khrushchev secretly began to build 42 missile sites in Cuba. In October, an American spy plane discovered the sites. President John F. Kennedy declared that missiles so close to the U.S. mainland were a threat. He demanded their removal and also announced a naval blockade of Cuba.

Castro protested his country's being used as a pawn in the Cold War:

PRIMARY SOURCE

Cuba did not and does not intend to be in the middle of a conflict between the East and the West. Our problem is above all one of national sovereignty. Cuba does not mean to get involved in the Cold War.

FIDEL CASTRO, quoted in an interview October 27, 1962

But Castro and Cuba were deeply involved. Kennedy's demand for the removal of Soviet missiles put the United States and the Soviet Union on a collision course. People around the world feared nuclear war. Fortunately, Khrushchev agreed to remove the missiles in return for a U.S. promise not to invade Cuba. (A)

The resolution of the Cuban Missile Crisis left Castro completely dependent on Soviet support. In exchange for this support, Castro backed Communist revolutions in Latin America and Africa. Soviet aid to Cuba, however, ended abruptly with the breakup of the Soviet Union in 1991. This loss dealt a crippling blow to the Cuban economy. Eventually,

Castro loosened state control of Cuba's economy and sought better relations with other countries.

Civil War in Nicaragua Just as the United States had supported Batista in Cuba, it had funded the Nicaraguan dictatorship of **Anastasio Somoza** and his family since 1933. In 1979, Communist Sandinista rebels toppled Somoza's son. Both the United States and the Soviet Union initially gave aid to the Sandinistas and their leader, **Daniel Ortega** (awr•TAY•guh). The Sandinistas, however, gave assistance to other Marxist rebels in nearby El Salvador. To help the El Salvadoran government fight those rebels, the United States supported Nicaraguan anti-Communist forces called the Contras or contrarevolucionarios. **B**)

The civil war in Nicaragua lasted more than a decade and seriously weakened the country's economy. In 1990, President Ortega agreed to hold free elections, the first in the nation's history. Violeta Chamorro, a reform candidate, defeated him. The Sandinistas were also defeated in elections in 1996 and 2001. However, Ortega won the election in 2006 and returned to power.

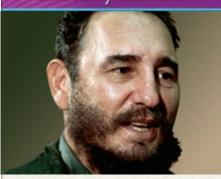
MAIN IDEA **Contrasting**

M What differing U.S. and Soviet aims led to the Cuban missile crisis?

MAIN IDEA **Analyzing Motives**

B) Why did the U.S. switch its support from the Sandinistas to the Contras?

History Makers



Fidel Castro 1926-

The son of a wealthy Spanish-Cuban farmer, Fidel Castro became involved in politics at the University of Havana. He first tried to overthrow the Cuban dictator, Batista, in 1953. He was imprisoned, but vowed to continue the struggle for independence:

Personally, I am not interested in power nor do I envisage assuming it at any time. All that I will do is to make sure that the sacrifices of so many compatriots should not be in vain.

Despite this declaration, Castro ruled Cuba as a dictator for more than 40 years. In 2008, his younger brother, Raul Castro, succeeded him as president.

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INTERNET ACTIVITY Go online to create a time line of the important events in Castro's Cuba.

Confrontations in the Middle East

As the map on page 984 shows, Cold War confrontations continued to erupt around the globe. The oil-rich Middle East attracted both superpowers.

Religious and Secular Values Clash in Iran Throughout the Middle East, oil industry wealth fueled a growing clash between traditional Islamic values and modern Western materialism. In no country was this cultural conflict more dramatically shown than in Iran (Persia before 1935). After World War II, Iran's leader,

IRAN
AFGHANISTAN

Shah Mohammed Reza Pahlavi (pah•luh•vee), embraced Western governments and wealthy Western oil companies. Iranian nationalists resented these foreign alliances and united under Prime Minister Muhammed Mossadeq (moh•sah•DEHK). They nationalized a British-owned oil company and, in 1953, forced the shah to flee. Fearing Iran might turn to the Soviets for support, the United States helped restore the shah to power.

The United States Supports Secular Rule With U.S. support, the shah westernized his country. By the end of the 1950s, Iran's capital, Tehran, featured gleaming skyscrapers, foreign banks, and modern factories. Millions of Iranians, however, still lived in extreme poverty. The shah tried to weaken the political influence of Iran's conservative Muslim leaders, known as ayatollahs (eye•uh• TOH•luhz), who opposed Western influences. The leader of this religious opposition, **Ayatollah Ruholla Khomeini** (koh• MAY•nee), was living in exile. Spurred by his taperecorded messages, Iranians rioted in every major city in late 1978. Faced with overwhelming opposition, the shah fled Iran in 1979. A triumphant Khomeini returned to establish an Islamic state and to export Iran's militant form of Islam.

Khomeini's Anti-U.S. Policies Strict adherence to Islam ruled Khomeini's domestic policies. But hatred of the United States, because of U.S. support for the shah, was at the heart of his foreign policy. In 1979, with the ayatollah's blessing, young Islamic revolutionaries seized the U.S. embassy in Tehran. They took more than 60 Americans hostage and demanded the United States force the shah to face trial. Most hostages remained prisoners for 444 days before being released in 1981.

Khomeini encouraged Muslim radicals elsewhere to overthrow their secular governments. Intended to unify Muslims, this policy heightened tensions between Iran and its neighbor and territorial rival, Iraq. A military leader, Saddam Hussein (hoo•SAYN), governed Iraq as a secular state.



▼ Ayatollah Khomeini (inset) supported the taking of U.S. hostages by Islamic militants in Tehran in 1979.



MAIN IDEA

Analyzing Motives

Why did the United States support the shah of Iran?

War broke out between Iran and Iraq in 1980. The United States secretly gave aid to both sides because it did not want the balance of power in the region to change. The Soviet Union, on the other hand, had long been a supporter of Iraq. A million Iranians and Iraqis died in the war before the UN negotiated a ceasefire in 1988.

The Superpowers Face Off in Afghanistan For several years following World War II, Afghanistan maintained its independence from both the neighboring Soviet Union and the United States. In the 1950s, however, Soviet influence in the country began to increase. In the late 1970s, a Muslim revolt threatened to topple Afghanistan's Communist regime. This revolt led to a Soviet invasion in 1979.

The Soviets expected to prop up the Afghan Communists and quickly withdraw. Instead, just like the United States in Vietnam, the Soviets found themselves stuck. And like the Vietcong in Vietnam, rebel forces outmaneuvered a military superpower. Supplied with American weapons, the Afgan rebels, called mujahideen, or holy warriors, fought on. **D**

The United States had armed the rebels because they considered the Soviet invasion a threat to Middle Eastern oil supplies. President Jimmy Carter warned the Soviets against any attempt to gain control of the Persian Gulf. To protest the invasion, he stopped U.S. grain shipments to the Soviet Union and ordered a U.S. boycott of the 1980 Moscow Olympics. In the 1980s, a new Soviet president, Mikhail Gorbachev, acknowledged the war's devastating costs. He withdrew all Soviet troops by 1989. By then, internal unrest and economic problems were tearing apart the Soviet Union itself.



The Taliban

Islamic religious students, or taliban, were among the *mujahideen* rebels who fought the Soviet occupation of Afghanistan. Various groups of students loosely organized themselves during a civil war among mujahideen factions that followed the Soviet withdrawal in 1989.

In 1996, one of these groups, called the Taliban, seized power and established an Islamic government. They imposed a repressive rule especially harsh on women, and failed to improve people's lives. They also gave sanctuary to international Islamic terrorists. In 2001, an antiterrorist coalition led by the United States drove them from power. However, they have regrouped and have been fighting NATO forces in Afghanistan since 2006.

MAIN IDEA

Comparing

In what ways were U.S. involvement in Vietnam and Soviet involvement in Afghanistan similar?

SECTION



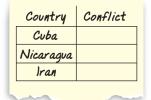
ASSESSMENT

TERMS & NAMES 1. For each term or name, write a sentence explaining its significance.

- Third World
- nonaligned nations
- Fidel Castro
- · Anastasio Somoza
- Daniel Ortega
- · Ayatollah Ruholla Khomeini

USING YOUR NOTES

2. Which confrontation had the most lasting significance?



MAIN IDEAS

- 3. How was the Cuban Missile Crisis resolved?
- 4. What was significant about the 1990 elections in Nicaragua?
- 5. Why did the Soviet Union invade Afghanistan?

CRITICAL THINKING & WRITING

- 6. MAKING INFERENCES What advantages and disadvantages might being nonaligned have offered a developing nation during the Cold War?
- 7. COMPARING What similarities do you see among U.S. actions in Nicaragua, Cuba, and Iran?
- **8. ANALYZING CAUSES** What were the reasons that Islamic fundamentalists took control of Iran?
- 9. WRITING ACTIVITY REVOLUTION For either Cuba, Nicaragua, or Iran, write an annotated time line of events discussed in this section.

CONNECT TO TODAY WRITING AN OPINION PAPER

Research the effects of the U.S. trade embargo on Cuba. Write a two-paragraph opinion paper on whether it would be in the best interests of the United States to lift that embargo.

The Cold War Thaws

MAIN IDEA

EMPIRE BUILDING The Cold War began to thaw as the superpowers entered an era of uneasy diplomacy.

WHY IT MATTERS NOW

The United States and the countries of the former Soviet Union continue to cooperate and maintain a cautious peace.

TERMS & NAMES

- Nikita
 Khrushchev
- détenteRichard M. Nixon
- · Leonid Brezhnev · SALT
- John F. Kennedy Ronald Reagan
- Lyndon Johnson

SETTING THE STAGE In the postwar years, the Soviet Union kept a firm grip on its satellite countries in Eastern Europe. These countries were Poland, Czechoslovakia, Hungary, Romania, Bulgaria, Albania, and East Germany. (Yugoslavia had broken away from Soviet control in 1948, although it remained Communist.) The Soviet Union did not allow them to direct and develop their own economies. Instead, it insisted that they develop industries to meet Soviet needs. These policies greatly hampered Eastern Europe's economic recovery.

Soviet Policy in Eastern Europe and China

More moderate Soviet leaders came to power after Stalin's death. They allowed satellite countries somewhat more independence, as long as they remained allied with the Soviet Union. During the 1950s and 1960s, however, growing protest movements in Eastern Europe threatened the Soviet grip on the region. Increasing tensions with China also diverted Soviet attention and forces.

Destalinization and Rumblings of Protest After Stalin died in 1953, **Nikita Khrushchev** became the dominant Soviet leader. In 1956, the shrewd, tough Khrushchev denounced Stalin for jailing and killing loyal Soviet citizens. His speech signaled the start of a policy called destalinization, or purging the country of Stalin's memory. Workers destroyed monuments of the former dictator. Khrushchev called for "peaceful competition" with capitalist states.

But this new Soviet outlook did not change life in satellite countries. Their resentment at times turned to active protest. In October 1956, for example, the Hungarian army joined protesters to overthrow Hungary's Soviet-controlled government. Storming through the capital, Budapest, mobs waved Hungarian flags with the Communist hammer-and-sickle emblem cut out. "From the youngest child to the oldest man," one protester declared, "no one wants communism."

A popular and liberal Hungarian Communist leader named Imre Nagy (IHM•ray-nahj) formed a new government. Nagy promised free elections and demanded Soviet troops leave. In response, Soviet tanks and infantry entered Budapest in November. Thousands of Hungarian freedom fighters armed themselves with pistols and bottles, but were overwhelmed. A pro-Soviet government was installed, and Nagy was eventually executed.



Use the graphic organizer online to take notes on details about the Cold War thaw.

History Makers



Imre Nagy (1896-1958)

Imre Nagy was born into a peasant family in Hungary. During World War I, he was captured by the Soviets and recruited into their army. He then became a Communist.

Nagy held several posts in his country's Communist government, but his loyalty remained with the peasants. Because of his independent approach, he fell in and out of favor with the Soviet Union. In October 1956, he led an anti-Soviet revolt. After the Soviets forcefully put down the uprising, they tried and executed him.

In 1989, after Communists lost control of Hungary's government, Nagy was reburied with official honors.



▲ Czech demonstrators fight Soviet tanks in 1968.



Alexander Dubček (1921–1992)

Alexander Dubček was the son of a Czech Communist Party member. He moved rapidly up through its ranks, becoming party leader in 1968.

Responding to the spirit of change in the 1960s, Dubček instituted broad reforms during the so-called Prague Spring of 1968. The Soviet Union reacted by sending tanks into Prague to suppress a feared revolt. The Soviets expelled Dubček from the party. He regained political prominence in 1989, when the Communists agreed to share power in a coalition government. When Czechoslovakia split into two nations in 1992, Dubček became head of the Social Democratic Party in Slovakia.

MAIN IDEA **Analyzing Issues** Why was Nikita Khruschev removed

from power in

1964?

The Revolt in Czechoslovakia Despite the show of force in Hungary, Khrushchev lost prestige in his country as a result of the Cuban Missile Crisis in 1962. In 1964, party leaders voted to remove him from power. His replacement, **Leonid Brezhney**, quickly adopted repressive domestic policies. The party enforced laws to limit such basic human rights as freedom of speech and worship. Government censors controlled what writers could publish. Brezhnev clamped down on those who dared to protest his policies. For example, the secret police arrested many dissidents, including Aleksandr Solzhenitsyn, winner of the 1970 Nobel Prize for literature. They then expelled him from the Soviet Union. A

Brezhnev made clear that he would not tolerate dissent in Eastern Europe either. His policy was put to the test in early 1968. At that time, Czech Communist leader Alexander Dubček (DOOB•chehk) loosened controls on censorship to offer his country socialism with "a human face." This period of reform, when Czechoslovakia's capital bloomed with new ideas, became known as Prague Spring. However, it did not survive the summer. On August 20, armed forces from the Warsaw Pact nations invaded Czechoslovakia. Brezhnev justified this invasion by claiming the Soviet Union had the right to prevent its satellites from rejecting communism, a policy known as the Brezhnev Doctrine.

The Soviet-Chinese Split While many satellite countries resisted Communist rule, China was committed to communism. In fact, to cement the ties between Communist powers, Mao and Stalin had signed a 30-year treaty of friendship in 1950. Their spirit of cooperation, however, ran out before the treaty did.

The Soviets assumed the Chinese would follow Soviet leadership in world affairs. As the Chinese grew more confident, however, they resented being in Moscow's shadow. They began to spread their own brand of communism in Africa and other parts of Asia. In 1959, Khrushchev punished the Chinese by refusing to share nuclear secrets. The following year, the Soviets ended technical economic aid. The Soviet-Chinese split grew so wide that fighting broke out along their common border. After repeated incidents, the two neighbors maintained a fragile peace.

From Brinkmanship to Détente

In the 1970s, the United States and the Soviet Union finally backed away from the aggressive policies of brinkmanship that they had followed during the early postwar years. The superpowers slowly moved to lower tensions.

Brinkmanship Breaks Down The brinkmanship policy followed during the presidencies of Eisenhower, Kennedy, and Johnson led to one terrifying crisis after another. Though these crises erupted all over the world, they were united by a common fear. Nuclear war seemed possible.

In 1960, the U-2 incident prevented a meeting between the United States and the Soviet Union to discuss the buildup of arms on both sides. Then, during the administration of **John F. Kennedy** in the early 1960s, the Cuban Missile Crisis made the superpowers' use of nuclear weapons a real possibility. (See page 985.) The crisis ended when Soviet ships turned back to avoid a confrontation at sea. "We're eyeball to eyeball," the relieved U.S. Secretary of State Dean Rusk said, "and I think the other fellow just blinked." But Kennedy's secretary of defense, Robert McNamara, admitted how close the world had come to disaster:

PRIMARY SOURCE (B)

In the face of an air attack [on Cuba] and in the face of the probability of a ground attack, it was certainly possible, and I would say probable, that a Cuban sergeant or Soviet officer in a missile silo, without authority from Moscow, would have launched one or more of those intermediate-range missiles, equipped with a nuclear warhead, against one or more of the cities on the East Coast of the United States.

ROBERT MCNAMARA, quoted in Inside the Cold War

Tensions remained high. After the assassination of Kennedy in 1963, **Lyndon Johnson** assumed the presidency. Committed to stopping the spread of communism, President Johnson escalated U.S. involvement in the war in Vietnam.

The United States Turns to Détente Widespread popular protests wracked the United States during the Vietnam War. And the turmoil did not end with U.S. withdrawal. As it tried to heal its internal wounds, the United States backed away

from its policy of direct confrontation with the Soviet Union. **Détente**, a policy of lessening Cold War tensions, replaced brinkmanship under **Richard M. Nixon**.

President Nixon's move toward détente grew out of a philosophy known as realpolitik. This term comes from the German word meaning "realistic politics." In practice, realpolitik meant dealing with other nations in a practical and flexible manner. While the United States continued to try to contain the spread of communism, the two superpowers agreed to pursue détente and to reduce tensions.

Nixon Visits Communist Powers Nixon's new policy represented a personal reversal as well as a political shift for the country. His rise in politics in the 1950s was largely due to his strong anti-Communist position. Twenty years later, he became the first U.S. president to visit Communist China. The visit made sense in a world in which three, not just two,

▼ U.S. president Nixon visits China in 1972, accompanied by Chinese premier Zhou Enlai (left).



MAIN IDEA

Analyzing Primary Sources

B) Do you think that Robert McNamara's view of the Soviet threat in Cuba was justified? Explain.

Vocabulary

Détente is a French word meaning "a loosening."

superpowers eyed each other suspiciously. "We want the Chinese with us when we sit down and negotiate with the Russians," Nixon explained.

Three months after visiting Beijing in February 1972, Nixon visited the Soviet Union. After a series of meetings called the Strategic Arms Limitation Talks (SALT), Nixon and Brezhnev signed the SALT I Treaty. This five-year agreement, limited to 1972 levels the number of intercontinental ballistic and submarine-launched missiles each country could have. In 1975, 33 nations joined the United States and the Soviet Union in signing a commitment to détente and cooperation, the Helsinki Accords.

▲ Ronald Reagan's 1980 political button highlights the strong patriotic theme of his campaign.

The Collapse of Détente

Under presidents Nixon and Gerald Ford, the United States improved relations with China and the Soviet Union. In the late 1970s, however, President Jimmy Carter was concerned over harsh treatment of protesters in the Soviet Union. This threatened to prevent a second round of SALT negotiations. In 1979, Carter and Brezhnev finally signed the SALT II agreement. When the Soviets invaded Afghanistan later that year, however, the U.S. Congress refused to ratify SALT II. Concerns mounted as more nations, including China and India, began building nuclear arsenals.

Reagan Takes an Anti-Communist Stance A fiercely anti-Communist U.S. president, **Ronald Reagan**, took office in 1981. He continued to move away from détente. He increased defense spending, putting both economic and military pressure on the Soviets. In 1983, Reagan also announced the Strategic Defense Initiative (SDI), a program to protect against enemy missiles. It was not put into effect but remained a symbol of U.S. anti-Communist sentiment.

Tensions increased as U.S. activities such as arming Nicaragua's Contras pushed the United States and Soviet Union further from détente. However, a change in Soviet leadership in 1985 brought a new policy toward the United States and the beginnings of a final thaw in the Cold War. Meanwhile, as you will learn in the next chapter, developing countries continued their own struggles for independence.

MAIN IDEA

Contrasting

In what ways did Nixon's and Reagan's policies toward the Soviet Union differ?

SECTION

ASSESSMENT

TERMS & NAMES 1. For each term or name, write a sentence explaining its significance.

• Nikita Khrushchev • Leonid Brezhnev • John F. Kennedy • Lyndon Johnson • détente • Richard M. Nixon • SALT • Ronald Reagan

USING YOUR NOTES

2. What do you consider the most significant reason for the collapse of détente?

> 1. Soviet Policy in Eastern Europe and China A. B. 11. From Brinkmanship to Détente

MAIN IDEAS

- 3. What effects did destalinization have on Soviet satellite countries?
- 4. What changes did Alexander Dubček seek to make in Czechoslovakia in 1968, and what happened?
- 5. Why was the policy of brinkmanship replaced?

CRITICAL THINKING & WRITING

- 6. DEVELOPING HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE In view of Soviet policies toward Eastern Europe in the postwar era, what reasons did people in Eastern Europe have for resistance?
- 7. EVALUATING DECISIONS Do you think it was a wise political move for Nixon to visit Communist China and the Soviet Union? Why or why not?
- 8. RECOGNIZING EFFECTS What was the result of Reagan's move away from détente?
- 9. WRITING ACTIVITY REVOLUTION Write a short poem or song lyrics expressing protest against Communist rule by a citizen of a country behind the Iron Curtain.

CONNECT TO TODAY WRITING A SUMMARY

Look through a major newspaper or newsmagazine for articles on Eastern European countries. Then, write a brief summary of recent developments there.

Chapter 33 Assessment

TERMS & NAMES

For each term or name below, briefly explain its connection to the restructuring of the postwar world since 1945.

- 1. containment
- 6. Vietnamization
- 2. Cold War
- 7. Fidel Castro
- 3. Mao Zedong
- 8. Nikita Khrushchev
- 4. Cultural Revolution
- 9. détente
- 5. 38th parallel
- **10.** SALT

MAIN IDEAS

Cold War: Superpowers Face Off

Section 1 (pages 965-971)

- 11. Why did some Americans oppose the Truman Doctrine?
- **12.** How did the Soviet Union respond to the U.S. policy of brinkmanship?

Communists Take Power in China

Section 2 (pages 972–975)

- **13.** Who did the superpowers support in the Chinese civil war?
- **14.** What were the results of Mao Zedong's Great Leap Forward and Cultural Revolution?

Wars in Korea and Vietnam Section 3 (pages 976–981)

- **15.** What effects did the Korean War have on Korea's land and its people?
- 16. What difficulties did the U.S. Army face fighting the war in Vietnam?

The Cold War Divides the World

Section 4 (pages 982-987)

- **17.** Why did developing nations often align themselves with one or the other superpower?
- 18. How did the Soviet Union respond to the Bay of Pigs?

The Cold War Thaws Section 5 (pages 988–991)

- **19.** In what ways did Soviet actions hamper Eastern Europe's economic recovery after World War II?
- 20. What policies characterized realpolitik?

CRITICAL THINKING

1. USING YOUR NOTES

Use a diagram to show superpower Cold War tactics.



2. COMPARING

EMPIRE BUILDING In what ways were the United States and the Soviet Union more similar than different?

3. HYPOTHESIZING

ECONOMICS How might the Cold War have proceeded if the United States had been economically and physically damaged in World War II?

4. DRAWING CONCLUSIONS

REVOLUTION Which two Cold War events do you think had the greatest impact on the U.S. decision to pursue détente?

5. MAKING INFERENCES

Why do you think the United States and the Soviet Union chose cooperation in space after years of competition?

VISUAL SUMMARY Cold War, 1946-1980 **United States** 1946 Institutes containment policy 1948 Begins Marshall Plan 1952 Tests first H-bomb 1953 Adopts brinkmanship policy 1965 Sends troops to Vietnam 1945 1950 1960 1965 1975 1980 1970 1950 Communist North 1962 U.S. blockades Cuba 1948 U.S. and 1980 U.S. boycotts Korea attacks South Korea in response to buildup of Britain fly airlift Moscow Olympics Soviet missiles to break Soviet to protest Soviet 1960 U-2 incident blockade of invasion of reignites superpower 1972 Nixon and Brezhnev Berlin Afghanistan sign SALT I treaty tension 1945 1950 1955 1960 1965 1970 1975 1980 1950 Signs friendship 1957 Launches Sputnik, 1968 Sends tanks 1979 Invades treaty with China starting space race into Prague Afghanistan 1953 Tests first H-bomb 1956 Puts down Hungarian revolt **Soviet Union**

STANDARDS-BASED ASSESSMENT

Use the quotation and your knowledge of world history to answer questions 1 and 2.

The following poem by Ho Chi Minh was broadcast over Hanoi Radio on January 1, 1968.

PRIMARY SOURCE

This Spring far outshines the previous Springs, Of victories throughout the land come happy tidings. South and North, rushing heroically together, shall smite the American invaders!

Go Forward!

Total victory shall be ours.

HO CHI MINH, quoted in America and Vietnam

- 1. In Ho's opinion, who was the enemy in the Vietnam War?
 - A. the South Vietnamese
 - **B.** the changing seasons
 - **C.** the United States
 - **D.** the French
- **2.** What purpose might the North Vietnamese have had in broadcasting this poem?
 - **A.** to show that their political leader was also a poet
 - B. to warn the United States that it would be defeated
 - **C.** to single out the North Vietnamese people for special attention
 - **D.** to be used as propaganda to show that North and South were fighting together

Use the chart and your knowledge of world history to answer question 3.

U.S.–Soviet Military Power, 1986–1987				
U.S.		Soviet		
1,010	Intercontinental ballistic missiles	1,398		
640	Submarine-launched missiles	983		
260	Long-range bombers	160		
24,700	Nuclear warheads	36,800		
0	Antiballistic missile launchers	100		
14	Aircraft carriers	5		
2,143,955	Armed forces personnel	5,130,000		

Sources: The Military Balance 1986–1987; Nuclear Weapons Databook, Vol. IV, Soviet Nuclear Weapons

- 3. The chart clearly shows that
 - **A.** the United States had more troops than the Soviet Union.
 - **B.** the Soviet Union had clear superiority in the number of ballistic missiles.
 - **C.** the United States and the Soviet Union were equal in nuclear warheads.
 - **D.** the Soviet Union had more aircraft carriers.

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For additional test practice, go online for:

- Diagnostic tests
- Tutorials
- Strategies

Interact with History

On page 964, you considered what policies a nation might follow to gain allies. Now that you have learned more about the Cold War, would your decision change? Discuss your ideas with a small group.

FOCUS ON WRITING

Study the information in the infographic on how the Cold War was fought on page 983. Write a two-page **persuasive essay** on which means was the most successful for the United States and which was most successful for the Soviet Union. Consider the following:

- · who received foreign aid
- whether propaganda was successful
- · how strong the military alliances were
- · what was gained in surrogate wars

MULTIMEDIA ACTIVITY



Creating an Interactive Time Line

In October 1962, President John F. Kennedy and his advisers had to defuse a potentially devastating nuclear standoff with the Soviet Union. Using books, the Internet, and other resources, create an interactive time line of the crisis. Use graphics software to add maps and photographs. In addition to noting key dates, use the time line to address some of the following:

- Who were members of Kennedy's inner circle during the crisis?
- What did Kennedy say about the events in his first public address to the nation?
- How did Soviet premier Nikita Krushchev approach the crisis in Cuba?
- What details did Americans learn only after the crisis had been resolved?



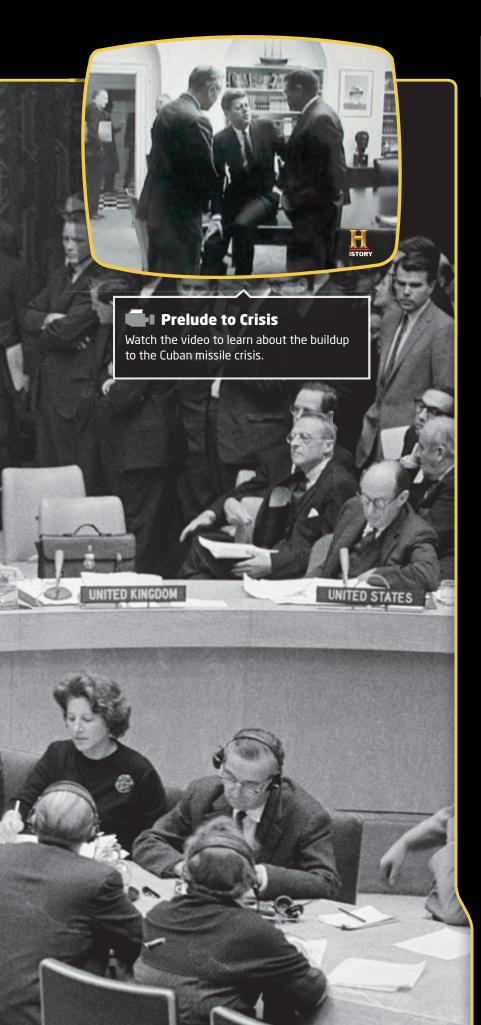
MULTIMEDIA CONNECTIONS

CTOBER FURY: THE CUBAN MISSILE CRISIS



The Cuban missile crisis was perhaps the most dangerous event of the Cold War period. For several days in October 1962, the United States and the Soviet Union stood on the brink of nuclear war. The crisis began when the Soviet Union sent weapons, including nuclear missiles, to Cuba. It deepened when the United States blockaded Cuba to prevent the Soviets from delivering more

missiles. With Soviet ships sailing toward the blockade, a confrontation seemed inevitable. However, at the last moment, the Soviet ships turned back and war was averted.







Getting Ready for War

Watch the video to see how the missiles in Cuba created tension between the United States and the Soviet Union.



Crisis Averted?

Watch the video to see how the Cuban missile crisis brought the United States and the Soviet Union to the brink of nuclear war.



Lessons Learned

Watch the video to learn about the impact of the Cuban missile crisis.

CHAPTER 34

The Colonies Become New Nations, 1945-Present

Essential Question

What independence movements and political conflicts took place in Africa and Asia as colonialism gave way after World War II?



What You Will Learn

In this chapter you will follow the varying paths that colonial lands took on their journeys to independence following World War II.

SECTION 1 The Indian Subcontinent Achieves Freedom

Main Idea New nations emerged from the British colony of India.

SECTION 2 Southeast Asian Nations Gain Independence

Main Idea Former colonies in Southeast Asia worked to build new governments and economies.

SECTION 3 New Nations in Africa

Main Idea After World War II, African leaders threw off colonial rule and created independent countries.

SECTION 4 Conflicts in the Middle East

Main Idea Division of Palestine after World War II made the Middle East a hotbed of competing nationalist movements.

SECTION 5 Central Asia Struggles

Main Idea Lands controlled or influenced by the Soviet Union struggle with the challenges of establishing new nations.

Previewing Themes

REVOLUTION Independence movements swept Africa and Asia as World War II ended. Through both nonviolent and violent means, revolutionaries overthrew existing political systems to create their own nations.

Geography Which continent witnessed the greatest number of its countries gain independence?

POWER AND AUTHORITY Systems of government shifted for one billion people when colonies in Africa and Asia gained their freedom. New nations struggled to unify their diverse populations. In many cases, authoritarian rule and military dictatorships emerged.

Geography According to the time line, which southeast Asian country dealt with dictatorship in the years following independence?

ECONOMICS The emergence of new nations from European- and U.S.-ruled colonies brought a change in ownership of vital resources. In many cases, however, new nations struggled to create thriving economies.

Geography Which colonial power had enjoyed the resources from the greatest number of regions of the world?

COLONIES

1945

15

Sukarno proclaims Indonesian independence.

1947

India gains independence from Britain.

1957

Ghana wins independence. (first prime minister Kwame Nkrumah)



COLONIES

WORLD

1948

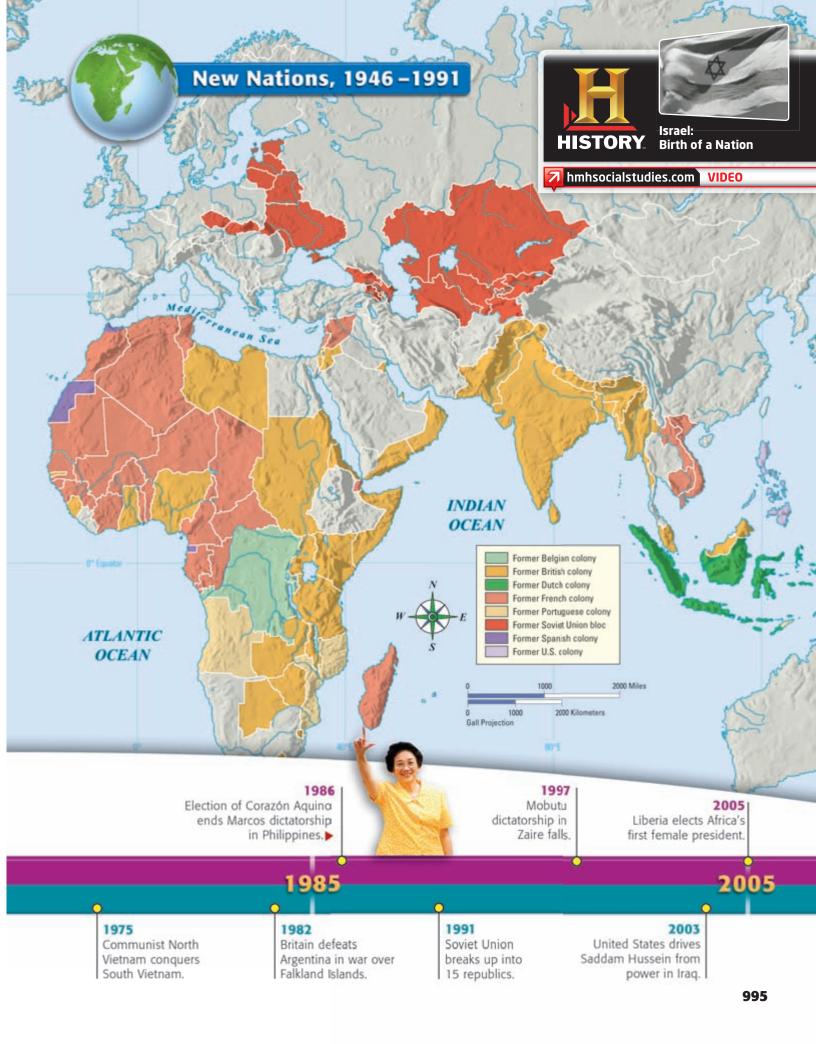
South Africa establishes apartheid system.

("whites only" sign)

BLANKE INGANG EUROPEAN ENTRANCE

1966

Mao Zedong launches Cultural Revolution in China.

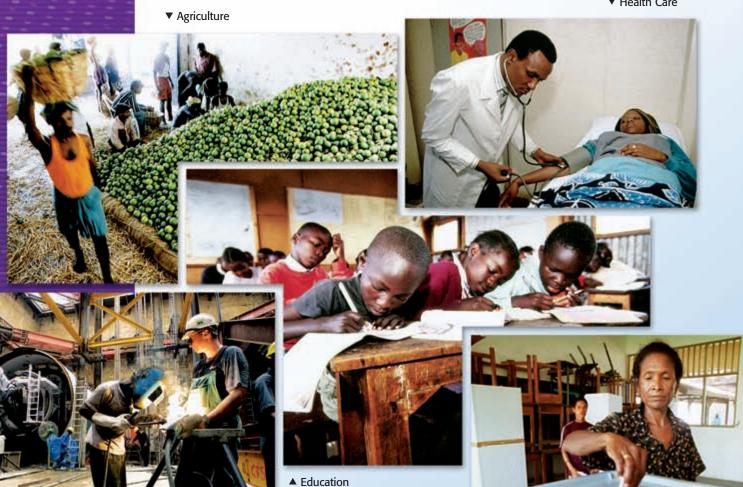




How would you build a new nation?

As a political leader of a former colony, you watch with pride as your country becomes independent. However, you know that difficult days lay ahead. You want peace and prosperity for your nation. To accomplish this, however, you need to create a sound government and a strong economy. In addition, food and adequate health care are scarce and many people receive little education. These and other challenges await your immediate attention.

▼ Health Care



▲ Employment

▲ Voting Rights

EXAMINING the ISSUES

- What are the first steps you would take? Why?
- What might be the most difficult challenge to overcome?

As a class, discuss these questions. Remember what you have learned about what makes a stable and unified nation. As you read about the emergence of new nations around the world, note what setbacks and achievements they make in their effort to build a promising future.



The Indian Subcontinent **Achieves Freedom**

MAIN IDEA

WHY IT MATTERS NOW

TERMS & NAMES

POWER AND AUTHORITY New nations emerged from the British colony of India.

India today is the largest democracy in the world.

- · Congress Party
- Muslim League
- Muhammad Ali Jinnah
- partition
- Jawaharlal Nehru
- Indira Gandhi
- Benazir **Bhutto**

SETTING THE STAGE After World War II, dramatic political changes began to take place across the world. This was especially the case with regard to the policy of colonialism. Countries that held colonies began to question the practice. After the world struggle against dictatorship, many leaders argued that no country should control another nation. Others questioned the high cost and commitment of holding colonies. Meanwhile, the people of colonized regions continued to press even harder for their freedom. All of this led to independence for one of the largest and most populous colonies in the world: British-held India.

A Movement Toward Independence

The British had ruled India for almost two centuries. Indian resistance to Britain, which had existed from the beginning, intensified in 1939, when Britain committed India's armed forces to World War II without first consulting the colony's elected representatives. The move left Indian nationalists stunned and humiliated. Indian leader Mohandas Gandhi launched a nonviolent campaign of noncooperation with the British. Officials imprisoned numerous nationalists for this action. In 1942, the British tried to gain the support of the nationalists by promising governmental changes after the war. But the offer did not include Indian independence.

As they intensified their struggle against the British, Indians also struggled with each other. India has long been home to two main religious groups. In the 1940s, India had approximately 350 million Hindus and about 100 million Muslims. The Indian National Congress, or the **Congress Party**, was India's national political party. Most members of the Congress Party were Hindus, but the party at times had many Muslim members.

In competition with the Congress Party was the Muslim League, an organization founded in 1906 in India to protect Muslim interests. Members of the league felt that the mainly Hindu Congress Party looked out primarily for Hindu interests. The leader of the Muslim League, Muhammad Ali Jinnah (mu•HAM•ihd-ah•LEE-JINH•uh), insisted that all Muslims resign from the Congress Party. The Muslim League stated that it would never accept Indian independence if it meant rule by the Hindu-dominated Congress Party. Jinnah stated, "The only thing the Muslim has in common with the Hindu is his slavery to the British."



Use the graphic organizer online to take notes on prominent Indian prime ministers from independence through the current day.

Freedom Brings Turmoil

When World War II ended, Britain found itself faced with enormous war debts. As a result, British leaders began to rethink the expense of maintaining and governing distant colonies. With India continuing to push for independence, the stage was set for the British to hand over power. However, a key problem emerged: Who should receive the power—Hindus or Muslims?

Partition and Bloodshed Muslims resisted attempts to include them in an Indian government dominated by Hindus. Rioting between the two groups broke out in several Indian cities. In August 1946, four days of clashes in Calcutta left more than 5,000 people dead and more than 15,000 hurt.

British officials soon became convinced that partition, an idea first proposed by India's Muslims, would be the only way to ensure a safe and secure region. **Partition** was the term given to the division of India into separate Hindu and Muslim nations. The northwest and eastern regions of India, where most Muslims lived, would become the new nation of Pakistan. (Pakistan, as the map shows, comprised two separate states in 1947: West Pakistan and East Pakistan.)

The British House of Commons passed an act on July 16, 1947, that granted two nations, India and Pakistan, independence in one month's time. In that short period, more than 500 independent native princes had to decide which nation they would join. The administration of the courts, the military, the railways, and the police—the whole of the civil service—had to be divided down to the last paper clip. Most difficult of all, millions of Indian citizens—Hindus, Muslims, and yet another significant religious group, the Sikhs—had to decide where to go.



During the summer of 1947, 10 million people were on the move in the Indian subcontinent. As people scrambled to relocate, violence among the different religious groups erupted. Muslims killed Sikhs who were moving into India. Hindus and Sikhs killed Muslims who were headed into Pakistan. The following passage is representative of the experiences of people in both the Hindu and Muslim communities:

PRIMARY SOURCE

All passengers were forced into compartments like sheep and goats. Because of which the heat and suffocating atmosphere was intensified and it was very hard to breathe. In the ladies compartment women and children were in a terrible condition. Women tried in vain to calm down and comfort their children. If you looked out the window you could see dead bodies lying in the distance. At many places you could see corpses piled on top of each other and no one seemed to have any concern. . . . These were the scenes that made your heart bleed and everybody loudly repented their sins and recited verses asking God's forgiveness. Every moment seemed to be the most terrifying and agonizing.

ZAHIDA AMJAD ALI, quoted in Freedom, Trauma, Continuities

In all, an estimated 1 million died. "What is there to celebrate?" Gandhi mourned. "I see nothing but rivers of blood." Gandhi personally went to the Indian capital of Delhi to plead for fair treatment of Muslim refugees. While there, he himself became a victim of the nation's violence. A Hindu extremist who thought Gandhi too protective of Muslims shot and killed him on January 30, 1948.

The Battle for Kashmir As if partition itself didn't result in enough bloodshed between India's Muslims and Hindus, the two groups quickly squared off over the small region of Kashmir. Kashmir lay at the northern point of India next to Pakistan. Although its ruler was Hindu, Kashmir had a majority Muslim population. Shortly after independence,

India and Pakistan began battling each other for control of the region. The fighting continued until the United Nations arranged a cease-fire in 1949. The cease-fire left a third of Kashmir under Pakistani control and the rest under Indian control. The two countries continue to fight over the region today. **(A)**

With the granting of its independence on August 15, 1947, India became the world's largest democracy. As the long-awaited hour of India's freedom approached, Jawaharlal Nehru, the independent nation's first prime minister, addressed the country's political leaders:

PRIMARY SOURCE

Modern India

Long years ago, we made a tryst [appointment] with destiny, and now the time comes when we shall redeem our pledge, not wholly or in full measure, but very substantially. At the stroke of the midnight hour, when the world sleeps, India will wake to life and freedom.

JAWAHARLAL NEHRU, speech before the Constituent Assembly, August 14, 1947



Connect to Today

The Coldest War

No part of Kashmir is beyond a fight for India and Pakistan-including the giant Siachen glacier high above the region. The dividing line established by the 1949 cease-fire did not extend to the glacier because officials figured neither side would try to occupy such a barren and frigid strip of land.

They figured wrong. In 1984, both sides sent troops to take the glacier, and they have been dug in ever since. At altitudes nearing 21,000 feet, Indian and Pakistani soldiers shoot at each other from trenches in temperatures that reach 70 degrees below zero. This bitterly cold war was interrupted in 2003 when Pakistan and India declared a ceasefire.

MAIN IDEA

Analyzing Causes-

MWhat was the cause of the conflict between India and Pakistan over Kashmir?

History Makers The state of th

Jawaharlal Nehru 1889-1964

Nehru's father was an influential attorney, and so the first prime minister of India grew up amid great wealth. As a young man, he lived and studied in England. "In my likes and dislikes I was perhaps more an Englishman than an Indian," he once remarked.

Upon returning to India, however, he became moved by the horrible state in which many of his fellow Indians lived. "A new picture of India seemed to rise before me," he recalled, "naked, starving, crushed, and utterly miserable." From then on, he devoted his life to improving conditions in his country.

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RESEARCH WEB LINKS Go online for more on Jawaharlal Nehru.

Nehru Leads India Nehru served as India's leader for its first 17 years of independence. He had been one of Gandhi's most devoted followers. Educated in Britain, Nehru won popularity among all groups in India. He emphasized democracy, unity, and economic modernization.

Nehru used his leadership to move India forward. He led other newly independent nations of the world in forming an alliance of countries that were neutral in the Cold War conflicts between the United States and the Soviet Union. On the home front, Nehru called for a reorganization of the states by language. He also pushed for industrialization and sponsored social reforms. He tried to elevate the status of the lower castes, or those at the bottom of society, and help women gain the rights promised by the constitution.

Troubled Times Nehru died in 1964. His death left the Congress Party with no leader strong enough to hold together the many political factions that had emerged with India's independence. Then, in 1966, Nehru's daughter, **Indira Gandhi**, was chosen prime minister. After a short spell out of office, she was reelected in 1980.

Although she ruled capably, Gandhi faced many challenges, including the growing threat from Sikh extremists who themselves wanted an independent state. The Golden Temple at Amritsar stood as the religious center for the Sikhs. From there, Sikh nationalists ventured out to attack symbols of Indian authority. In June 1984, Indian army troops overran the Golden Temple. They killed about 500 Sikhs and destroyed sacred property. In retaliation, Sikh bodyguards assigned to Indira Gandhi gunned her down. This violent act set off another murderous frenzy, causing the deaths of thousands of Sikhs.

In the wake of the murder of Indira Gandhi, her son, Rajiv (rah•JEEV) Gandhi, took over as prime minister. His party, however, lost its power in 1989 because of accusations of widespread corruption. In 1991, while campaigning again for prime minister near the town of Madras, Rajiv was killed by a bomb. Members of a group opposed to his policies claimed responsibility.

Twenty-First Century Challenges India's prime minister, Manmohan Singh, is a Sikh—the first non-Hindu to hold the job. He and his nation face a number of problems. Simmering religious tensions still occasionally boil over in episodes of violence and reprisal. Also, India's population continues to increase and is expected to surpass that of China by 2035. More acutely, Maoist rebels in the nation's eastern states continue to pose a serious military threat to the government's authority.

Even more troubling are India's tense relations with its neighbor Pakistan, and the fact that both have become nuclear powers. In 1974, India exploded a "peaceful" nuclear device. For the next 24 years, the nation quietly worked on building up its nuclear capability. In 1998, Indian officials conducted five underground nuclear tests. Meanwhile, the Pakistanis had been building their own nuclear program. Shortly after India conducted its nuclear tests, Pakistan demonstrated that it, too, had nuclear weapons. The presence of these weapons in the hands of such bitter

enemies and neighbors has become a matter of great international concern, especially in light of their continuing struggle over Kashmir:

PRIMARY SOURCE

Now that India and Pakistan have tested nuclear weapons . . . [There is] fear that a remote but savage ethnic and religious conflict could deteriorate into a nuclear exchange with global consequences. India and Pakistan must learn to talk to each other and move toward a more trusting relationship.

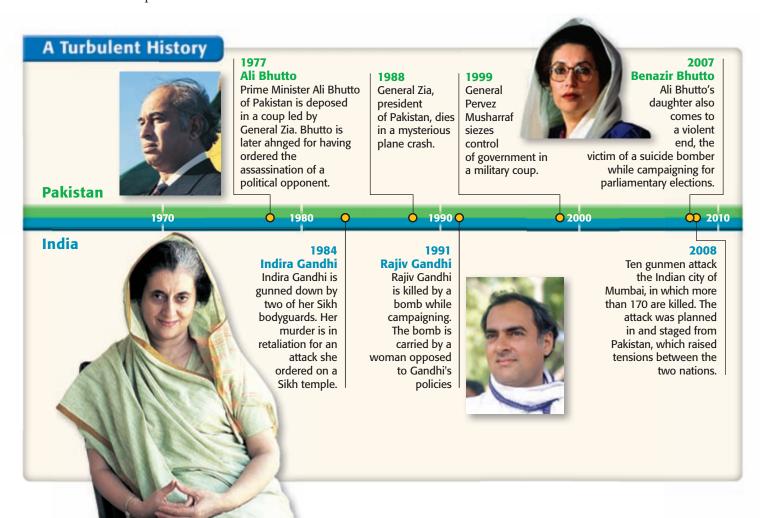
The New York Times, June 28, 1998

In 2002, the two nations came close to war over Kashmir. However, in 2003 a peace process began to ease tension.

Pakistan Copes with Freedom

The history of Pakistan since independence has been no less turbulent than that of India. Pakistan actually began as two separate and divided states, East Pakistan and West Pakistan. East Pakistan lay to the east of India, West Pakistan to the northwest. These regions were separated by more than 1,000 miles of Indian territory. In culture, language, history, geography, economics, and ethnic background, the two regions were very different. Only the Islamic religion united them.

Civil War From the beginning, the two regions of Pakistan experienced strained relations. While East Pakistan had the larger population, it was often ignored by West Pakistan, home to the central government. In 1970, a giant cyclone and tidal wave struck East Pakistan and killed an estimated 266,000 residents. While international aid poured into Pakistan, the government in West Pakistan did not quickly transfer that aid to East Pakistan. Demonstrations broke out in East Pakistan, and protesters called for an end to all ties with West Pakistan.



On March 26, 1971, East Pakistan declared itself an independent nation called Bangladesh. A civil war followed between Bangladesh and Pakistan. Eventually, Indian forces stepped in and sided with Bangladesh. Pakistan forces surrendered. More than 1 million people died in the war. Pakistan lost about one-seventh of its area and about one-half of its population to Bangladesh. **B**

A Pattern of Instability Muhammad Ali Jinnah, the first governor-general of Pakistan, died shortly after independence. Beginning in 1958, Pakistan went through a series of military coups. Ali Bhutto took control of the country following the civil war. A military coup in 1977 led by General Zia removed Bhutto, who was later executed for crimes allegedly committed while in office.

After Zia's death, Bhutto's daughter, **Benazir Bhutto**, was twice elected prime minister. However, she was removed from office in 1996. Nawaz Sharif became prime minister after the 1997 elections. In 1999, army leaders led by General Pervez Musharraf ousted Sharif in yet another coup and imposed military rule over Pakistan. By 2007, however, he faced growing political opposition at home. Meanwhile, Benazir Bhutto had returned from exile abroad, only to be assassinated in December 2007. By August 2008, Musharraf had resigned, with Bhutto's widower, Asif Ali Zadari, winning the presidency the following month.

Bangladesh and Sri Lanka Struggle

Meanwhile, the newly created nations of Bangladesh and Sri Lanka struggled with enormous problems of their own in the decades following independence.

Bangladesh Faces Many Problems The war with Pakistan had ruined the economy of Bangladesh and fractured its communications system. Rebuilding the shattered country seemed like an overwhelming task. Sheik Mujibur Rahman became the nation's first prime minister. He soon took over all authority and declared Bangladesh a one-party state. In August 1975, military leaders assassinated him.

Over the years Bangladesh has attempted with great difficulty to create a more democratic form of government. Charges of election fraud and government corruption are common. In recent years, however, the government has become more stable. The latest elections were held in December 2008, and Hasina Wazed took over as the nation's prime minister.

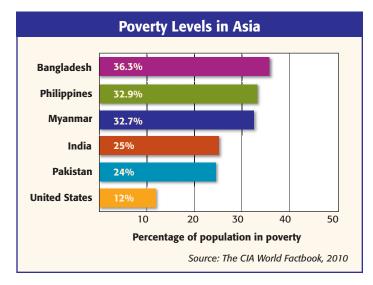
Bangladesh also has had to cope with crippling natural disasters. Bangladesh is a low-lying nation that is subject to many cyclones and tidal waves. Massive storms

MAIN IDEA

Comparing

B How does the history of Pakistan in 1971 parallel the history of India in 1947?

▼ Overcrowded and poor villages are a common sight throughout Bangladesh.





regularly flood the land, ruin crops and homes, and take lives. A cyclone in 1991 killed approximately 139,000 people. Such catastrophes, along with a rapidly growing population, have put much stress on the country's economy. Bangladesh is one of the poorest nations in the world. The per capita income there is about \$360 per year.

Civil Strife Grips Sri Lanka Another newly freed and deeply troubled country on the Indian subcontinent is Sri Lanka, a small, teardrop-shaped island nation just off the southeast coast of India. Formerly known as Ceylon, Sri Lanka gained its independence from Britain in February of 1948. Two main ethnic groups dominate the nation. Three-quarters of the population are Sinhalese, who are Buddhists. A fifth are Tamils, a Hindu people of southern India and northern Sri Lanka.

Sri Lanka's recent history has also been one of turmoil. A militant group of Tamils has long fought an armed struggle for a separate Tamil nation. Since 1981, thousands of lives have been lost. In an effort to end the violence, Rajiv Gandhi and the Sri Lankan president tried to reach an accord in 1987.

The agreement called for Indian troops to enter Sri Lanka and help disarm Tamil rebels. This effort was unsuccessful, and Indian troops left in 1990. But in 2009, a government military offensive decisively defeated Tamil separatist forces.

As difficult as post-independence has been for the countries of the Indian subcontinent, the same can be said for former colonies elsewhere. As you will read in the next section, a number of formerly held territories in Southeast Asia faced challenges as they became independent nations.



▲ This emblem of the separatist group Liberation Tigers of Tamil Eelam represents the struggle for independence of the Tamils.



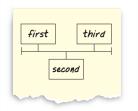
ASSESSMENT

TERMS & NAMES 1. For each term or name, write a sentence explaining its significance.

Congress Party
 Muslim League
 Muhammad Ali Jinnah
 partition
 Jawaharlal Nehru
 Indira Gandhi
 Benazir Bhutto

USING YOUR NOTES

2. What tragic connection did many of the leaders share?



MAIN IDEAS

- 3. Why did British officials partition India into India and Pakistan?
- 4. In what way did Pakistan also undergo a partition?
- 5. What is the main cause today of civil strife in Sri Lanka?

CRITICAL THINKING & WRITING

- 6. SYNTHESIZING Why might India's political and economic success be so crucial to the future of democracy in Asia?
- 7. ANALYZING ISSUES How did religious and cultural differences create problems for newly emerging nations?
- 8. DRAWING CONCLUSIONS Why has the conflict between India and Pakistan over Kashmir become such a concern to the world today?
- 9. WRITING ACTIVITY POWER AND AUTHORITY Write several paragraphs detailing the problems shared by leaders of India and Pakistan.

CONNECT TO TODAY CREATING A GRAPHIC

Research the current percentages of religions in India, Pakistan, Bangladesh, or Sri Lanka. Create a **graphic** of your choosing to illustrate your findings.

Southeast Asian Nations Gain Independence

MAIN IDEA

WHY IT MATTERS NOW

TERMS & NAMES

ECONOMICS Former colonies in Southeast Asia worked to build new governments and economies.

The power and influence of the Pacific Rim nations are likely to expand during the next century.

- Ferdinand Marcos
- Marcos Suu Kyi
 Corazón Sukarno

Aung San

Aquino • Suharto

SETTING THE STAGE World War II had a significant impact on the colonized groups of Southeast Asia. During the war, the Japanese seized much of Southeast Asia from the European nations that had controlled the region for many years. The Japanese conquest helped the people of Southeast Asia see that the Europeans were far from invincible. When the war ended, and the Japanese themselves had been forced out, many Southeast Asians refused to live again under European rule. They called for and won their independence, and a series of new nations emerged.

The Philippines Achieves Independence



Use the graphic organizer online to take notes on the major challenges that Southeast Asian nations faced after independence.

The Philippines became the first of the world's colonies to achieve independence following World War II. The United States granted the Philippines independence in 1946, on the anniversary of its own Declaration of Independence, the Fourth of July.

The United States and the Philippines The Filipinos' immediate goals were to rebuild the economy and to restore the capital of Manila. The city had been badly damaged in World War II. The United States had promised the Philippines \$620 million in war damages. However, the U.S. government insisted that Filipinos approve the Bell Act in order to get the money. This act would establish free trade between the United States and the Philippines for eight years, to be followed by gradually increasing tariffs. Filipinos were worried that American businesses would exploit the resources and environment of the Philippines. In spite of this concern, Filipinos approved the Bell Act and received their money.

The United States also wanted to maintain its military presence in the Philippines. With the onset of the Cold War (see Chapter 33), the United States needed to protect its interests in Asia. Both China and the Soviet Union were rivals of the United States at the time. Both were Pacific powers with bases close to allies of the United States and to resources vital to U.S. interests. Therefore, the United States demanded a 99-year lease on its military and naval bases in the Philippines. The bases, Clark Air Force Base and Subic Bay Naval Base near Manila, proved to be critical to the United States later in the staging of the Korean and Vietnam wars.



MAIN IDEA **Making Inferences**

A) Why might the United States have been interested in maintaining military bases in the Philippines?

These military bases also became the single greatest source of conflict between the United States and the Philippines. Many Filipinos regarded the bases as proof of American imperialism. Later agreements shortened the terms of the lease, and the United States gave up both bases in 1992. A

After World War II, the Philippine government was still almost completely dependent on the United States economically and politically. The Philippine government looked for ways to lessen this dependency. It welcomed Japanese investments. It also broadened its contacts with Southeast Asian neighbors and with nonaligned nations.

From Marcos to Ramos Ferdinand Marcos was elected president of the Philippines in 1965. The country suffered under his rule from 1966 to 1986. Marcos imposed an authoritarian regime and stole millions of dollars from the public treasury. Although the constitution limited Marcos to eight years in office, he got around this restriction by imposing martial law from 1972 to 1981. Two years later, his chief opponent, Benigno Aquino, Jr., was assassinated as he returned from the United States to the Philippines, lured by the promise of coming elections.

In the elections of 1986, Aquino's widow, **Corazón Aquino**, challenged Marcos. Aquino won decisively, but Marcos refused to acknowledge her victory. When he declared himself the official winner, a public outcry resulted. He was forced into exile in Hawaii, where he later died. In 1995, the Philippines succeeded in recovering \$475 million Marcos had stolen from his country and deposited in Swiss banks.

As she took the oath of office, Aquino promised to usher in a more open and democratic form of government.

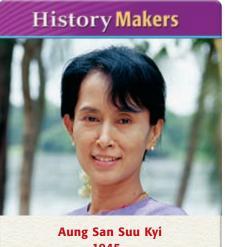
PRIMARY SOURCE

I pledge a government dedicated to upholding truth and justice, morality and decency in government, freedom and democracy. I ask our people not to relax, but to maintain more vigilance in this, our moment of triumph. The Motherland can't thank them enough, yet we all realize that more is required of each of us to achieve a truly just society for our people. This is just the beginning.

CORAZÓN AQUINO, inaugural speech, Feb. 24, 1986

During Aquino's presidency, the Philippine government ratified a new constitution. It also negotiated successfully with the United States to end the lease on the U.S. military bases. In 1992, Fidel V. Ramos succeeded Aquino as president. Ramos was restricted by the constitution to a single six-year term. The single-term limit is intended to prevent the abuse of power that occurred during Marcos's 20-year rule.

The Government Battles Rebels Since gaining its independence, the Philippines has had to battle its own separatist group. For centuries, the southern part of the country has been a stronghold of Muslims known as the Moros. In the early 1970s, a group of Moros formed the Moro National Liberation Front (MNLF). They began an armed struggle for independence from Philippine rule.



1945-

Aung San Suu Kyi won the Nobel Peace Prize in 1991 for her efforts to establish democracy in Myanmar. She could not accept the award in person, however, because she was still under house arrest.

The Nobel Prize committee said that in awarding her the peace prize, it intended:

to show its support for the many people throughout the world who are striving to attain democracy, human rights, and ethnic conciliation by peaceful means. Suu Kyi's struggle is one of the most extraordinary examples of civil courage in Asia in recent decades.

In 1996, the government and rebels agreed to a ceasefire, and the Moros were granted an autonomous region in the southern Philippines. The agreement, however, did not satisfy a splinter group of the MNLF called Abu Sayyaf. These rebels have continued fighting the government, often using terror tactics to try to achieve their goals. In 2000, they kidnapped 21 people including foreign tourists. While the group eventually was freed, subsequent kidnappings and bombings by Abu Sayyaf have killed and injured hundreds of people. The current Philippines president, Gloria Macapagal Arroyo, has launched an all-out military response to this group. The United States has provided military assistance to the government's efforts.

British Colonies Gain Independence

Britain's timetable for granting independence to its Southeast Asian colonies depended on local circumstances. Burma had been pressing for independence from Britain for decades. It became a sovereign republic in 1948. In 1989, Burma was officially named Myanmar (myahn•MAH), its name in the Burmese language.

Burma Experiences Turmoil After gaining freedom, Burma suffered one political upheaval after another. Its people struggled between repressive military governments and pro-democracy forces. Conflict among Communists and ethnic minorities also disrupted the nation. In 1962, General Ne Win set up a military government, with the goal of making Burma a socialist state. Although Ne Win stepped down in 1988, the military continued to rule repressively.

In 1988, Aung San Suu Kyi (owng sahn soo chee) returned to Burma after many years abroad. She is the

Vocabulary

House arrest is confinement to one's quarters, or house, rather than to prison.

daughter of Aung San, a leader of the Burmese nationalists' army killed years before by political rivals. Aung San Suu Kyi became active in the newly formed National League for Democracy. For her pro-democracy activities, she was placed under house arrest for six years by the government. In the 1990 election—the country's first multiparty election in 30 years—the National League for Democracy won 80 percent of the seats. The military government refused to recognize the election, and it kept Aung San Suu Kyi under house arrest. She was finally released in 1995, only to be placed under house arrest again in 2000. Freed in 2002, she was detained again in 2003. In June 2007, Aung San Suu Kyi's house arrest was extended for another year.

Malaysia and Singapore During World War II, the Japanese conquered the Malay Peninsula, formerly ruled by the British. The British returned to the peninsula after the Japanese defeat in 1945. They tried, unsuccessfully, to organize the different peoples of Malaya into one state. They also struggled to put down a Communist uprising. Ethnic groups resisted British efforts to unite their colonies on the peninsula and in the northern part of the island of Borneo. Malays were a slight majority on the peninsula, while Chinese were the largest group on the southern tip, the island of Singapore.

In 1957, officials created the Federation of Malaya from Singapore, Malaya, Sarawak, and Sabah. The two regions—on the Malay Peninsula and on northern Borneo—were separated by 400 miles of ocean. In 1965, Singapore separated from the federation and became an independent city-state. The federation, consisting of Malaya, Sarawak, and Sabah, became known as Malaysia. A coalition of many ethnic groups maintained steady economic progress in Malaysia.

Singapore, which has one of the busiest ports in the world, has become an extremely prosperous nation. Lee Kuan Yew ruled Singapore as prime minister from 1959 to 1990. Under his guidance, Singapore emerged as a banking center as well as a center of trade. It had a standard of living far higher than any of its Southeast Asian neighbors. In 1997, the Geneva World Economic Forum listed the world's strongest economies. Singapore topped the list. It was followed, in order, by Hong Kong, the United States, Canada, New Zealand, Switzerland, and Great Britain. **8**

▼ A glittering skyline rises above the bustling harbor of Singapore.

MAIN IDEA Making Inferences

B What do the top economies listed by the Geneva World Economic Forum have in common?



Indonesia Gains Independence from the Dutch

Like members of other European nations, the Dutch, who ruled the area of Southeast Asia known as Indonesia, saw their colonial empire crumble with the onset of World War II. The Japanese conquered the region and destroyed the Dutch colonial order. When the war ended and the defeated Japanese were forced to leave, the people of Indonesia moved to establish a free nation.

Sukarno Leads the Independence Movement Leading the effort to establish an independent Indonesia was **Sukarno** (soo•KAHR•noh), known only by his one name. In August 1945, two days after the Japanese surrendered, Sukarno proclaimed Indonesia's independence and named himself president. A guerrilla army backed him. The Dutch, supported initially by Britain and the United States, attempted to regain control of Indonesia. But after losing the support of the United Nations and the United States, the Dutch agreed to grant Indonesia its independence in 1949.

The new Indonesia became the world's fourth most populous nation. It consisted of more than 13,600 islands, with 300 different ethnic groups, 250 languages, and most of the world's major religions. It contained the world's largest Islamic population. Sukarno, who took the official title of "life-time president," attempted to guide this diverse nation in a parliamentary democracy.

Instability and Turmoil Sukarno's efforts to build a stable democratic nation were unsuccessful. He was not able to manage Indonesia's economy, and the country slid downhill rapidly. Foreign banks refused to lend money to Indonesia and inflation occasionally soared as high as one thousand percent. In 1965, a group of junior army officers attempted a coup. A general named **Suharto** (suh•HAHR•toh) put down the rebellion. He then seized power for himself and began a bloodbath in which 500,000 to 1 million Indonesians were killed.

Suharto, officially named president in 1967, turned Indonesia into a police state and imposed frequent periods of martial law. Outside observers heavily criticized him for his annexation of nearby East Timor in 1976 and for human rights violations there. (See the map on page 1005.) Suharto's government also showed little tolerance for religious freedoms.

Bribery and corruption became commonplace. The economy improved under Suharto for a while but from 1997 through 1998 the nation suffered one of the worst financial crises in its history. Growing unrest over both government repression and a crippling economic crisis prompted Suharto to step down in 1998. While turmoil continued to grip the country, it moved slowly toward democracy. The daughter of Sukarno, Megawati Sukarnoputri, was elected to the presidency in 2001.

Upon taking office, the new president hailed the virtues of democracy and urged her fellow Indonesians to do what they could to maintain such a form of government:

PRIMARY SOURCE (

Democracy requires sincerity and respect for the rules of the game. Beginning my duty, I urge all groups to sincerely and openly accept the outcome of the democratic process In my opinion, respect for the people's voice, sincerity in accepting it, and respect for the rules of game are the main pillars of democracy which we will further develop. I urge all Indonesians to look forward to the future and unite to improve the life and our dignity as a nation.

MEGAWATI SUKARNOPUTRI, July 23, 2001

Vocabulary

A *coup* is the sudden overthrow of a government by a small group of people.

MAIN IDEA

Analyzing Primary Sources

What are the cornerstones of democracy, according to Sukarnoputri?



Indonesia's current president, Susilo Bambang Yudhoyono, faces enormous challenges, including ethnic strife and government corruption.

East Timor Wins Independence As Indonesia worked to overcome its numerous obstacles, it lost control of East Timor. Indonesian forces had ruled the land with brutal force since Suharto seized it in the 1970s. The East Timorese, however, never stopped pushing to regain their freedom. Jose Ramos Horta, an East Timorese independence campaigner, won the 1996 Nobel Peace Prize (along with East Timor's Roman Catholic bishop) for his efforts to gain independence for the region without violence.

In a United Nations-sponsored referendum held in August 1999, the East Timorese voted for independence. The election angered pro-Indonesian forces. They ignored the referendum results and went on a bloody rampage. They killed hundreds and forced thousands into refugee camps in West Timor, which is a part of Indonesia. UN intervention forces eventually brought peace to the area. In 2002 East Timor celebrated independence. In May 2007, Jose Ramos Horta won the presidency. Today, President Horta faces the challenges of developing the resources of his young nation.

As on the Indian subcontinent, violence and struggle were part of the transition in Southeast Asia from colonies to free nations. The same would be true in Africa, where numerous former colonies shed European rule and created independent countries in the wake of World War II.



▲ An earthquake off the coast of Indonesia on December 26, 2004, triggered a devastating tsunami. The tidal waves and floods killed more than 150,000 people.

SECTION

ASSESSMENT

TERMS & NAMES 1. For each term or name, write a sentence explaining its significance.

- Ferdinand Marcos
- · Corazón Aquino
- Aung San Suu Kyi
- Sukarno
- Suharto

USING YOUR NOTES

2. Which nation faced the greatest challenges? Why?



MAIN IDEAS

- 3. Why did the retention of U.S. military bases in the Philippines so anger Filipinos?
- 4. What was the outcome of the 1990 Myanmar election? How did the government respond?
- 5. How did Suharto come to power in Indonesia?

CRITICAL THINKING & WRITING

- 6. CLARIFYING How did World War II play a role in the eventual decolonization of Southeast Asia?
- 7. MAKING INFERENCES Why do you think that the United States demanded a 99-year lease on military and naval bases in the Philippines?
- 8. COMPARING AND CONTRASTING What was similar and different about the elections that brought defeat to the ruling governments in the Philippines and in Burma?
- 9. WRITING ACTIVITY **ECONOMICS** Write a two-paragraph expository essay contrasting Singapore's economy with others in Southeast Asia.

CONNECT TO TODAY CREATING A TELEVISION NEWS SCRIPT

Locate several of the most recent news articles about one of the countries discussed in this section. Combine the stories into a brief television news script and present it to the class.

Social History

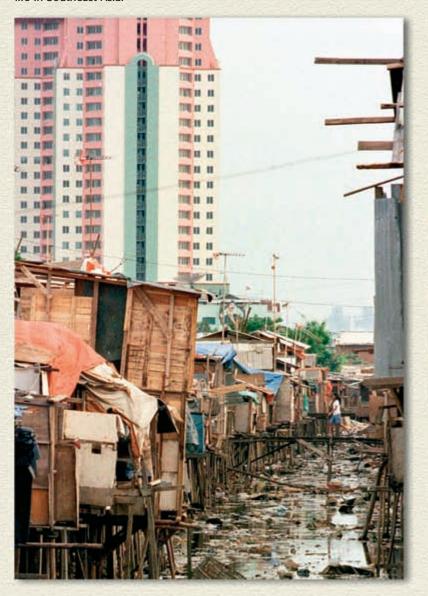
Changing Times in Southeast Asia

As you have read, many countries in Southeast Asia have undergone revolutionary changes in their political and social organization. The region continues to struggle with its past and to face new challenges, but democratic reforms are becoming more common.

The past and present exist side by side throughout much of Southeast Asia. For an increasing number of Southeast Asians, housing, transportation, even purchasing food are a mixture of old and new. These images explore the differences between traditional and modern, rich and poor, past and present.

nmhsocialstudies.com

RESEARCH WEB LINKS Go online for more on life in Southeast Asia.





▲ ▼ Transportation

The water buffalo-drawn cart (shown above) is a common sight in rural Thailand. It is a mode of transport that reaches deep into the past.

In Bangkok, Thailand (shown below)— with its cars, motorcycles, and public buses—transportation is a very different thing. These distinctly past and present modes of transportation symbolize the changes many Southeast Asian countries are facing.



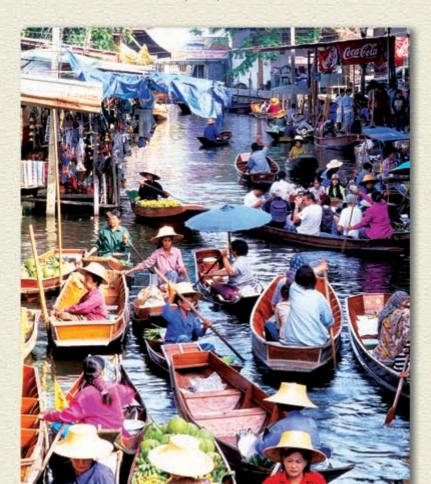
■ Housing

The luxury apartment building (background) in Jakarta, Indonesia, towers over the shabby and polluted slum of Muarabaru (foreground). Indonesia declared its independence in 1945, but was not recognized by the United Nations until 1950. Since independence, Indonesians have enjoyed relative economic prosperity, but bridging the gap between rich and poor is an issue that faces Indonesia and much of Southeast Asia.



▲ ▼ Markets

As the post-colonial economies of Southeast Asia grow, traditional markets, like the floating market in Thailand (shown below), give way to the modern convenience of stores with prepackaged foods, like this street-side store (above) in Vietnam.



DATA FILE

SOUTHEAST ASIA

Geography

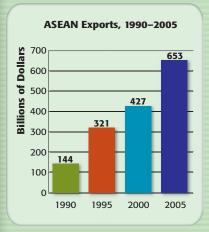
 Eleven countries are generally referred to as Southeast Asia: Brunei, Cambodia, East Timor, Indonesia, Laos, Malaysia, Myanmar, the Philippines, Singapore, Thailand, and Vietnam.

Population

- About 9 percent of the world's population lives in Southeast Asia.
- Indonesia is the world's fourth most populous country, behind China, India, and the United States.

Economics

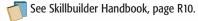
 Ten Southeast Asian nations— Indonesia, Malaysia, the Philippines, Singapore, Brunei, Cambodia, Laos, Vietnam, Myanmar, and Thailand—make up a trading alliance known as the Association of South-East Asian Nations (ASEAN)



Source: World Trade Organization

Connect to Today

1. Drawing Conclusions Why might some countries in Southeast Asia have more successful economies than others?



2. Forming and Supporting Opinions
Are the issues facing Southeast
Asians discussed here also a concern
for Americans? Why or why not?

New Nations in Africa

MAIN IDEA

REVOLUTION After World War II, African leaders threw off colonial rule and created independent countries.

WHY IT MATTERS NOW

Today, many of those independent countries are engaged in building political and economic stability.

TERMS & NAMES

- Negritude movement
- Kwame
 Nkrumah
- · Jomo Kenyatta
- Ahmed Ben Bella
- Mobutu Sese Seko

SETTING THE STAGE Throughout the first half of the 20th century, Africa resembled little more than a European outpost. As you recall, the nations of Europe had marched in during the late 1800s and colonized much of the continent. Like the diverse groups living in Asia, however, the many different peoples of Africa were unwilling to return to colonial domination after World War II. And so, in the decades following the great global conflict, they, too, won their independence from foreign rule and went to work building new nations.

Achieving Independence



Use the graphic organizer online to take notes on ideas, events, and leaders important to African countries' histories.

The African push for independence actually began in the decades before World War II. French-speaking Africans and West Indians began to express their growing sense of black consciousness and pride in traditional Africa. They formed the **Negritude movement**, a movement to celebrate African culture, heritage, and values.

When World War II erupted, African soldiers fought alongside Europeans to "defend freedom." This experience made them unwilling to accept colonial domination when they returned home. The war had changed the thinking of Europeans too. Many began to question the cost, as well as the morality, of maintaining colonies abroad. These and other factors helped African colonies gain their freedom throughout the 1950s and 1960s.

The ways in which African nations achieved independence, however, differed across the continent. In Chapter 27, you learned that European nations employed two basic styles of government in colonial Africa—direct and indirect. Under indirect rule, local officials did much of the governing and colonists enjoyed limited self-rule. As a result, these colonies generally experienced an easier transition to independence. For colonies under direct rule, in which foreigners governed at all levels and no self-rule existed, independence came with more difficulty. Some colonies even had to fight wars of liberation, as European settlers refused to surrender power to African nationalist groups.

No matter how they gained their freedom, however, most new African nations found the road to a strong and stable nation to be difficult. They had to deal with everything from creating a new government to establishing a postcolonial economy. Many new countries were also plagued by great ethnic strife. In colonizing Africa, the Europeans had created artificial borders that had little to

do with the areas where ethnic groups actually lived. While national borders separated people with similar cultures, they also enclosed traditional enemies who began fighting each other soon after the Europeans left. For many African nations, all of this led to instability, violence, and an overall struggle to deal with their newly gained independence.

Ghana Leads the Way

The British colony of the Gold Coast became the first African colony south of the Sahara to achieve independence. Following World War II, the British in the Gold Coast began making preparations. For example, they allowed more Africans to be nominated to the Legislative Council. However, the Africans wanted full freedom. The leader of their largely nonviolent movement was **Kwame Nkrumah** (KWAH•mee-uhn•KROO•muh). Starting in 1947, he worked to liberate the Gold Coast from the British. Nkrumah organized strikes and boycotts and was often imprisoned by the British government. Ultimately, his efforts were successful.

On receiving its independence in 1957, the Gold Coast took the name Ghana. This name honored a famous West African kingdom of the past. Nkrumah became

Ghana's first prime minister and later its president-for-life. Nkrumah pushed through new roads, new schools, and expanded health facilities. These costly projects soon crippled the country. His programs for industrialization, health and welfare, and expanded educational facilities showed good intentions. However, the expense of the programs undermined the economy and strengthened his opposition.

In addition, Nkrumah was often criticized for spending too much time on Pan-African efforts and neglecting economic problems in his own country. He dreamed of a "United States of Africa." In 1966, while Nkrumah was in China, the army and police in Ghana seized power. Since then, the country has shifted back and forth between civilian and military rule and has struggled for economic stability. In 2000, Ghana held its first open elections.

Fighting for Freedom

In contrast to Ghana, nations such as Kenya and Algeria had to take up arms against their European rulers in order to ultimately win their freedom.

Kenya Claims Independence The British ruled Kenya, and many British settlers resisted Kenyan independence—especially those who had taken over prize farmland in the northern highlands of the country. They were forced to accept African self-government as a result of two developments. One was the strong leadership of Kenyan nationalist Jomo Kenyatta. The second was the rise of a group known as the Mau Mau (MOW mow). This was a secret society made up mostly of native Kenyan farmers forced out of the highlands by the British.

Using guerrilla war tactics, the Mau Mau sought to push the white farmers into leaving the highlands. Kenyatta claimed to have no connection to the Mau Mau. However, he refused to condemn the organization. As a result, the

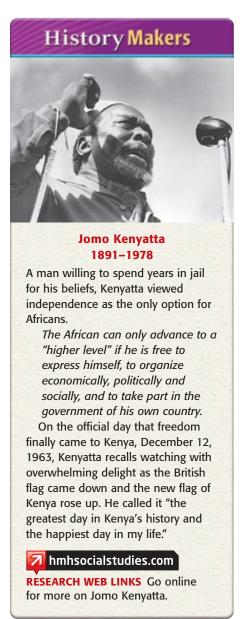
Vocabulary

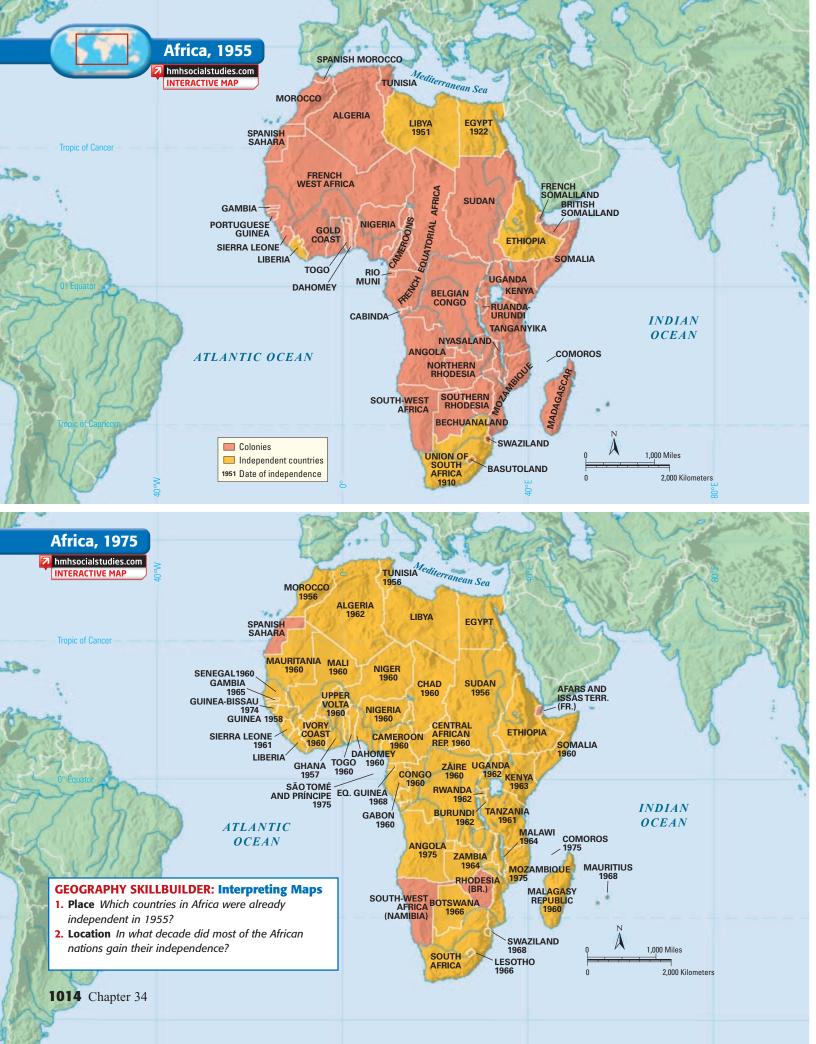
Pan-African refers to a vision of strengthening all of Africa, not just a single country.

MAIN IDEA

Contrasting

A How did the granting of independence to the British colonies of Ghana and Kenya differ?





British imprisoned him for nearly a decade. By the time the British granted Kenya independence in 1963, more than 10,000 Africans and 100 settlers had been killed.

Kenyatta became president of the new nation. He worked hard to unite the country's various ethnic and language groups. Kenyatta died in 1978. His successor, Daniel arap Moi, was less successful in governing the country. Moi faced increasing opposition to his one-party rule. Adding to the nation's woes were corruption in Moi's government and ethnic conflicts that killed hundreds and left thousands homeless. Moi stepped down in 2002, and a new party gained power through free elections.

Algeria Struggles with Independence France's principal overseas colony, Algeria, had a population of one million French colonists and nine million Arabs and Berber Muslims. After World War II, the French colonists refused to share political power with the native Algerians. In 1954, the Algerian National Liberation Front, or FLN, announced its intention to fight for independence. The French sent about half a million troops into Algeria to fight the FLN. Both sides committed atrocities. The FLN prevailed, and Algeria gained its independence in July 1962.

The leader of the FLN, **Ahmed Ben Bella**, became first president of the newly independent Algeria. He attempted to make Algeria a socialist state, but was overthrown in 1965 by his army commander. From 1965 until 1988, Algerians tried unsuccessfully to modernize and industrialize the nation. Unemployment and dissatisfaction with the government contributed to the rise of religious fundamentalists who wanted to make Algeria an Islamic state. The chief Islamic party, the Islamic Salvation Front (FIS), won local and parliamentary elections in 1990 and 1991. However, the ruling government and army refused to accept the election results. As a result, a civil war broke out between Islamic militants and the government. The war continues, on and off, to this day.

Civil War in Congo and Angola

Civil war also plagued the new nations of Congo and Angola. Congo's problems lay in its corrupt dictatorship and hostile ethnic groups. Meanwhile, Angola's difficulties stemmed from intense political differences.

Freedom and Turmoil for Congo Of all the European possessions in Africa, one of the most exploited was the Belgian Congo. Belgium had ruthlessly plundered the colony's rich resources of rubber and copper. In addition, Belgian officials ruled with a harsh hand and provided the population with no social services. They also had made no attempt to prepare the people for independence. Not surprisingly, Belgium's granting of independence in 1960 to the Congo (known as Zaire from 1971 to 1997) resulted in upheaval. **B**)

After years of civil war, an army officer, Colonel Joseph Mobutu, later known as **Mobutu Sese Seko** (moh•BOO•too-SAY•say-SAY•koh), seized power in 1965. For 32 years, Mobutu ruled the country that he renamed Zaire. He maintained control though a combination of force, one-party rule, and gifts to supporters. Mobutu successfully withstood several armed rebellions. He was finally overthrown in 1997 by rebel leader Laurent Kabila after months of civil war. Shortly thereafter, the country was renamed the Democratic Republic of the Congo.

On becoming president, Kabila promised a transition to democracy and free elections by April 1999. Such elections never came. By 2000 the nation endured another round of civil war, as three separate rebel groups sought to overthrow Kabila's autocratic rule. In January 2001, a bodyguard assassinated Kabila.

MAIN IDEA Recognizing **Effects**

B) Why was the Congo vulnerable to turmoil after independence?

▲ Mobuto Sese Seko

History in Depth



Genocide in East Africa

In East Africa, both Rwanda and Darfur, a region in Sudan, have suffered from campaigns of genocide.

In the spring of 1994, the Rwandan president, a Hutu, died in a suspicious plane crash. In the months that followed, Hutus slaughtered about 1 million Tutsis before Tutsi rebels put an end to the killings. The United Nations set up a tribunal to punish those responsible for the worst acts of genocide.

In 2004, Sudanese government forces and pro-government militias began killing villagers in Darfur as part of a campaign against rebel forces. In 2007, President Bush announced fresh sanctions against Sudan.

His son, Joseph Kabila, took power and began a quest for peace. In 2002, the government signed peace deals with rebel groups and neighboring countries. In 2006, Kabila was elected president under a new constitution.

War Tears at Angola To the southwest of Congo lies Angola, a country that not only had to fight to gain its freedom but to hold itself together after independence. The Portuguese had long ruled Angola and had no desire to stop. When an independence movement broke out in the colony, Portugal sent in 50,000 troops. The cost of the conflict amounted to almost half of Portugal's national budget. The heavy cost of fighting, as well as growing opposition at home to the war, prompted the Portuguese to withdraw from Angola in 1975.

Almost immediately, the Communist-leaning MPLA (Popular Movement for the Liberation of Angola) declared itself the new nation's rightful government. This led to a prolonged civil war, as various rebel groups fought the government and each other for power. Each group received help from outside sources. The MPLA was assisted by some 50,000 Cuban troops and by the Soviet Union. The major opposition to the MPLA was UNITA (National Union for the Total Independence of Angola), to which South Africa and the United States lent support. For decades, the two sides agreed to and then abandoned various cease-fire agreements. In 2002, the warring sides agreed to a peace accord, and the long civil war came to an end.

As the colonies of Africa worked to become stable nations, the new nation of Israel was emerging in the Middle East. Its growth, as you will read in the next section, upset many in the surrounding Arab world and prompted one of the longest-running conflicts in modern history.

SECTION

ASSESSMENT

TERMS & NAMES 1. For each term or name, write a sentence explaining its significance.

- Negritude movement
- Kwame Nkrumah
- · Jomo Kenyatta
- Ahmed Ben Bella
- Mobutu Sese Seko

USING YOUR NOTES

2. Which item had the greatest impact on its country? Why?

Ghana	
Kenya	
Zaire	
Algeria	
Angola	

MAIN IDEAS

- 3. Who were the Mau Mau of Kenya? What was their goal?
- 4. What sparked the present-day civil struggle in Algeria?
- 5. What prompted Portugal to eventually grant Angola its freedom?

CRITICAL THINKING & WRITING

- **6. DRAWING CONCLUSIONS** How did the way in which European colonialists carved up Africa in the 1800s lead to civil strife in many new African nations?
- 7. ANALYZING MOTIVES Why do you think the United States and the Soviet Union participated in Angola's civil war?
- 8. ANALYZING ISSUES Why do you think revolution swept so many African nations following their independence from European rule?
- 9. WRITING ACTIVITY REVOLUTION Imagine you are a reporter covering a revolution in one of the African nations. Write a headline and article describing it.

MULTIMEDIA ACTIVITY PREPARING A COMPARISON CHART



Use the Internet to examine the current status of two countries discussed in this section. Choose from various economic, governmental, and social statistics and display your information in a comparison chart.

INTERNET KEYWORD country profiles

Conflicts in the Middle East

MAIN IDEA

POWER AND AUTHORITY

Division of Palestine after World War II made the Middle East a hotbed of competing nationalist movements.

WHY IT MATTERS NOW

Conflicts in the Middle East threaten the stability of the world today.

TERMS & NAMES

- Anwar Sadat
- Golda Meir
- PLO
- Yasir Arafat
- Camp David Accords
- intifada
- Oslo Peace Accords

SETTING THE STAGE In the years following World War II, the Jewish people won what for so long had eluded them: their own state. The gaining of their homeland along the eastern coast of the Mediterranean Sea, however, came at a heavy price. A Jewish state was unwelcome in this mostly Arab region, and the resulting hostility led to a series of wars. Perhaps no Arab people, however, have been more opposed to a Jewish state than the Palestinians, who claim that much of the Jewish land belongs to them.

Israel Becomes a State

The land called Palestine now consists of Israel, the West Bank, and the Gaza Strip. To Jews, their claim to the land dates back 3,000 years, when Jewish kings ruled the region from Jerusalem. To Palestinians (both Muslim and Christian), the land has belonged to them since the Jews were driven out around A.D. 135. To Arabs, the land has belonged to them since their conquest of the area in the 7th century.

After being forced out of Palestine during the second century, the Jewish people were not able to establish their own state and lived in different countries throughout the world. The global dispersal of the Jews is known as the Diaspora. During the late 19th and early 20th centuries, a group of Jews began returning to the region their ancestors had fled so long ago. They were known as Zionists, people who favored a Jewish national homeland in Palestine. At this time, Palestine was still part of the Ottoman Empire, ruled by Islamic Turks. After the defeat of the Ottomans in World War I, the League of Nations asked Britain to oversee Palestine until it was ready for independence.

By this time, the Jews had become a growing presence in Palestine, and were already pressing for their own nation in the territory. The Arabs living in the region strongly opposed such a move. In a 1917 letter to Zionist leaders, British Foreign Secretary Sir Arthur Balfour promoted the idea of creating a Jewish homeland in Palestine while protecting the "rights of existing non-Jewish communities." Despite the Balfour Declaration, however, efforts to create a Jewish state failed—and hostility between Palestinian Arabs and Jews continued to grow.

At the end of World War II, the United Nations took action. In 1947, the UN General Assembly voted to partition Palestine into an Arab Palestinian state and



Use the graphic organizer online to take notes on important political and military events that occurred following the Suez Crisis.

a Jewish state. Jerusalem was to be an international city owned by neither side. The terms of the partition gave Jews 55 percent of the area even though they made up only 34 percent of the population. In the wake of the war and the Holocaust, the United States and many European nations felt great sympathy for the Jews.

All of the Islamic countries voted against partition, and the Palestinians rejected it outright. They argued that the UN did not have the right to partition a territory without considering the wishes of the majority of its people. Finally, the date was set for the formation of Israel, May 14, 1948. On that date, David Ben Gurion, long-time leader of the Jews residing in Palestine, announced the creation of an independent Israel.

Israel and Arab States in Conflict

The new nation of Israel got a hostile greeting from its neighbors. The day after it proclaimed itself a state, six Islamic states—Egypt, Iraq, Jordan, Lebanon, Saudi Arabia, and Syria—invaded Israel. The first of many Arab-Israeli wars, this one ended within months in a victory for Israel. Full-scale war broke out again in 1956, 1967, and 1973. Because of Arab-Israeli tensions, several hundred thousand Jews living in Arab lands moved to Israel.

Largely as a result of this fighting, the state that the UN had set aside for Arabs never came into being. Israel seized half the land in the 1948–1949 fighting. While the fighting raged, at least 600,000 Palestinians fled, migrating from the areas under Israeli control. They settled in UN-sponsored refugee camps that ringed the borders of their former homeland. Meanwhile, various Arab nations seized other Palestinian lands. Egypt took control of the Gaza Strip, while Jordan annexed the

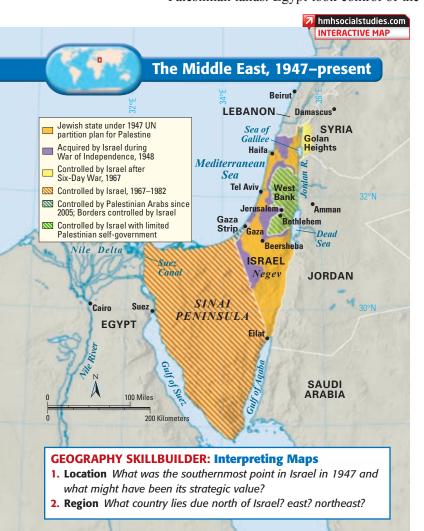
West Bank of the Jordan River. (See the map at left.)

The 1956 Suez Crisis The second Arab-Israeli war followed in 1956. That year, Egypt seized control of the Suez Canal, which ran along Egypt's eastern border between the Gulf of Suez and the Mediterranean Sea. Egyptian president Gamal Abdel Nasser sent in troops to take the canal, which was controlled by British interests. The military action was prompted in large part by Nasser's anger over the loss of U.S. and British financial support for the building of Egypt's Aswan Dam.

Outraged, the British made an agreement with France and Israel to retake the canal. With air support provided by their European allies, the Israelis marched on the Suez Canal and quickly defeated the Egyptians. However, pressure from the world community, including the United States and the Soviet Union, forced Israel and the Europeans to

Summarizing A) What recommendations did the UN make for

Palestine?





withdraw from Egypt. This left Egypt in charge of the canal and thus ended the Suez Crisis.

Arab-Israeli Wars Continue Tensions between Israel and the Arab states began to build again in the years following the resolution of the Suez Crisis. By early 1967, Nasser and his Arab allies, equipped with Soviet tanks and aircraft, felt ready to confront Israel. "We are eager for battle in order to force the enemy to awake from his dreams," Nasser announced, "and meet Arab reality face to face." He moved to close off the Gulf of Agaba, Israel's outlet to the Red Sea.

Soon after the strikes on Arab airfields began, the Israelis struck airfields in Egypt, Iran, Jordan, and Syria. Safe from air attack, Israeli ground forces struck like lightning on three fronts. Israel defeated the Arab states in what became known as the Six-Day War, because it was over in six days. Israel lost 800 troops in the fighting, while Arab losses exceeded 15,000.

As a consequence of the Six-Day War, Israel gained control of the old city of Jerusalem, the Sinai Peninsula, the Golan Heights, and the West Bank. Israelis saw these new holdings along their southern, eastern, and western borders as a key buffer zone against further Arab attacks. Arabs who lived in Jerusalem were given the choice of Israeli or Jordanian citizenship. Most chose the latter. People who lived in the other areas were not offered Israeli citizenship and simply came under Jewish control.

A fourth Arab-Israeli conflict erupted in October 1973. Nasser's successor, Egyptian president Anwar Sadat (AHN•wahr suh•DAT), planned a joint Arab attack on the date of Yom Kippur, the holiest of Jewish holidays. This time the Israelis were caught by surprise. Arab forces inflicted heavy casualties and recaptured some of the territory lost in 1967. The Israelis, under their prime minister, Golda Meir (MY•uhr), launched a counterattack and regained most of the lost territory. Both sides agreed to a truce after several weeks of fighting, and the Yom Kippur war came to an end. (B)

The Palestine Liberation Organization As Israel and its Arab neighbors battled each other, Arab Palestinians struggled for recognition. While the United Nations had granted the Palestinians their own homeland, the Israelis had seized much of that land, including the West Bank and Gaza Strip, during its various wars, Israel insisted that such a move was vital to its national security.

In 1964, Palestinian officials formed the Palestine Liberation Organization (PLO) to push for the formation of an Arab Palestinian state that would include land claimed by Israel. Originally, the PLO was an umbrella organization made up of different groups—laborers, teachers, lawyers, and guerrilla fighters. Soon, guerrilla groups came to dominate the organization and insisted that the only way to achieve their goal was through armed struggle. In 1969 Yasir Arafat (YAH-sur AR•uh•FAT) became chairman of the PLO. Throughout the 1960s and 1970s the group carried out numerous terrorist attacks against Israel. Some of Israel's Arab neighbors supported the PLO's goals by allowing PLO guerrillas to operate from their lands.

MAIN IDEA Recognizing **Effects**

B) What were some of the effects of the Arab-Israeli conflicts?

History Makers



Golda Meir 1898-1978

Meir was born in Kiev, Russia, but grew up in the American Heartland. Although a skilled carpenter, Meir's father could not find enough work in Kiev. So he sold his tools and other belongings and moved his family to Milwaukee, Wisconsin. Meir would spend more than a decade in the United States before moving to Palestine.

The future Israeli prime minister exhibited strong leadership qualities early on. When she learned that many of her fellow fourth grade classmates could not afford textbooks, she created the American Young Sisters Society, an organization that succeeded in raising the necessary funds.

> Analyzing Primary Sources

The Palestinian View

Writer Fawaz Turki articulates the view held by many of his fellow Palestinians—that the Israelis are illegal occupiers of Palestinian land.

PRIMARY SOURCE

These people have walked off with our home and homeland, with our movable and immovable property, with our land, our farms, our shops, our public buildings, our paved roads, our cars, our theaters, our clubs, our parks, our furniture, our tricycles. They hounded us out of ancestral patrimony [land] and shoved us in refugee camps. . . . Now they were astride the whole of historic Palestine and then some, jubilant at the new role as latter day colonial overlords.

FAWAZ TURKI, quoted in The Arab-Israeli Conflict

The Israeli View

Many Israelis, including former Israeli General Abraham Tamir, feel that controlling the disputed lands is vital to their security.

PRIMARY SOURCE

Since the establishment of the State of Israel, its national security policy has been designed to defend its existence, integrity and security, and not for expansionist territorial aspirations. Hence, if Arab confrontation states did not initiate wars against Israel or pose threats to its existence, then Israel would not start a war . . . to extend its territories . . . Our national security policy created from its very beginning the linkage between Israel's political willingness for peace and Israel's military capability to repel aggression of any kind and scale.

ABRAHAM TAMIR, quoted in From War to Peace

DOCUMENT-BASED QUESTIONS

- 1. Analyzing Issues Why does Fawaz Turki refer to the Israelis as colonizers?
- 2. Drawing Conclusions What might be the best way for the Palestinians to regain control of their land, according to Abraham Tamir?

Efforts at Peace

In November 1977, just four years after the Yom Kippur war, Anwar Sadat stunned the world by extending a hand to Israel. No Arab country up to this point had recognized Israel's right to exist. In a dramatic gesture, Sadat went before the Knesset, the Israeli parliament, and invited his one-time enemies to join him in a quest for peace.



Today, through my visit to you, I ask you why don't we stretch our hands with faith and sincerity and so that together we might . . . remove all suspicion of fear, betrayal, and bad intention? Why don't we stand together with the courage of men and the boldness of heroes who dedicate themselves to a sublime [supreme] aim? Why don't we stand together with the same courage and daring to erect a huge edifice [building] of peace? An edifice that . . . serves as a beacon for generations to come with the human message for construction, development, and the dignity of man.

ANWAR SADAT, Knesset speech, November 20, 1977

Sadat emphasized that in exchange for peace Israel would have to recognize the rights of Palestinians. Furthermore, it would have to withdraw from territory seized in 1967 from Egypt, Jordan, and Syria.

U.S. president Jimmy Carter recognized that Sadat had created a historic opportunity for peace. In 1978, Carter invited Sadat and Israeli prime minister Menachem Begin (mehn•AHK•hehm BAY•gihn) to Camp David, the presidential retreat in rural Maryland. Isolated from the press and from domestic political pressures, Sadat and Begin worked to reach an agreement. After 13 days of negotiations, Carter triumphantly announced that Egypt recognized Israel as a legitimate state. In exchange, Israel agreed to return the Sinai Peninsula to Egypt. Signed in 1979, the **Camp David Accords** ended 30 years of hostilities between Egypt and Israel and became the first signed agreement between Israel and an Arab country.



MAIN IDEA Clarifying What was the

What was the significance of the Camp David Accords?

While world leaders praised Sadat, his peace initiative enraged many Arab countries. In 1981, a group of Muslim extremists assassinated him. However, Egypt's new leader, Hosni Mubarak (HAHS•nee moo•BAHR•uhk), has worked to maintain peace with Israel.

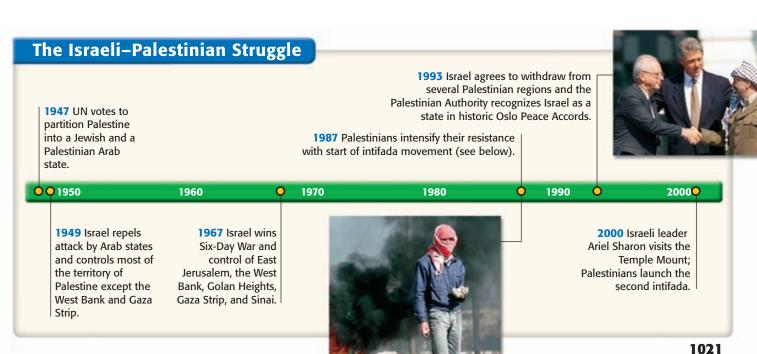
Israeli-Palestinian Tensions Increase One Arab group that continued to clash with the Israelis was the Palestinians, a large number of whom lived in the West Bank and Gaza Strip—lands controlled by Israel. During the 1970s and 1980s, the military wing of the PLO conducted a campaign against Israel. Israel responded forcefully, bombing suspected rebel bases in Palestinian towns. In 1982, the Israeli army invaded Lebanon in an attempt to destroy strongholds in Palestinian villages. The Israelis became involved in Lebanon's civil war and were forced to withdraw.

In 1987, Palestinians began to express their frustrations in a widespread campaign of civil disobedience called the **intifada**, or "uprising." The intifada took the form of boycotts, demonstrations, attacks on Israeli soldiers, and rock throwing by unarmed teenagers. The intifada continued into the 1990s, with little progress made toward a solution. However, the civil disobedience affected world opinion, which, in turn, put pressure on Israel to seek negotiations with the Palestinians. Finally, in October 1991, Israeli and Palestinian delegates met for a series of peace talks.

The Oslo Peace Accords Negotiations between the two sides made little progress, as the status of the Palestinian territories proved to be a bitterly divisive issue. In 1993, however, secret talks held in Oslo, Norway, produced a surprise agreement: a document called the Declaration of Principles, also known as the **Oslo Peace Accords**. Israel, under the leadership of Prime Minister Yitzhak Rabin (YIHTS•hahk rah•BEEN), agreed to grant the Palestinians self-rule in the Gaza Strip and the West Bank, beginning with the town of Jericho. Rabin and Arafat signed the agreement on September 13, 1993.

The difficulty of making the agreement work was demonstrated by the assassination of Rabin in 1995. He was killed by a right-wing Jewish extremist who opposed concessions to the Palestinians. Rabin was succeeded as prime minister by Benjamin Netanyahu (neh•tan•YAH•hoo), who had opposed the Oslo Accords. Still, Netanyahu made efforts to keep to the agreement. In January 1997, Netanyahu met with Arafat to work out plans for a partial Israeli withdrawal from the West Bank.





History in Depth Signs of Hope Amid the cycle of violence and disagreement in the Middle East, there are small but inspiring efforts to bring together Israelis and Palestinians. One is Seeds of Peace, a summer camp that hosts teenagers from opposing sides of world conflicts in the hopes of creating lasting friendships. Another is the West-Eastern Divan, an orchestra made up of Jewish and Arab musicians—the creation of famous Jewish conductor Daniel Barenboim and prominent Palestinian writer Edward Said. A Edward Said (left) and Daniel Barenboim talk about their orchestra, shown above.

▲ Palestinian and Israeli campers bond at Seeds of Peace, located in Maine.

Peace Slips Away

In 1999, the slow and difficult peace negotiations between Israel and the Palestinians seemed to get a boost. Ehud Barak won election as Israeli prime minister. Many observers viewed him as a much stronger supporter of the peace plan than Netanyahu had been. The world community, led by the United States, was determined to take advantage of such a development.

In July of 2000, U.S. president Bill Clinton hosted a 15-day summit meeting at Camp David between Ehud Barak and Yasir Arafat. The two men, however, could not reach a compromise, and the peace plan once again stalled. Just two months later, Israeli political leader Ariel Sharon visited Jerusalem's Temple Mount, a site holy to both Jews and Muslims. The next day, the Voice of Palestine, the Palestinian Authority's official radio station, called upon Palestinians to protest the visit. Riots broke out in Jerusalem and the West Bank, and a second intifada, sometimes called the Al-Aqsa intifada, was launched.

The Conflict Intensifies The second intifada began much like the first with demonstrations, attacks on Israeli soldiers, and rock throwing by unarmed teenagers. But this time the Palestinian militant groups increasingly used suicide bombers. Their attacks on Jewish settlements in occupied territories and on civilian locations throughout Israel significantly raised the level of bloodshed. As the second intifada continued through 2007, thousands of Israelis and Palestinians had died in the conflict.

In response to the uprising, Israeli forces moved into Palestinian refugee camps and clamped down on terrorists. Troops destroyed buildings in which they suspected extremists were hiding and bulldozed entire areas of Palestinian towns and camps. The Israeli army bombed Arafat's headquarters, trapping him inside his compound for many days.

Arab-Israeli relations did not improve with Israel's next prime minister, Ariel Sharon. Sharon, a former military leader, refused to negotiate with the Palestinians until attacks on Israelis stopped. Eventually, under intense pressure from the world community, Arafat agreed to take a less prominent role in peace talks.

In early 2003, the Palestinian Authority appointed its first-ever prime minister, PLO official Mahmoud Abbas. Shortly afterward, U.S. president George W. Bush brought together Sharon and Abbas to begin working on a new peace plan known as the "road map." But violence increased again in 2003, and talks stalled.

Shifting Power and Alliances In the summer of 2005, Israel unilaterally evacuated all its settlers and military from the Gaza Strip. Then in 2006, Hamas, a militant terrorist group intent on replacing Israel with an Islamic state, won majority control in Palestinian Authority elections.

Israel refused to recognize the new Hamas government. Instead, in August 2007, Israeli Prime Minister Ehud Olmert began a series of formal talks with Mahmoud Abbas. In 2010, indirect talks resumed between Abbas and Olmert's successor, Benjamin Netanyahu. U.S. envoy George Mitchell acted as go-between, shuttling between the two leaders, but little progress had been made by mid-year.



▲ A U.S. magazine cover highlights America's involvement in the Middle East crisis.

SECTION

ASSESSMENT

TERMS & NAMES 1. For each term or name, write a sentence explaining its significance.

- Anwar Sadat
- · Golda Meir
- PLO
- Yasir Arafat
- · Camp David Accords
- · intifada
- Oslo Peace Accords

USING NOTES

2. Which events do you think were most important? Why?



MAIN IDEAS

- 3. What historic claim do both Palestinians and Jews make to the land of Palestine?
- 4. What land did Israel gain from the wars against its Arab neighbors?
- 5. What were the terms of the Oslo Accords?

CRITICAL THINKING & WRITING

- 6. COMPARING How was the creation of Israel similar to the establishment of an independent India?
- 7. DRAWING CONCLUSIONS Why do you think all the Israeli-Palestinian accords ultimately have failed?
- 8. ANALYZING ISSUES Some have said that the Palestinian-Israeli conflict represents the struggle of right against right. Explain why you agree or disagree.
- 9. WRITING ACTIVITY POWER AND AUTHORITY In groups of three or four, create a list of ten Interview questions for Gamal Abdel Nasser, Anwar Sadat, Yasir Arafat, Yitzhak Rabin, or a current leader of either Israel or Palestine.

CONNECT TO TODAY

DRAWING A POLITICAL CARTOON

Draw a political cartoon or other type of image that conveys your thoughts about the stalled peace effort today between Palestinians and Israelis.

Central Asia Struggles

MAIN IDEA

WHY IT MATTERS NOW

TERMS & NAMES

POWER AND AUTHORITY

Lands controlled or influenced by the Soviet Union struggle with the challenges of establishing new nations. The security issues in these nations pose a threat to world peace and security.

- Transcaucasian Republics
- mujahideenTaliban
- Central Asian Republics

SETTING THE STAGE For thousands of years, the different peoples of Central Asia suffered invasions and domination by powerful groups such as the Mongols, Byzantines, Ottomans, and finally the Communist rulers of the Soviet Union. While such occupation brought many changes to this region, its various ethnic groups worked to keep alive much of their culture. They also longed to create nations of their own, a dream they realized in the early 1990s with the collapse of the Soviet Union. In the decade since then, however, these groups have come to know the challenges of building strong and stable independent nations.

Freedom Brings New Challenges



Use the graphic organizer online to take notes on main ideas and details.

In 1991 the Soviet Union collapsed, and the republics that it had conquered emerged as 15 independent nations. Among them were those that had made up the Soviet empire's southern borders. Geographers often group these new nations into two geographic areas.

Armenia, Azerbaijan, and Georgia make up the <u>Transcaucasian Republics</u>. These three nations lie in the Caucasus Mountains between the Black and Caspian seas. East of the Caspian Sea and extending to the Tian Shan and Pamir mountains lie the five nations known as the <u>Central Asian Republics</u>. They are Uzbekistan, Turkmenistan, Tajikistan, Kazakhstan, and Kyrgyzstan.

Economic Struggles Since gaining independence, these nations have struggled economically and are today some of the poorest countries in the world. Much of the problem stems from their heavy reliance on the Soviet Union for economic help. As a result, they have had a difficult time standing on their own. Economic practices during the Soviet era have created additional problems. The Soviets, for example, converted much of the available farmland in the Central Asian Republics to grow "white gold"—cotton. Dependence on a single crop has hurt the development of a balanced economy in these nations.

Azerbaijan, which is located among the oil fields of the Caspian Sea, has the best chance to build a solid economy based on the income from oil and oil products. Meanwhile, Kazakhstan and Turkmenistan are working hard to tap their large reserves of oil and natural gas.

Ethnic and Religious Strife Fighting among various ethnic and religious groups has created another obstacle to stability for many of the newly independent

countries of Central Asia. The region is home to a number of different peoples, including some with long histories of hostility toward each other. With their ironfisted rule, the Soviets kept a lid on these hostilities and largely prevented any serious ethnic clashes. After the breakup of the Soviet Union, however, long-simmering ethnic rivalries erupted into fighting. Some even became small regional wars.

Such was the case in Azerbaijan. Within this mostly Muslim country lies Nagorno-Karabakh, a small region of mainly Armenian Christians. In the wake of the Soviet Union's collapse, the people of this area declared their independence. Azerbaijan had no intention of letting go of this land, and fighting quickly broke out. Neighboring Armenia rushed to aid the Armenian people in the district. The war raged from 1991 through 1994, when the two sides agreed to a cease-fire. As of 2007, the status of Nagorno-Karabakh remained unresolved.

Afghanistan and the World

MAIN IDEA

A) Why was there

little ethnic or reli-

Central Asia during

gious strife in

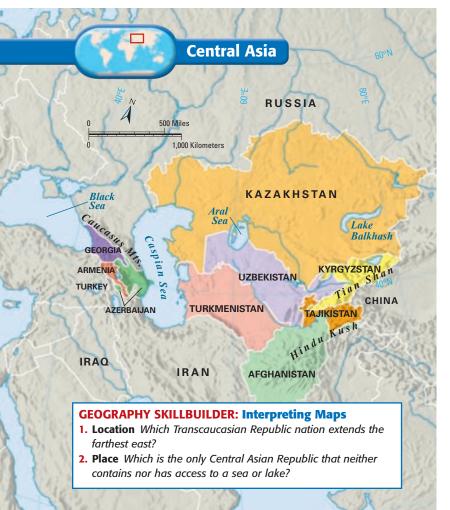
Soviet rule?

Clarifying

Just to the south of the Central Asian Republics lies one of the region's more prominent nations. Afghanistan is a small nation with both mountainous and desert terrain. It is one of the least-developed countries in the world, as most of its inhabitants are farmers or herders. And yet, over the past several decades, this mostly Muslim nation has grabbed the world's attention with two high-profile wars—one against the Soviet Union and the other against the United States.

Struggle for Freedom Afghanistan has endured a long history of struggle. During the 1800s, both Russia and Britain competed for control of its land. Russia wanted access to the Indian Ocean through Afghanistan, while Britain wanted control of the land in order to protect the northern borders of its Indian Empire. Britain fought three separate wars with the Afghanis before eventually leaving in 1919.

▼ The terrain of Central Asia varies widely, from mountains to plains.







That year, Afghanistan declared itself an independent nation and established a monarchy. The government implemented various reforms and tried to modernize the country. In 1964, the country devised a constitution that sought to establish a more democratic style of government. However, officials could not agree on a reform program and most people showed little interest in the effort to transform the government. As a result, a democratic system failed to develop.

Pushing Back the Soviets Nonetheless, Afghanistan had grown stable enough to establish good relations with many Western European nations and to hold its own on the world stage. When the Cold War conflict between the United States and Soviet Union broke out, Afghanistan chose to remain neutral. However, over the years, it received aid from both of the opposing superpowers.

Situated so close to the Soviet Union, however, Afghanistan could not hold out against the force of communism forever. In 1973, military leaders overthrew the government. Five years later, in 1978, a rival group with strong ties to the Soviet

Union seized control of the country. Much of the population opposed the group and its strong association with communism. Many Afghanis felt that Communist policies conflicted with the teachings of Islam.

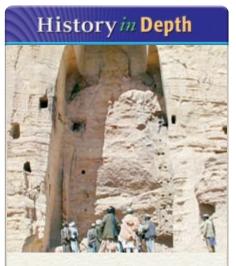
The opposition forces banded together to form a group known as the **mujahideen** (moo•JAH•heh•DEEN), or holy warriors. These rebels took up arms and fought fiercely against the Soviet-supported government. The rebellion soon prompted the Soviet Union to step in. In 1979 and 1980, Soviet troops rolled into Afghanistan to conquer the country and add it to their Communist empire.

With the Soviets' superior military force and advanced weaponry, the war had all the makings of a quick and lop-sided affair. But the Afghan rebels used the land and guerrilla tactics to their advantage. In addition, the United States provided financial and military assistance. After nearly 10 years of bloody and fruitless fighting, the Soviet Union withdrew its troops. The Afghanis had taken on the world's Communist superpower and won.

Rise and Fall of the Taliban With the Soviets gone, various Afghan rebel groups began battling each other for control of the country. A conservative Islamic group known as the **Taliban** emerged as the victor. By 1998, it controlled 90 percent of the country. Another rebel group, the Northern Alliance, held the northwest corner of the country. Observers initially viewed the Taliban as a positive force, as it brought order to the war-torn nation, rooted out corruption, and promoted the growth of business.

However, the group followed an extreme interpretation of Islamic law and applied it to nearly every aspect of Afghan society. Taliban leaders restricted women's lives by forbidding them to go to school or hold jobs. They banned everything from television and movies to modern music. Punishment for violating the rules included severe beatings, amputation, and even execution.

Even more troubling to the world community was the Taliban's role in the growing problem of world terrorism, which you will read more about in Chapter 36. Western



Destroying the Past

Among the Taliban's extreme policies that stemmed from their interpretation of Islam, one in particular shocked and angered historians around the world. In the years after gaining power, Taliban leaders destroyed some of Afghanistan's most prized artifacts—two centuries-old Buddhas carved out of cliffs.

The Taliban deemed the giant statues offensive to Islam. Ignoring pleas from scholars and museums, they demolished the ancient figures with dynamite and bombs. One of the two statues was thought to have dated back to the third century A.D.

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INTERNET ACTIVITY Go online to highlight the top archaeological treasures of a country.

MAIN IDEA

Drawing Conclusions

B Why do you think the Soviets finally decided to leave Afghanistan?

leaders accused the Taliban of allowing terrorist groups to train in Afghanistan. The Taliban also provided refuge for terrorist leaders, including Osama bin Laden, whose al-Qaeda organization is thought to be responsible for numerous attacks on the West-including the attacks on the World Trade Center in New York and the Pentagon in Washington, D.C., on September 11, 2001.

In the wake of the September 11 attacks, the U.S. government demanded that the Taliban turn over bin Laden. After its leaders refused, the United States took military action. In October 2001, U.S. forces began bombing Taliban air defense, airfields, and command centers, as well as al-Qaeda training camps. On the ground, the United States provided assistance to anti-Taliban forces, such as the Northern Alliance. By December, the United States had driven the Taliban from power.



Challenges Ahead While the Taliban regrouped in remote parts of Afghanistan and Pakistan, Afghan officials selected a new government under the leadership of Hamid Karzai. Later, in 2004, he was elected president for a five-year term. His government faced the task of rebuilding a country that had endured more than two decades of warfare. However, in 2006, the Taliban appeared resurgent, and NATO troops took over military operations in the South. Heavy fighting with the Taliban continued into 2007.

The challenge before Afghanistan, is neither unique nor new. As you will read in the next chapter, over the past 50 years countries around the world have attempted to shed their old and often repressive forms of rule and implement a more democratic style of government.

▲ In the Afghanistan elections, the ballot included photographs of the candidates and symbols for each party.

SECTION



ASSESSMENT

TERMS & NAMES 1. For each term or name, write a sentence explaining its significance.

- Transcaucasian Republics
- Central Asian Republics
- mujahideen
- Taliban

USING YOUR NOTES

2. Which challenge for the Central Asian nations is most difficult to overcome?

> Freedom Brings New Challenges A. Afghanistan and the World B.

MAIN IDEA

- 3. What countries make up the Transcaucasian Republics? the Central Asian Republics?
- 4. Why did Afghanis oppose the notion of Communist rule?
- 5. Why did the United States take military action against the Taliban?

CRITICAL THINKING & WRITING

- 6. MAKING INFERENCES Some historians call the Soviet-Afghan war the Soviet Union's "Vietnam." What do they mean by this reference? Do you agree with it?
- 7. DRAWING CONCLUSIONS Why might Afghanis have been willing to accept Taliban rule by 1998?
- 8. IDENTIFYING PROBLEMS Why did the new nations of Central Asia experience such economic difficulties?
- 9. WRITING ACTIVITY POWER AND AUTHORITY Imagine you are a speechwriter for Hamid Karzai. Write what you feel would be an appropriate first paragraph for his initial speech upon taking power.

CONNECT TO TODAY CREATING A TIME LINE

Choose one of the countries discussed in this section and create a time line of the eight to ten most significant events in its history over the last 50 years.

Chapter 34 Assessment

(Great Britain) 1948 Israel

(Great Britain)

1957 Ghana

(Great Britain)

1962 Algeria

1963 Kenva

(Great Britain)

(Pakistan)

(France)

VISUAL SUMMARY The Struggle for Independence The time line shows the dates on which various countries in Asia and Africa achieved their independence after World War II. It also shows (in parentheses) the countries from which they achieved independence. 1946 the Philippines (United States) 1947 India, Pakistan

1949 Indonesia

(The Netherlands)

1965 Singapore (Great Britain, Malaysia)

1971 Congo (Belgium)

1975 Angola

(Portugal)

1955

965

TERMS & NAMES

For each term or name below, briefly explain its connection to colonial independence around the world after World War II.

- 1. partition 5. Jomo Kenyatta 2. Jawaharlal Nehru 6. Anwar Sadat
- 3. Indira Gandhi **7.** PLO
- **4.** Corazón Aquino 8. mujahideen

MAIN IDEAS

The Indian Subcontinent Achieves Freedom

Section 1 (pages 997-1003)

- 9. What two nations emerged from the British colony of India in 1947?
- 10. Briefly explain the reason for the civil disorder in Sri Lanka.

Southeast Asian Nations Gain Independence

Section 2 (pages 1004–1011)

- 11. What were some concerns the Filipinos had regarding the Bell Act?
- 12. Who was Sukarno?

New Nations in Africa Section 3 (pages 1012–1016)

- 13. Why were Kwame Nkrumah's politics criticized?
- **14.** Why did Zaire face such difficulty upon gaining independence?

Conflicts in the Middle East Section 4 (pages 1017–1023)

- 15. What was the Suez Crisis?
- **16.** What were the Camp David Accords?

Central Asia Struggles Section 5 (pages 1024–1027)

- 17. Which nations comprise the Transcaucasian Republics?
- **18.** What was the Taliban?

CRITICAL THINKING

1. USING YOUR NOTES

Use a web diagram to show some of the challenges that newly independent nations have faced.



2. FORMING AND SUPPORTING OPINIONS

REVOLUTION Do you think there should be a limit to the methods revolutionaries use? Explain your opinion.

3. ANALYZING ISSUES

ECONOMICS Why have so many of the new nations that emerged over the past half-century struggled economically?

4. DRAWING CONCLUSIONS

In your view, was religion a unifying or destructive force as colonies around the world became new nations? Support your answer with specific examples from the text.

STANDARDS-BASED ASSESSMENT

Use the following excerpt from the Balfour Declaration and your knowledge of world history to answer questions 1 and 2.

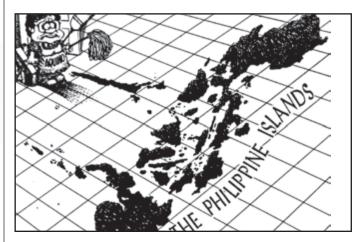
PRIMARY SOURCE

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

ARTHUR JAMES BALFOUR, in a letter to Lord Rothschild, November 2, 1917

- 1. The intent of the British government was to
 - A. give all of Palestine to the Jewish people.
 - B. leave Palestine in the hands of the Arabs.
 - C. divide Palestine between Jews and Arabs.
 - **D.** ensure justice for Jews around the world.
- 2. The group most likely to have opposed the Balfour Declaration was the
 - A. Arabs.
 - B. lews.
 - C. French.
 - D. Americans.

Use the political cartoon about Corazón Aquino's election victory and your knowledge of world history to answer auestion 3.



- 3. Aquino was expected by many to "clean up" the Philippines by ending years of
 - A. slaverv.
 - **B.** dictatorship.
 - **C.** business corruption.
 - **D.** unchecked pollution.



For additional test practice, go online for:

- Diagnostic tests
- Strategies
- Tutorials

Interact with History

On page 996, you discussed the most important areas to address in building a new nation. Now that you have read about the efforts by so many former colonies to forge new countries, do you think that you focused on the right areas? Work as a class to identify the main factors that determine whether a new nation struggles or thrives. Be sure to cite specific examples from the text.

FOCUS ON WRITING

POWER AND AUTHORITY Select one of the leaders discussed in this chapter. Review the decisions the leader made while in power. Write an evaluation of the leader's decisions and his or her impact on the country. Consider the following:

- the leader's views on government and democracy
- · the leader's handling of the economy
- the leader's accomplishments and failures

MULTIMEDIA ACTIVITY



Creating a Database

Use the Internet, library, and other reference materials to create a database showing the economic growth of any four countries discussed in this chapter. Create one table for each country, with column headings for each measure of economic growth you chose to record and row headings for each 10-year period. Then insert the most current data you can find. Consider the following questions to get started.

- What statistics will be most useful in making comparisons between nations?
- Which nations have capitalist economies? What other types of economies did you discover?
- Which nations have "one crop" economies?

CHAPTER 35

Struggles for Democracy, 1945-Present

Essential Question

How did China and nations in Latin America, Africa, and the former Soviet bloc struggle for democracy?



What You Will Learn

In this chapter you will learn about the struggles for change in Latin America, Africa, the former Soviet bloc, and China.

SECTION 1 Democracy Case Study: Latin American Democracies

Main Idea In Latin America, economic problems and authoritarian rule delayed democracy.

SECTION 2 The Challenge of Democracy in Africa

Main Idea As the recent histories of Nigeria and South Africa show, ethnic and racial conflicts can hinder democracy.

SECTION 3 The Collapse of the Soviet Union

Main Idea Democratic reforms brought important changes to the Soviet Union.

SECTION 4 Changes in Central and Eastern Europe

Main Idea Changes in the Soviet Union led to changes throughout Central and Eastern Furnne

SECTION 5 China: Reform and Reaction

Main Idea In response to contact with the West, China's government has experimented with capitalism but has rejected calls for democracy.

Previewing Themes

ECONOMICS Many nations, such as Brazil, Poland, Russia, and China, discovered that economic stability is important for democratic progress.

Geography Which type of government seems to predominate in the Western Hemisphere?

REVOLUTION In 1989, revolutions overthrew Communist governments in the Soviet Union and Central and Eastern Europe. In China, the Communist government and the army put down a student protest calling for democracy.

Geography Which two countries in the Eastern Hemisphere are still Communist?

CULTURAL INTERACTION Chinese students imported democratic ideas from the West. Democratic reforms spread across Central and Eastern Europe, causing Communist governments to fall.

Geography Which type of government predominates in the labeled countries of Europe?

1948

1948

South Africa imposes apartheid policy of racial discrimination.



1959

◀ Fidel Castro seizes power in Cuba.

1967

Nigerian civil war begins.

WORLD

IISA

...

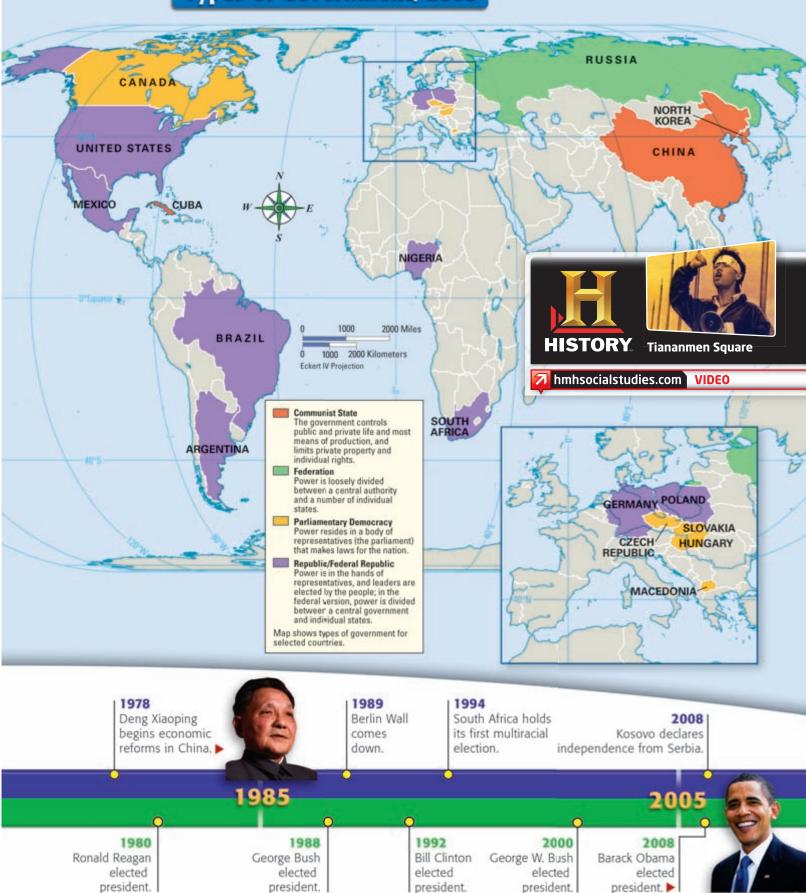
Harry Truman wins second term as president.



1969

Neil Armstrong walks on the moon in first lunar landing.

Types of Government, 2003



Interact with History

Why do so many people want democracy?

Your grandparents came to the United States because they wanted to live in a democracy. Although that was more than 50 years ago, you know that people in many parts of the world still seek democracy today. On the news, you watch stories about protesters, who are demanding more democracy and freedom. Their demonstrations are often led by students and sometimes help to bring about democratic reform.

One evening you and a friend are watching a news story about a leader who has promised his people greater democracy. What might you answer when your friend asks why so many people want democracy?



Protesters march in Caracas, Venezuela, in favor of democracy.

EXAMINING the ISSUES

- What rights and institutions are necessary for a government to be democratic?
- How do citizens participate in a democracy? How can participation be encouraged?

Discuss these questions in class and list important points on the board. For your discussion, consider what you know about democracy in ancient Greece and in the United States. As you read this chapter, think about the challenges many countries face in trying to develop democratic systems.



Democracy

CASE STUDY: Latin American Democracies

MAIN IDEA

ECONOMICS In Latin America, economic problems and authoritarian rule delayed democracy.

WHY IT MATTERS NOW

By the mid-1990s, almost all Latin American nations had democratic governments.

TERMS & NAMES

- Brasília
- · recession
- land reform
 PRI
- standard of living

SETTING THE STAGE By definition, democracy is government by the people. Direct democracy, in which all citizens meet to pass laws, is not practical for nations. Therefore, democratic nations developed indirect democracies, or republics, in which citizens elect representatives to make laws for them. For example, the United States is a republic. But democracy is more than a form of government. It is also a way of life and an ideal goal. A democratic way of life includes practices such as free and open elections.

Democracy As a Goal

The chart below lists four practices in a democracy, together with conditions that help these democratic practices succeed. Many nations follow these practices to a large degree. However, establishing democracy is a process that takes years.

Even in the United States, the establishment of democracy has taken time. Although the principle of equality is part of the Constitution, many Americans have struggled for equal rights. To cite one example, women did not receive the right to vote until 1920. Democracy is always a "work in progress."



Use the graphic organizer online to take notes on the steps Brazil, Mexico, and Argentina have taken toward democracy.

Making Democracy Work		
Common	Conditions That Foster Those Practices	
Free elections	Having more than one political party Universal suffrage—all adult citizens can vote	
Citizen participation	 High levels of education and literacy Economic security Freedoms of speech, press, and assembly	
Majority rule, minority rights	 All citizens equal before the law Shared national identity Protection of such individual rights as freedom of religion Representatives elected by citizens to carry out their will 	
Constitutional government	 Clear body of traditions and laws on which government is-based Widespread education about how government works National acceptance of majority decisions Shared belief that no one is above the law 	

Democratic institutions may not ensure stable, civilian government if other conditions are not present. The participation of a nation's citizens in government is essential to democracy. Education and literacy—the ability to read and write—give citizens the tools they need to make political decisions. Also, a stable economy with a strong middle class and opportunities for advancement helps democracy. It does so by giving citizens a stake in the future of their nation.

Other conditions advance democracy. First, a firm belief in the rights of the individual promotes the fair and equal treatment of citizens. Second, rule by law helps prevent leaders from abusing power without fear of punishment. Third, a sense of national identity helps encourage citizens to work together for the good of the nation.

The struggle to establish democracy continued into the 21st century as many nations abandoned authoritarian rule for democratic institutions. However, a United Nations study released in July 2002 warned that the spread of democracy around the world could be derailed if free elections in poor countries are not followed by economic growth. The UN Development Program's annual report warned particularly about Latin America.

CASE STUDY: Brazil

Dictators and Democracy

Many Latin American nations won their independence from Spain and Portugal in the early 1800s. However, three centuries of colonial rule left many problems. These included powerful militaries, economies that were too dependent on a single crop, and large gaps between rich and poor. These patterns persisted in the modern era.

After gaining independence from Portugal in 1822, Brazil became a monarchy. This lasted until 1889, when Brazilians established a republican government, which a wealthy elite controlled. Then, in the 1930s, Getulio Vargas became dictator. Vargas suppressed political opposition. At the same time, however, he promoted economic growth and helped turn Brazil into a modern industrial nation.

Kubitschek's Ambitious Program After Vargas, three popularly elected presidents tried to steer Brazil toward democracy. Juscelino Kubitschek (zhoo•suh•LEE•nuh-KOO•bih•chehk), who governed from 1956 to 1961, continued to develop Brazil's economy. Kubitschek encouraged foreign investment to help pay for development projects. He built a new capital city, **Brasília** (bruh•ZIHL•yuh), in the country's interior. Kubitschek's dream proved expensive. The nation's foreign debt soared and inflation shot up.

Kubitschek's successors proposed reforms to ease economic and social problems. Conservatives resisted this strongly. They especially opposed the plan for **land reform**—breaking up large estates and distributing that land to peasants. In 1964, with the blessing of wealthy Brazilians, the army seized power in a military coup. **B**

Military Dictators For two decades military dictators ruled Brazil. Emphasizing economic growth, the generals fostered foreign investment. They began huge development projects in the Amazon jungle. The economy boomed.

The boom had a downside, though. The government froze wages and cut back on social programs. This caused a decline in the **standard of living**, or level of material comfort, which is judged by the amount of goods people have. When Brazilians protested, the government imposed censorship. It also jailed, tortured, and sometimes killed government critics. Nevertheless, opposition to military rule continued to grow.

The Road to Democracy By the early 1980s, a <u>recession</u>, or slowdown in the economy, gripped Brazil. At that point, the generals decided to open up the political system. They allowed direct elections of local, state, and national officials.

MAIN IDEA

Making Inferences

A Why would democracy suffer if citizens didn't participate?

hmhsocialstudies.com INTERACTIVE MAP

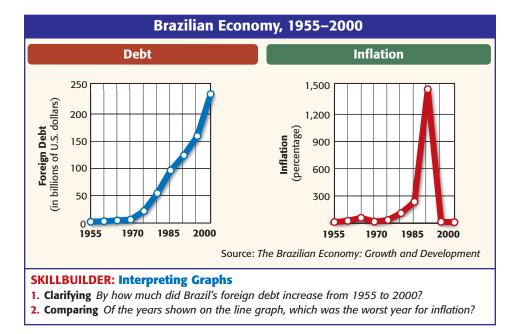
Learn about the turmoil in Latin America, from 1945 to the present.

MAIN IDEA

Analyzing Motives

B Why might the wealthy have preferred military rule to land reform?





In 1985, a new civilian president, José Sarney (zhoh•ZAY SAHR•nay), took office. Sarney inherited a country in crisis because of foreign debt and inflation. He proved unable to solve the country's problems and lost support. The next elected president fared even worse. He resigned because of corruption charges. \bigcirc

In 1994 and again in 1998, Brazilians elected Fernando Henrique Cardoso, who achieved some success in tackling the nation's economic and political problems. Although trained as a Marxist scholar, Cardoso became a strong advocate of free markets. One of his main concerns was the widening income gap in Brazil. He embarked on a program to promote economic reform.

The 2002 Presidential Election In the presidential election of October 2002, Cardoso's handpicked successor to lead his centrist coalition was José Serra. Serra faced two candidates who proposed a sharp break with Cardoso's pro-business policies. These candidates included Luiz Inácio Lula da Silva, a candidate of the leftist Workers Party.

An economic crisis hit many countries in South America, including Brazil, in 2002. Because of stalled economic growth, rising unemployment, and poverty, there was a backlash against free-market economic policies. This made the election of 2002 a close contest. Da Silva, the leftist candidate, won the hotly disputed election, defeating the ruling party candidate, Serra. Da Silva, who was reelected in 2006, has proved a more moderate president than his supporters and opponents had expected. Although Brazil faces many challenges, it continues on the path of democracy.

CASE STUDY: Mexico

One-Party Rule

Unlike Brazil, Mexico enjoyed relative political stability for most of the 20th century. Following the Mexican Revolution, the government passed the Constitution of 1917. The new constitution outlined a democracy and promised reforms.

Beginnings of One-Party Domination From 1920 to 1934, Mexico elected several generals as president. However, these men did not rule as military dictators. They did create a ruling party—the National Revolutionary Party, which dominated Mexico under various names for the rest of the 20th century.

MAIN IDEA

Analyzing Issues

• In your opinion, which of the problems faced by Sarney was worse? Explain. From 1934 to 1940, President Lázaro Cárdenas (KAHR•day•nahs) tried to improve life for peasants and workers. He carried out land reform and promoted labor rights. He nationalized the Mexican oil industry, kicking out foreign oil companies and creating a state-run oil industry. After Cárdenas, however, a series of more conservative presidents turned away from reform.

The Party Becomes the PRI In 1946, the main political party changed its name to the Institutional Revolutionary Party, or **PRI**. In the half-century that followed, the PRI became the main force for political stability in Mexico.

Although stable, the government was an imperfect democracy. The PRI controlled the congress and won every presidential election. The government allowed opposition parties to compete, but fraud and corruption tainted the elections.

Even as the Mexican economy rapidly developed, Mexico continued to suffer severe economic problems. Lacking land and jobs, millions of Mexicans struggled for survival. In addition, a huge foreign debt forced the government to spend money on interest payments. Two episodes highlighted Mexico's growing difficulties. In the late 1960s, students and workers began calling for economic and political change. On October 2, 1968, protesters gathered at the site of an ancient Aztec market in Mexico City. Soldiers hidden in the ruins opened fire on the protesters. The massacre claimed several hundred lives.

A second critical episode occurred during the early 1980s. By that time, huge new oil and natural gas reserves had been discovered in Mexico. The economy had become dependent on oil and gas exports. In 1981, world oil prices fell, cutting Mexico's oil and gas revenues in half. Mexico went into an economic decline. D

Economic and Political Crises The 1980s and 1990s saw Mexico facing various crises. In 1988, opposition parties challenged the PRI in national elections. The PRI candidate, Carlos Salinas, won the presidency. Even so, opposition parties won seats in the congress and began to force a gradual opening of the political system.

MAIN IDEA Recognizing Effects

D Why does overreliance on one product weaken an economy?

> Analyzing Political Cartoons

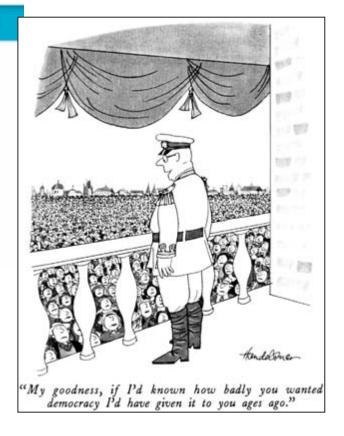
Military Rule and Democracy

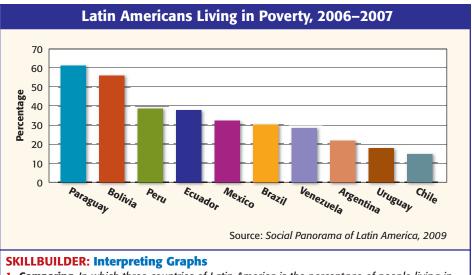
Throughout the 20th century, many Latin American countries were ruled by military dictators or political bosses. Most typically, the dictator's support came from the wealthy and the military. But sometimes the dictator's support came from the people.

SKILLBUILDER:

Interpreting Visual Sources

- 1. Drawing Conclusions Do dictators typically take into account the opinions of the people they rule?
- 2. Making Inferences What does this cartoon suggest about the dictator's attitude toward the opinion of the people he rules?





- 1. Comparing In which three countries of Latin America is the percentage of people living in poverty the lowest?
- 2. Comparing In which three countries is the poverty rate highest?

During his presidency, Salinas signed NAFTA, the North American Free Trade Agreement. NAFTA removed trade barriers between Mexico, the United States, and Canada. In early 1994, peasant rebels in the southern Mexican state of Chiapas (chee•AH•pahs) staged a major uprising. Shortly afterward, a gunman assassinated Luis Donaldo Colosio, the PRI presidential candidate for the upcoming election.

The PRI Loses Control After these events, Mexicans grew increasingly concerned about the prospects for democratic stability. Nevertheless, the elections of 1994 went ahead. The new PRI candidate, Ernesto Zedillo (zuh•DEE•yoh), won. Opposition parties continued to challenge the PRI.

In 1997, two opposition parties each won a large number of congressional seats, denying the PRI control of congress. Then, in 2000, Mexican voters ended 71 years of PRI rule by electing center-right candidate Vicente Fox as president.

New Policies and Programs Fox's agenda was very ambitious. He advocated reforming the police, rooting out political corruption, ending the rebellion in Chiapas, and opening up Mexico's economy to free-market forces.

Fox also argued that the United States should legalize the status of millions of illegal Mexican immigrant workers. Fox hoped that a negotiated agreement between the United States and Mexico would provide amnesty for these undocumented Mexican workers in the United States. After Felipe Calderon, a conservative, was elected president in 2006, he continued many of Fox's policies. However, tensions between the Mexican and U.S. governments grew over Washington's plan to build a fence along the two countries' border.



▲ Former president Vicente Fox of Mexico

CASE STUDY: Argentina

Political and Economic Disorder

Mexico and Brazil were not the only Latin American countries where democracy had made progress. By the late 1990s, most of Latin America was under democratic rule.

Perón Rules Argentina Argentina had struggled to establish democracy. It was a major exporter of grain and beef. It was also an industrial nation with a large working class. In 1946, Argentine workers supported an army officer, Juan Perón, who won the presidency and then established a dictatorship.

Vocabulary

welfare state: a government that tries to provide for all its citizens' needs including health, education, and employment

and his enemies—the military and the Catholic Church—moved against him. In 1955, the military ousted Perón and drove him into exile. **Repression in Argentina** For many years, the military essentially controlled Argentine politics. Perón returned to power once more, in 1973, but ruled for only a year before dying in office. By the mid-1970s, Argentina was in chaos.

In 1976, the generals seized power again. They established a brutal dictatorship and hunted down political opponents. For several years, torture and murder were everyday events. By the early 1980s, several thousand Argentines had simply disappeared, kidnapped by their own government.

Perón did not rule alone. He received critical support from his wife, Eva—known as Evita to the millions of Argentines who idolized her. Together, the Peróns

created a welfare state. The state offered social programs with broad popular

appeal but limited freedoms. After Eva's death in 1952, Perón's popularity declined

Democracy and the Economy In 1982, the military government went to war with Britain over the nearby Falkland Islands and suffered a defeat. Disgraced, the generals agreed to step down. In 1983, Argentines elected Raúl Alfonsín (ahl•fohn•SEEN) president in the country's first free election in 37 years. During the 1980s, Alfonsín worked to rebuild democracy and the economy.

Carlos Menem gained the presidency in 1989 and continued the process. He attempted to stabilize the currency and privatize industry. By the late 1990s, however, economic problems intensified as the country lived beyond its means. **A Growing Crisis** In December 2001, the International Monetary Fund (IMF) refused to provide financial aid to Argenting. Then President Fernando de la Rua

A Growing Crisis In December 2001, the International Monetary Fund (IMF) refused to provide financial aid to Argentina. Then President Fernando de la Rua resigned in the face of protests over the economy. He was succeeded by Eduardo Duhalde, who tried to deal with the economic and social crisis. In 2002, Argentina had an unemployment rate of about 24 percent. The country defaulted on \$132 billion in debt, the largest debt default in history, and devalued its currency. In 2003, under then president Nestor Kirchner, the nation renegotiated its debt with the IMF. In 2006, Argentina successfully repaid its debt.



▲ Eva Perón

MAIN IDEA Analyzing Causes

What finally caused military rule to end in Argentina?

SECTION



ASSESSMENT

TERMS & NAMES 1. For each term or name, write a sentence explaining its significance.

- Brasília
- · land reform
- standard of living
- recession
- PRI

USING YOUR NOTES

2. Which country do you think has made the most progress? Explain.

Nation	Steps toward
	democracy
Brazil	
Mexico	
Argentina	

MAIN IDEAS

- 3. What role did the military play in shaping the economy of Brazil?
- **4.** What were some of the positive benefits of one-party rule in Mexico?
- 5. What effect did the Falklands war have on the military government in Argentina?

CRITICAL THINKING & WRITING

- 6. COMPARING AND CONTRASTING Compare and contrast the roles of the military in the governments of Brazil, Mexico, and Argentina.
- **7. SYNTHESIZING** What have been some of the obstacles to democracy in Latin America?
- **8. DEVELOPING HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE** What are some of the attributes of democracy?
- **9. WRITING ACTIVITY ECONOMICS** What might be the effect of a welfare state (such as that created in Argentina by the Peróns) on a nation's economy? Support your opinions in a two-paragraph **essay**.

CONNECT TO TODAY MAKING A GRAPH

Research the economies of Mexico, Brazil, and Argentina to determine which is doing the best. Present your findings in a **graph.**



The Challenge of Democracy in Africa

MAIN IDEA

WHY IT MATTERS NOW

TERMS & NAMES

REVOLUTION As the recent histories of Nigeria and South Africa show, ethnic and racial conflicts can hinder democracy.

In 1996, as Nigeria struggled with democracy, South Africa adopted a bill of rights that promotes racial equality.

- federal system
- apartheidNelson
- martial lawdissident

Mandela

SETTING THE STAGE Beginning in the late 1950s, dozens of European colonies in Africa gained their independence and became nations. As in Latin America, the establishment of democracy in Africa proved difficult. In many cases, the newly independent nations faced a host of problems that slowed their progress toward democracy. The main reason for Africa's difficulties was the negative impact of colonial rule. European powers had done little to prepare their African colonies for independence.

Colonial Rule Limits Democracy



Use the graphic organizer online to take notes on the political events in Nigeria and South Africa.

The lingering effects of colonialism undermined efforts to build stable, democratic economies and states. This can be seen throughout Africa.

European Policies Cause Problems When the Europeans established colonial boundaries, they ignored existing ethnic or cultural divisions. New borders divided peoples of the same background or threw different—often rival—groups together. Because of this, a sense of national identity was difficult to develop. After independence, the old colonial boundaries became the borders of the newly independent states. As a result, ethnic and cultural conflicts remained.

Other problems had an economic basis. European powers had viewed colonies as sources of wealth for the home country. The colonial powers encouraged the export of one or two cash crops, such as coffee or rubber, rather than the production of a range of products to serve local needs. Europeans developed plantations and mines but few factories. Manufactured goods were imported from European countries. These policies left new African nations with unbalanced economies and a small middle class. Such economic problems lessened their chances to create democratic stability.

European rule also disrupted African family and community life. In some cases, colonial powers moved Africans far from their families and villages to work in mines or on plantations. In addition, most newly independent nations still lacked a skilled, literate work force that could take on the task of building a new nation.

Short-Lived Democracies When Britain and France gave up their colonies, they left fragile democratic governments in place. Soon problems threatened those governments. Rival ethnic groups often fought for power. Strong militaries became tools for ambitious leaders. In many cases, a military dictatorship replaced democracy.



Civil War in Nigeria

Nigeria, a former British colony, won its independence peacefully in 1960. Nigeria is Africa's most populous country and one of its richest. However, the country was ethnically divided. This soon created problems that led to war.

A Land of Many Peoples Three major ethnic groups live within Nigeria's borders. In the north are the Hausa-Fulani, who are mostly Muslim. In the south are the Yoruba and the Igbo (also called Ibo), who are mostly Christians, Muslims, or animists, who believe that spirits are present in animals, plants, and natural objects. The Yoruba, a farming people with a tradition of kings, live to the west. The Igbo, a farming people who have a democratic tradition, live to the east.

After independence, Nigeria adopted a **federal system**. In a federal system, power is shared between state governments and a central authority. The Nigerians set up three states, one for each region and ethnic group, with a political party in each.

War with Biafra Although one group dominated each state, the states also had ethnic minorities. In the Western Region, non-Yoruba minorities began to resent Yoruba control. In 1963, they tried to break away and form their own region. This led to fighting. In January 1966, a group of army officers, most of them Igbo, seized power in the capital city of Lagos. These officers abolished the regional governments and declared **martial law**, or temporary military rule.

The Hausa-Fulani, who did not trust the Igbo, launched an attack from the north. They persecuted and killed many Igbo. The survivors fled east. In 1967, the Eastern Region seceded from Nigeria, declaring itself the new nation of Biafra (bee•AF•ruh).

The Nigerian government then went to war to reunite the country. The Igbo were badly outnumbered and outgunned. In 1970, Biafra surrendered. Nigeria was reunited, but perhaps more than a million Igbo died, most from starvation. A)

MAIN IDEA Recognizing **Effects** A) What was the effect of the war on the Igbo?

Nigeria's Nation-Building

After the war, Nigerians returned to the process of nation-building. "When the war ended," noted one officer, "it was like a referee blowing a whistle in a football game. People just put down their guns and went back to the business of living." The Nigerian government did not punish the Igbo. It used federal money to rebuild the Igbo region.

Federal Government Restored The military governed Nigeria for most of the 1970s. During this time, Nigerian leaders tried to create a more stable federal system, with a strong central government and a number of regional units. The government also tried to build a more modern economy, based on oil income.

In 1979, the military handed power back to civilian rulers. Nigerians were cheered by the return to democracy. Some people, however, remained concerned about ethnic divisions in the nation. Nigerian democracy was short-lived. In 1983, the military overthrew the civilian government, charging it with corruption. A new military regime, dominated by the Hausa-Fulani, took charge.

A Return to Civilian Rule In the years that followed, the military governed Nigeria, while promising to bring back civilian rule. The army held elections in 1993, which resulted in the victory of popular leader Moshood Abiola. However, officers declared the results invalid, and a dictator, General Sani Abacha, took control.

General Abacha banned political activity and jailed **dissidents**, or government opponents. Upon Abacha's death in 1998, General Abdulsalami Abubakar seized power and promised to end military rule. He kept his word. In 1999, Nigerians elected their first civilian president, Olusegun Obasanjo, in nearly 20 years. In 2003, Obasanjo was reelected.

Analyzing Primary Sources

Ken Saro-Wiwa

On November 10, 1995, Nigeria hanged nine political prisoners—all critics of the military government. Many around the world believed the nine were convicted on false charges to silence them. One of the nine was Ken Saro-Wiwa, a noted writer and activist. Shortly before his death, Saro-Wiwa smuggled several manuscripts out of prison.

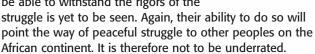
DOCUMENT-BASED QUESTIONS

- 1. Drawing Conclusions What do Saro-Wiwa's imprisonment and execution suggest about the government of the military dictator, General Sani Abacha?
- **2. Making Inferences** What seems to be Saro-Wiwa's attitude toward his persecutors?

PRIMARY SOURCE

Injustice stalks the land like a tiger on the prowl. To be at the mercy of buffoons [fools] is the ultimate insult. To find the instruments of state power reducing you to dust is the injury. . . .

It is also very important that we have chosen the path of non-violent struggle. Our opponents are given to violence and we cannot meet them on their turf, even if we wanted to. Non-violent struggle offers weak people the strength which they otherwise would not have. The spirit becomes important, and no gun can silence that. I am aware, though, that non-violent struggle occasions more death than armed struggle. And that remains a cause for worry at all times. Whether the Ogoni people will be able to withstand the rigors of the



KEN SARO-WIWA, A Month and a Day: A Detention Diary

Civilian Presidents Obasanjo was an ethnic Yoruba from southwest Nigeria. As a critic of Nigerian military regimes, he had spent three years in jail (1995–1998) under Sani Abacha. As a former general, Obasanjo had the support of the military.

Obasanjo worked for a strong, unified Nigeria. He made some progress in his battle against corruption. He also attempted to draw the attention of the world to the need for debt relief for Nigeria. Obasanjo saw debt relief as essential to the relief of hunger and the future of democracy in Africa.

The controversial 2007 elections brought President Umaru Yar'Adua to power. Like his mentor Mr. Obasanjo, President Yar'Adua faced a variety of problems. These included war, violence, corruption, poverty, pollution, and hunger. In addition, militant groups are threatening Nigeria's oil exports and economic growth.

South Africa Under Apartheid

In South Africa, racial conflict was the result of colonial rule. From its beginnings under Dutch and British control, South Africa was racially divided. A small white minority ruled a large black majority. In 1910, South Africa gained self-rule as a dominion of the British Empire. In 1931, it became an independent member of the British Commonwealth. Although South Africa had a constitutional government, the constitution gave whites power and denied the black majority its rights.

Apartheid Segregates Society In 1948, the National Party came to power in South Africa. This party promoted Afrikaner, or Dutch South African, nationalism. It also instituted a policy of apartheid, complete separation of the races. The minority government banned social contacts between whites and blacks. It established segregated schools, hospitals, and neighborhoods.

In 1959, the minority government set up reserves, called homelands, for the country's major black groups. Blacks were forbidden to live in white areas unless they worked as servants or laborers for whites. The homelands policy was totally unbalanced. Although blacks made up about 75 percent of the population, the government set aside only 13 percent of the land for them. Whites kept the best land. **B**)

Blacks Protest The blacks of South Africa resisted the controls imposed by the white

minority. In 1912, they formed the African National Congress (ANC) to fight for their rights. The ANC organized strikes and boycotts to protest racist policies. The government banned the ANC and imprisoned many of its members. One was ANC leader Nelson Mandela (man•DEHL•uh).

The troubles continued. In 1976, riots over school policies broke out in the black township of Soweto, leaving about 600 students dead. In 1977, police beat popular protest leader Stephen Biko to death while he was in custody. As protests mounted, the government declared a nationwide state of emergency in 1986.

▼ A young South African poll worker helps an elderly man to vote in the first election open to citizens of all races.



MAIN IDEA Making **Inferences B** How did the policy of apartheid strengthen whites'

hold on power?

Struggle for Democracy

By the late 1980s, South Africa was under great pressure to change. For years, a black South African bishop, Desmond Tutu, had led an economic campaign against apartheid. He asked foreign nations not to do business with South Africa. In response, many nations imposed trade restrictions. They also isolated South Africa in other ways, for example, by banning South Africa from the Olympic Games. (In 1984, Tutu won the Nobel Peace Prize for his nonviolent methods.)

The First Steps In 1989, white South Africans elected a new president, F. W. de Klerk. His goal was to transform South Africa and end its isolation. In February 1990, he legalized the ANC and also released Nelson Mandela from prison.

MAIN IDEA

Recognizing Effects

C How did Desmond Tutu help force South Africa to end apartheid?

History Makers



Nelson Mandela 1918–

Nelson Mandela has said that he first grew interested in politics when he heard elders in his village describe how freely his people lived before whites came. Inspired to help his people regain that freedom, Mandela trained as a lawyer and

became a top official in the ANC. Convinced that apartheid would never end peacefully, he joined the armed struggle against white rule. For this, he was imprisoned for 27 years.

After his presidential victory, Mandela continued to work to heal his country.



F. W. de Klerk 1936-

Like Mandela, Frederik W. de Klerk also trained as a lawyer. Born to an Afrikaner family with close links to the National Party, de Klerk was elected to Parliament in 1972.

A firm party loyalist, de Klerk backed apartheid but was also open to

reform. Friends say that his flexibility on racial issues stemmed from his relatively liberal religious background.

In 1993, de Klerk and Mandela were jointly awarded the Nobel Peace Prize for their efforts to bring democracy to South Africa.

hmhsocialstudies.com

RESEARCH WEB LINKS Go online for more on Nelson Mandela and F.W. de Klerk.

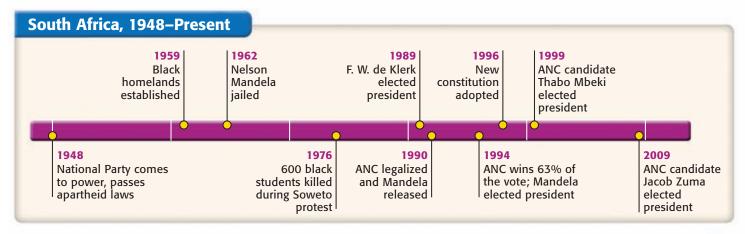
These dramatic actions marked the beginning of a new era in South Africa. Over the next 18 months, the South African parliament repealed apartheid laws that had segregated public facilities and restricted land ownership by blacks. World leaders welcomed these changes and began to ease restrictions on South Africa.

Although some legal barriers had fallen, others would remain until a new constitution was in place. First, the country needed to form a multiracial government. After lengthy negotiations, President de Klerk agreed to hold South Africa's first universal elections, in which people of all races could vote, in April 1994.

Majority Rule Among the candidates for president were F. W. de Klerk and Nelson Mandela. During the campaign, the Inkatha Freedom Party—a rival party to the ANC—threatened to disrupt the process. Nevertheless, the vote went smoothly. South Africans of all races peacefully waited at the polls in long lines. To no one's surprise, the ANC won 63 percent of the vote. They won 252 of 400 seats in the National Assembly (the larger of the two houses in Parliament). Mandela was elected president. Mandela stepped down in 1999, but the nation's democratic government continued.

A New Constitution In 1996, after much debate, South African lawmakers passed a new, more democratic constitution. It guaranteed equal rights for all citizens. The constitution included a bill of rights modeled on the U.S. Bill of Rights. The political changes that South Africa had achieved gave other peoples around the world great hope for the future of democracy.

South Africa Today In 1999, ANC official Thabo Mbeki won election as president in a peaceful transition of power. As Mbeki assumed office, he faced a number of serious challenges. These included high crime rates—South Africa's





▲ This was South Africa's flag from 1927 to 1994.

rape and murder rates were among the highest in the world. Unemployment stood at about 40 percent among South Africa's blacks, and about 60 percent lived below the poverty level. In addition, an economic downturn discouraged foreign investment.

Mbeki promoted a free-market economic policy to repair South Africa's infrastructure and to encourage foreign investors. In 2002, South Africa was engaged in negotiations to establish free-trade agreements with a number of countries around the world, including those of the European Union as well as Japan, Canada, and the United States. This was an attempt at opening the South African economy to foreign competition and investment, and promoting growth and employment.

One of the biggest problems facing South Africa was the AIDS epidemic. Some estimates concluded that 6 million South Africans were likely to die of AIDS by 2010. Mbeki disputed that AIDS was caused by HIV (human immunodeficiency virus). His opinion put South Africa at odds with the scientific consensus throughout the world. However, in 2009, South African president Jacob Zuma broadened the country's AIDS policy.

In Section 3, you will read how democratic ideas changed another part of the world, the Communist Soviet Union.



▲ South Africa adopted this flag in 1994.

SECTION

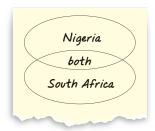
ASSESSMENT

TERMS & NAMES 1. For each term or name, write a sentence explaining its significance.

- federal system
- martial law
- dissident
- apartheid
- Nelson Mandela

USING YOUR NOTES

2. Which country is more democratic? Explain.



MAIN IDEAS

- 3. What effect did old colonial boundaries have on newly independent African states?
- 4. What was the outcome of the war between Nigeria and Biafra?
- 5. What were the homelands in South Africa?

CRITICAL THINKING & WRITING

- 6. IDENTIFYING PROBLEMS What do you think is the main problem that Nigeria must overcome before it can establish a democratic government?
- 7. ANALYZING ISSUES What are some of the important issues facing South Africa today?
- 8. RECOGNIZING EFFECTS What were the main negative effects of the economic policies of European colonizers?
- 9. WRITING ACTIVITY REVOLUTION Working in small teams, write biographies of South African leaders who were instrumental in the revolutionary overturn of apartheid. Include pictures if possible.

CONNECT TO TODAY MAKING AN ORAL REPORT

Do research on the current policy of Jacob Zuma and the South African government on HIV and AIDS in South Africa. Report your findings in an oral report to the class.

The Collapse of the Soviet Union

MAIN IDEA

WHY IT MATTERS NOW

TERMS & NAMES

REVOLUTION Democratic reforms brought important changes to the Soviet Union.

Russia continues to struggle to establish democracy.

- Politburo
- · Boris Yeltsin
- Mikhail Gorbachev
- CIS"shock
- glasnost
- therapy"
- perestroika

SETTING THE STAGE After World War II, the Soviet Union and the United States engaged in a Cold War, which you read about in Chapter 33. Each tried to increase its worldwide influence. The Soviet Union extended its power over much of Eastern Europe. By the 1960s, it appeared that communism was permanently established in the region. During the 1960s and 1970s, the Soviet Union's Communist leadership kept tight control over the Soviet people. But big changes, including democratic reforms, were on the horizon.

Gorbachev Moves Toward Democracy



Use the graphic organizer online to take notes on significant events in the Soviet Union and Russia.

Soviet premier Leonid Brezhnev and the **Politburo**—the ruling committee of the Communist Party—crushed all political disagreement. Censors decided what writers could publish. The Communist Party also restricted freedom of speech and worship. After Brezhnev's death in 1982, the aging leadership of the Soviet Union tried to hold on to power. However, each of Brezhnev's two successors died after only about a year in office. Who would succeed them?

A Younger Leader To answer that question, the Politburo debated between two men. One was <u>Mikhail Gorbachev</u> (mih•KYL-GAWR•buh•chawf). Gorbachev's supporters praised his youth, energy, and political skills. With their backing, Gorbachev became the party's new general secretary. In choosing him, Politburo members did not realize they were unleashing another Russian Revolution.

The Soviet people welcomed Gorbachev's election. At 54, he was the youngest Soviet leader since Stalin. Gorbachev was only a child during Stalin's ruthless purge of independent-minded party members. Unlike other Soviet leaders, Gorbachev decided to pursue new ideas.

Glasnost Promotes Openness Past Soviet leaders had created a totalitarian state. It rewarded silence and discouraged individuals from acting on their own. As a result, Soviet society rarely changed, and the Soviet economy stagnated. Gorbachev realized that economic and social reforms could not occur without a free flow of ideas and information. In 1985, he announced a policy known as **glasnost** (GLAHS•nuhst), or openness.

Glasnost brought remarkable changes. The government allowed churches to open. It released dissidents from prison and allowed the publication of books by previously banned authors. Reporters investigated problems and criticized officials.

Analyzing Political Cartoons

Glasnost

Mikhail Gorbachev's policies of glasnost and perestroika shook up the traditional way of doing things in the Soviet economy and in the society at large.

SKILLBUILDER:

Interpreting Visual Sources

- 1. Making Inferences One arrow points down the road toward stagnation. Where is the other arrow, pointing in the opposite direction, likely to lead?
- 2. Drawing Conclusions Why might the Soviet Union look different to the figure in the cartoon?



Reforming the Economy and Politics

The new openness allowed Soviet citizens to complain about economic problems. Consumers protested that they had to stand in lines to buy food and other basics.

Economic Restructuring Gorbachev blamed these problems on the Soviet Union's inefficient system of central planning. Under central planning, party officials told farm and factory managers how much to produce. They also told them what wages to pay and what prices to charge. Because individuals could not increase their pay by producing more, they had little motive to improve efficiency. A

In 1985, Gorbachev introduced the idea of **perestroika** (PEHR•ih•STROY•kuh), or economic restructuring. In 1986, he made changes to revive the Soviet economy. Local managers gained greater authority over their farms and factories, and people were allowed to open small private businesses. Gorbachev's goal was not to throw out communism, but to make the economic system more efficient and productive.

Democratization Opens the Political System Gorbachev also knew that for the economy to improve, the Communist Party would have to loosen its grip on Soviet society and politics. In 1987, he unveiled a third new policy, called democratization. This would be a gradual opening of the political system.

The plan called for the election of a new legislative body. In the past, voters had merely approved candidates who were handpicked by the Communist Party. Now, voters could choose from a list of candidates for each office. The election produced many surprises. In several places, voters chose lesser-known candidates and reformers over powerful party bosses.

Foreign Policy Soviet foreign policy also changed. To compete militarily with the Soviet Union, President Ronald Reagan had begun the most expensive military buildup in peacetime history, costing more than \$2 trillion. Under pressure from U.S. military spending, Gorbachev realized that the Soviet economy could not afford the costly arms race. Arms control became one of Gorbachev's top priorities. In December 1987, he and Reagan signed the Intermediate-Range Nuclear Forces (INF) Treaty. This treaty banned nuclear missiles with ranges of 300 to 3,400 miles.

MAIN IDEA

Making **Inferences**

A) Why would it be inefficient for the central government to decide what should be produced all over the country?

The Soviet Union Faces Turmoil

Gorbachev's new thinking led him to support movements for change in both the economic and political systems within the Soviet Union. Powerful forces for democracy were building in the country, and Gorbachev decided not to oppose reform. Glasnost, perestroika, and democratization were all means to reform the system. However, the move to reform the Soviet Union ultimately led to its breakup.

Various nationalities in the Soviet Union began to call for their freedom. More than 100 ethnic groups lived in the Soviet Union. Russians were the largest, most powerful

group. However, non-Russians formed a majority in the 14 Soviet republics other than Russia.

Ethnic tensions brewed beneath the surface of Soviet society. As reforms loosened central controls, unrest spread across the country. Nationalist groups in Georgia, Ukraine, and Moldavia (now Moldova) demanded self-rule. The Muslim peoples of Soviet Central Asia

called for religious freedom.

Lithuania Defies Gorbachev The first challenge came from the Baltic nations of Lithuania, Estonia, and Latvia. These republics had been independent states between the two world wars, until the Soviets annexed them in 1940. Fifty years later, in March 1990, Lithuania declared its independence. To try to force it back into the Soviet Union, Gorbachev ordered an economic blockade of the republic.

Although Gorbachev was reluctant to use stronger measures, he feared that Lithuania's example might encourage other republics to secede. In January 1991, Soviet troops attacked unarmed civilians in Lithuania's capital. The army killed 14 and wounded hundreds.

Yeltsin Denounces Gorbachev The assault in Lithuania and the lack of economic progress damaged Gorbachev's popularity. People looked for leadership to **Boris Yeltsin**. He was a member of parliament and former mayor of Moscow. Yeltsin criticized the crackdown in Lithuania and the slow pace of reforms. In June 1991, voters chose Yeltsin to become the Russian Federation's first directly elected president.

In spite of their rivalry, Yeltsin and Gorbachev faced a common enemy in the old guard of Communist officials. Hard-liners—conservatives who opposed reform—were furious that Gorbachev had given up the Soviet Union's role as the dominant force in Eastern Europe. They also feared losing their power and privileges. These officials vowed to overthrow Gorbachev and undo his reforms.

History Makers



Mikhail Gorbachev 1931-

Mikhail Gorbachev's background shaped the role he would play in history. Both of his grandfathers were arrested during Stalin's purges. Both were eventually freed. However, Gorbachev

never forgot his grandfathers' stories.

After working on a state farm, Gorbachev studied law in Moscow and joined the Communist Party. As an official in a farming region, Gorbachev learned much about the Soviet system and its problems.

He advanced quickly in the party. When he became general secretary in 1985, he was the youngest Politburo member and a man who wanted to bring change. He succeeded. Although he pursued reform to save the Soviet Union, ultimately he triggered its breakup.



Boris Yeltsin 1931-2007

Boris Yeltsin was raised in poverty. For 10 years, his family lived in a single room.

As a youth, Yeltsin earned good grades but behaved badly. Mikhail Gorbachev named him party boss and mayor of

Moscow in 1985. Yeltsin's outspokenness got him into trouble. At one meeting, he launched into a bitter speech criticizing conservatives for working against perestroika. Gorbachev fired him for the sake of party unity.

Yeltsin made a dramatic comeback and won a seat in parliament in 1989. Parliament elected him president of Russia in 1990, and voters reelected him in 1991. Due at least in part to his failing health (heart problems), Yeltsin resigned in 1999.



The August Coup On August 18, 1991, the hardliners detained Gorbachev at his vacation home on the Black Sea. They demanded his resignation as Soviet president. Early the next day, hundreds of tanks and armored vehicles rolled into Moscow. However, the Soviet people had lost their fear of the party. They were willing to defend their freedoms. Protesters gathered at the Russian parliament building, where Yeltsin had his office.

Around midday, Yeltsin emerged and climbed atop one of the tanks. As his supporters cheered, Yeltsin declared, "We proclaim all decisions and decrees of this committee to be illegal. . . . We appeal to the citizens of Russia to . . . demand a return of the country to normal constitutional developments."

On August 20, the hardliners ordered troops to attack the parliament building, but they refused. Their refusal turned the tide. On August 21, the military withdrew its forces from Moscow. That night, Gorbachev returned to Moscow. **B**)

End of the Soviet Union The coup attempt sparked anger against the Communist Party. Gorbachev resigned as general secretary of the party. The Soviet parliament voted to stop all party activities. Having first seized power in 1917 in a coup that succeeded, the Communist Party now collapsed because of a coup that failed.

The coup also played a decisive role in accelerating the breakup of the Soviet Union. Estonia and Latvia quickly declared their independence. Other republics soon followed. Although Gorbachev pleaded for unity, no one was listening. By early December, all 15 republics had declared independence.

Yeltsin met with the leaders of other republics to chart a new course. They agreed to form the Commonwealth of Independent States, or CIS, a loose federation of former Soviet territories. Only the Baltic republics and Georgia declined to

MAIN IDEA

Analyzing Motives

B) Why do you think the Soviet troops refused the order to attack the parliament building?

join. The formation of the CIS meant the death of the Soviet Union. On Christmas Day 1991, Gorbachev announced his resignation as president of the Soviet Union, a country that ceased to exist.

Russia Under Boris Yeltsin

As president of the large Russian Federation, Boris Yeltsin was now the most powerful figure in the CIS. He would face many problems, including an ailing economy, tough political opposition, and an unpopular war.

Yeltsin Faces Problems One of Yeltsin's goals was to reform the Russian economy. He adopted a bold plan known as <u>"shock therapy,"</u> an abrupt shift to free-market economics. Yeltsin lowered trade barriers, removed price controls, and ended subsidies to state-owned industries.

Initially, the plan produced more shock than therapy. Prices soared; from 1992 to 1994, the inflation rate averaged 800 percent. Many factories dependent on government money had to cut production or shut down entirely. This forced thousands of people out of work. By 1993, most Russians were suffering economic hardship:

Vocabulary

subsidies: government funds given in support of industries

PRIMARY SOURCE

A visitor to Moscow cannot escape the feeling of a society in collapse. Child beggars accost foreigners on the street. . . . Children ask why they should stay in school when educated professionals do not make enough money to survive. . . . A garment worker complains that now her wages do not cover even the food bills, while fear of growing crime makes her dread leaving home.

DAVID M. KOTZ, "The Cure That Could Kill"

Economic problems fueled a political crisis. In October 1993, legislators opposed to Yeltsin's policies shut themselves inside the parliament building. Yeltsin ordered troops to bombard the building, forcing hundreds of rebel legislators to surrender. Many were killed. Opponents accused Yeltsin of acting like a dictator.

Chechnya Rebels Yeltsin's troubles included war in Chechnya (CHEHCH•nee•uh), a largely Muslim area in southwestern Russia. In 1991, Chechnya declared its independence, but Yeltsin denied the region's right to secede. In 1994, he ordered 40,000 Russian troops into the breakaway republic. Russian forces reduced the capital city of Grozny (GROHZ•nee) to rubble. News of the death and destruction sparked anger throughout Russia.

With an election coming, Yeltsin sought to end the war. In August 1996, the two sides signed a cease-fire. That year, Yeltsin won reelection. War soon broke out again between Russia and Chechnya, however. In 1999, as the fighting raged, Yeltsin resigned and named Vladimir Putin as acting president.

MAIN IDEA

Evaluating Decisions

Compare Yeltsin's action here to his actions during the August Coup. Which were more supportive of democracy?

▼ A Russian soldier throws away a spent shell case near the Chechnyan capital of Grozny.



Russia Under Vladimir Putin

Putin forcefully dealt with the rebellion in Chechnya—a popular move that helped him win the presidential election in 2000. Nonetheless, violence in the region continues.

Putin Struggles with Chechnya Putin's war in Chechnya helped draw terrorism into the Russian capital itself. In October 2002, Chechens seized a theater in Moscow, and more than 150 people died in the rescue attempt by Russian forces.

As the war in Chechnya dragged on, Russian popular support faded, and Putin moved to suppress his critics. The 2005 Chechen elections helped restore order, and as of 2010, under current Russian president, Dmitry Medvedev, the rebels had been largely quieted. But rebellion still simmers.

Economic, Political, and Social Problems Since the collapse of the Soviet Union, Russia has seen growth in homelessness, domestic violence, and unemployment, and a decrease in life expectancy. Some observers have wondered whether Russian democracy could survive. Putin's presidency has not settled the question. Russia has been moving towards greater participation in world trade by modernizing banking, insurance, and tax codes. At the same time, attacks on democratic institutions such as a free press have not built the world's confidence.

The histories of Russia and its European neighbors have always been intertwined. Unrest in the Soviet Union had an enormous impact on Central and Eastern Europe, as you will read in the next section.

History Makers



Vladimir Putin 1952-

Vladimir Putin worked for 15 years as an intelligence officer in the KGB (Committee for State Security). Six of those years were spent in East Germany. In 1990, at the age of 38, he retired from the KGB with the rank of lieutenant colonel.

In 1996, he moved to Moscow, where he joined the presidential staff. Eventually, Boris Yeltsin appointed Putin prime minister. When Yeltsin resigned at the end of 1999, he appointed Putin acting president. In 2000 and 2004, Putin won election as president. In 2008, he took the post of prime minister.



RESEARCH WEB LINKS Go online for more on Vladimir Putin.

SECTION

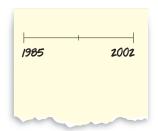
ASSESSMENT

TERMS & NAMES 1. For each term or name, write a sentence explaining its significance.

- Politburo
- Mikhail Gorbachev
- glasnost
- perestroika
- · Boris Yeltsin
- CIS
- · "shock therapy"

USING YOUR NOTES

2. In what year did the Soviet Union break apart?



MAIN IDEAS

- 3. What are some of the changes that Gorbachev made to the Soviet economy?
- 4. After the breakup of the Soviet Union, what problems did Yeltsin face as the president of the Russian Federation?
- 5. How did Putin deal with Chechnya?

CRITICAL THINKING & WRITING

- 6. SYNTHESIZING How did Gorbachev's reforms help to move the Soviet Union toward democracy?
- 7. ANALYZING ISSUES What were some of the problems that faced President Vladimir Putin in Russia?
- 8. COMPARING In what ways were the policies of Gorbachev, Yeltsin, and Putin similar?
- 9. WRITING ACTIVITY REVOLUTION It has been said that Gorbachev's reforms led to another Russian Revolution. In your opinion, what did this revolution overthrow? Support your opinion in a two-paragraph essay.

MULTIMEDIA ACTIVITY CREATING A POSTER



Use the Internet to research the situation in Chechnya today. Make a poster that includes a time line of the conflict, the leaders of the two sides, and war images.

INTERNET KEYWORD Chechnya



Changes in Central and Eastern Europe

MAIN IDEA

WHY IT MATTERS NOW

TERMS & NAMES

CULTURAL INTERACTION

Changes in the Soviet Union led to changes throughout Central and Eastern Europe.

Many Eastern European nations that overthrew Communist governments are still struggling with reform.

- SolidarityLech Walesa
- ethnic cleansing
- reunification

SETTING THE STAGE The Soviet reforms of the late 1980s brought high hopes to the people of Central and Eastern Europe. For the first time in decades, they were free to make choices about the economic and political systems governing their lives. However, they soon discovered that increased freedom sometimes challenges the social order. Mikhail Gorbachev's new thinking in the Soviet Union led him to urge Central and Eastern European leaders to open up their economic and political systems.

Poland and Hungary Reform



Use the graphic organizer online to take notes on the reasons that nations in Central and Eastern Europe broke apart.

The aging Communist rulers of Europe resisted reform. However, powerful forces for democracy were building in their countries. In the past, the threat of Soviet intervention had kept such forces in check. Now, Gorbachev was saying that the Soviet Union would not oppose reform.

Poland and Hungary were among the first countries in Eastern Europe to embrace the spirit of change. In 1980, Polish workers at the Gdansk shipyard went on strike, demanding government recognition of their union, **Solidarity**. When millions of Poles supported the action, the government gave in to the union's demands. Union leader **Lech Walesa** (lehk-vah•WEHN•sah) became a national hero.

Solidarity Defeats Communists The next year, however, the Polish government banned Solidarity again and declared martial law. The Communist Party discovered that military rule could not revive Poland's failing economy. In the 1980s, industrial production declined, while foreign debt rose to more than \$40 billion.

Public discontent deepened as the economic crisis worsened. In August 1988, defiant workers walked off their jobs. They demanded raises and the legalization of Solidarity. The military leader, General Jaruzelski (YAH•roo•ZEHL•skee), agreed to hold talks with Solidarity leaders. In April 1989, Jaruzelski legalized Solidarity and agreed to hold Poland's first free election since the Communists took power.

In elections during 1989 and 1990, Polish voters voted against Communists and overwhelmingly chose Solidarity candidates. They elected Lech Walesa president.

Poland Votes Out Walesa After becoming president in 1990, Lech Walesa tried to revive Poland's bankrupt economy. Like Boris Yeltsin, he adopted a strategy of shock therapy to move Poland toward a free-market economy. As in Russia, inflation and unemployment shot up. By the mid-1990s, the economy was improving.

Nevertheless, many Poles remained unhappy with the pace of economic progress. In the elections of 1995, they turned Walesa out of office in favor of a former Communist, Aleksander Kwasniewski (kfahs•N'YEHF•skee).

Poland Under Kwasniewski President Kwasniewski led Poland in its drive to become part of a broader European community. In 1999, Poland became a full member of NATO. As a NATO member, Poland provided strong support in the war against terrorism after the attack on the World Trade Center in New York on September 11, 2001.

In 2005 Lech Kaczynski of the conservative Law and Justice Party won the presidency. The following year Kaczynski's twin brother Jaroslaw became prime minister. The Kaczynskis have fought Poland's pervasive corruption, opposed rapid reforms of the free market, and supported the American-led campaign in Iraq.

Hungarian Communists Disband Inspired by the changes in Poland, Hungarian leaders launched a sweeping reform program. To stimulate economic growth, reformers encouraged private enterprise and allowed a small stock market to operate. A new constitution permitted a multiparty system with free elections.

The pace of change grew faster when radical reformers took over a Communist Party congress in October 1989. The radicals deposed the party's leaders and then dissolved the party itself. Here was another first: a European Communist Party had voted itself out of existence. A year later, in national elections, the nation's voters put a non-Communist government in power.

In 1994, a socialist party—largely made up of former Communists—won a majority of seats in Hungary's parliament. The socialist party and a democratic party formed a coalition, or alliance, to rule.

In parliamentary elections in 1998, a liberal party won the most seats in the National Assembly. In 1999, Hungary joined the North Atlantic Treaty Organization as a full member. In the year 2001, there was a general economic downtown in Hungary. This was due to weak exports, decline in foreign investment, and excessive spending on state pensions and increased minimum wages.

▼ The fall of the Berlin Wall, November 10,

Germany Reunifies

While Poland and Hungary were moving toward reform, East Germany's 77-year-old party boss, Erich Honecker, dismissed reforms as unnecessary. Then, in 1989, Hungary allowed vacationing East German tourists to cross the border into Austria. From there they could travel to West Germany. Thousands of East Germans took this new escape route to the west. (A)

response, the East German government closed its borders entirely. By October 1989, huge

Fall of the Berlin Wall In demonstrations had broken out

Vocabulary deposed: removed from power

Analyzing Causes A) How did the fall of communism in Hungary contribute

to turmoil in East

Germany?

MAIN IDEA

in cities across East Germany. The protesters demanded the right to travel freely, and later added the demand for free elections. Honecker lost his authority with the party and resigned on October 18.

In June 1987, President Reagan had stood before the Berlin Wall and demanded: "Mr. Gorbachev, tear down this wall!" Two years later, the wall was indeed about to come down. The new East German leader, Egon Krenz, boldly gambled that he could restore stability by allowing people to leave East Germany. On November 9, 1989, he opened the Berlin Wall. The long-divided city of Berlin erupted in joyous celebration. Krenz's dramatic gamble to save communism did not work. By the end of 1989, the East German Communist Party had ceased to exist.

Reunification With the fall of Communism in East Germany, many Germans began to speak of **reunification**—the merging of the two Germanys. However, the movement for reunification worried many people, who feared a united Germany.

The West German chancellor, Helmut Kohl, assured world leaders that Germans had learned from the past. They were now committed to democracy and human rights. Kohl's assurances helped persuade other European nations to accept German reunification. Germany was officially reunited on October 3, 1990. **B**

Germany's Challenges The newly united Germany faced serious problems. More than 40 years of Communist rule had left eastern Germany in ruins. Its railroads, highways, and telephone system had not been modernized since World War II. East German industries produced goods that could not compete in the global market.

Rebuilding eastern Germany's bankrupt economy was going to be a difficult, costly process. To pay these costs, Kohl raised taxes. As taxpayers tightened their belts, workers in eastern Germany faced a second problem—unemployment. Inefficient factories closed, depriving millions of workers of their jobs.

Major Industries of Germany, 2003 National capital Hamburg Other city J. 3 4 Major business center Major highway Berlin Chemicals Mülheim * Dortmund Electronics **ح** # Engineering Düsseldorf GERMANY Optics Dresder Research & development Shipbuilding Vehicle assembly Wine Nürnbera ፙ ታታ∙ 200 Miles 400 Kilometers **GEOGRAPHY SKILLBUILDER: Interpreting Maps 1. Location** What is the relative location of business centers? Give possible reasons. 2. Movement Why might Hamburg and Kiel be shipbuilding centers, and what does this suggest about the movement of goods?

Economic Challenges In 1998, voters turned Kohl out of office and elected a new chancellor, Schroeder, of the Gerhard Socialist Democratic Party (SDP). Schroeder started out as a market reformer, but slow economic growth made the task of reform difficult. Although Germany had the world's third largest economy, it had sunk to fifth by 2005. Germany's unemployment rate was among the highest in Europe, and rising inflation was a problem. However, in 2006, a year after Angela Merkel of the Christian Democrats (CDU) was elected chancellor, unemployment fell below 4 million, and Germany's budget deficit was kept to within EU limits.

Reunification has also forced Germany—as Central Europe's largest country—to rethink its role in international affairs.

MAIN IDEA Clarifying

B Why would Europeans fear the reunification of Germany?

Democracy Spreads in Czechoslovakia

Changes in East Germany affected other European countries, including Czechoslovakia and Romania.

Czechoslovakia Reforms While huge crowds were demanding democracy in East Germany, neighboring Czechoslovakia remained quiet. A conservative government led by Milos Jakes resisted all change. In 1989, the police arrested several dissidents. Among these was the Czech playwright Václav Havel (VAH•tslahv HAH•vehl), a popular critic of the government.

On October 28, 1989, about 10,000 people gathered in Wenceslas Square in the center of Prague. They demanded democracy and freedom. Hundreds were arrested. Three weeks later, about 25,000 students inspired by the fall of the Berlin Wall gathered in Prague to demand reform. Following orders from the government, the police brutally attacked the demonstrators and injured hundreds.

The government crackdown angered the Czech people. Huge crowds gathered in Wenceslas Square. They demanded an end to Communist rule. On November 25, about 500,000 protesters crowded into downtown Prague. Within hours, Milos Jakes and his entire Politburo resigned. One month later, a new parliament elected Václav Havel president of Czechoslovakia.

Czechoslovakia Breaks Up In Czechoslovakia, reformers also launched an economic program based on "shock therapy." The program caused a sharp rise in unemployment. It especially hurt Slovakia, the republic occupying the eastern third of Czechoslovakia.

Unable to agree on economic policy, the country's two parts—Slovakia and the Czech Republic—drifted apart. In spite of President Václav Havel's pleas for unity, a movement to split the nation gained support among the people. Havel resigned because of this. Czechoslovakia split into two countries on January 1, 1993.

Havel was elected president of the Czech Republic. He won reelection in 1998. Then, in 2003, Havel stepped down as president, in part because of ill health. The Czech parliament chose Václav Klaus, a right-wing economist and former prime minister, to succeed him. The economy of the Czech Republic has steadily improved in the face of some serious problems, aided by its becoming a full member of the European Union (EU) in 2004.

Slovakia, too, proceeded on a reformist, pro-Western path. It experienced one of the highest economic growth rates in the region in 2002. In 2004 it elected Ivan Gasparovic president and joined both NATO and the EU.

Overthrow in Romania

By late 1989, only Romania seemed unmoved by the calls for reform. Romania's ruthless Communist dictator Nicolae Ceausescu (chow•SHES•koo) maintained a firm grip on power. His secret police enforced his orders brutally. Nevertheless, Romanians were aware of the reforms in other countries. They began a protest movement of their own.

A Popular Uprising In December, Ceausescu ordered the army to fire on demonstrators in the city of Timisoara

Social History

The Romanian Language

The Romanians are the only people in Eastern Europe whose ancestry and language go back to the ancient Romans. Romanian is the only Eastern European language that developed from Latin. For this reason, Romanian is very different from the other languages spoken in the region.

Today's Romanians are descended from the Dacians (the original people in the region), the Romans, and tribes that arrived later, such as the Goths, Huns, and Slavs.

Romanian remains the official language today. Minority groups within Romania (such as Hungarians, Germans, Gypsies, Jews, Turks, and Ukrainians) sometimes speak their own ethnic languages among themselves. Nonetheless, almost all the people speak Romanian as well.

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INTERNET ACTIVITY Go online to create a poster on all the Romance languages that developed from Latin. (tee•mee•SHWAH•rah). The army killed and wounded hundreds of people. The massacre in Timisoara ignited a popular uprising against Ceausescu. Within days, the army joined the people. Shocked by the collapse of his power, Ceausescu and his wife attempted to flee. They were captured, however, and then tried and executed on Christmas Day, 1989. Elections have been held regularly since then. In 2004 Traian Basescu was elected president.

The Romanian Economy Throughout the 1990s, Romania struggled with corruption and crime as it tried to salvage its economy. In 2001, overall production was still only 75 percent of what it had been in 1989, the year of Ceausescu's overthrow. In the first years of the 21st century, two-thirds of the economy was still state owned.

However, the government made economic reforms to introduce elements of capitalism. The government also began to reduce the layers of bureaucracy in order to encourage foreign investors. In 2007 Romania joined the European Union, as the Romanian government began to move away from a state controlled economy.

The Breakup of Yugoslavia

Ethnic conflict plagued Yugoslavia. This country, formed after World War I, had eight major ethnic groups—Serbs, Croats, Muslims, Slovenes, Macedonians, Albanians, Hungarians, and Montenegrins. Ethnic and religious differences dating back centuries caused these groups to view one another with suspicion. After World War II, Yugoslavia became a federation of six republics. Each republic had a mixed population.

A Bloody Breakup Josip Tito, who led Yugoslavia from 1945 to 1980, held the country together. After Tito's death, ethnic resentments boiled over. Serbian leader Slobodan Milosevic (mee•LOH•sheh•vihch) asserted leadership over Yugoslavia. Many Serbs opposed Milosevic and his policies and fled the country.

Two republics, Slovenia and Croatia, declared independence. In June 1991, the Serbian-led Yugoslav army invaded both republics. After months of bloody fighting,

both republics freed themselves from Serbian rule. Early in 1992, Bosnia-Herzegovina joined Slovenia and Croatia in declaring independence. (In April, Serbia and Montenegro formed a new Yugoslavia.) Bosnia's population included Muslims (44 percent), Serbs (31 percent), and Croats (17 percent). While Bosnia's Muslims and Croats backed independence, Bosnian Serbs strongly opposed it. Supported by Serbia, the Bosnian Serbs launched a war in March 1992.

During the war, Serbian military forces used violence and forced emigration against Bosnian Muslims living in Serb-held lands. Called **ethnic cleansing**, this policy was intended to

rid Bosnia of its Muslim population. By 1995, the Serbian military controlled 70 percent of Bosnia. In December of that year, leaders of the three factions involved in the war signed a UN- and U.S.-brokered peace treaty. In September 1996, Bosnians elected a three-person presidency, one leader from each ethnic group. By

▼ A view of downtown Sarajevo through a bullet-shattered window



MAIN IDEA

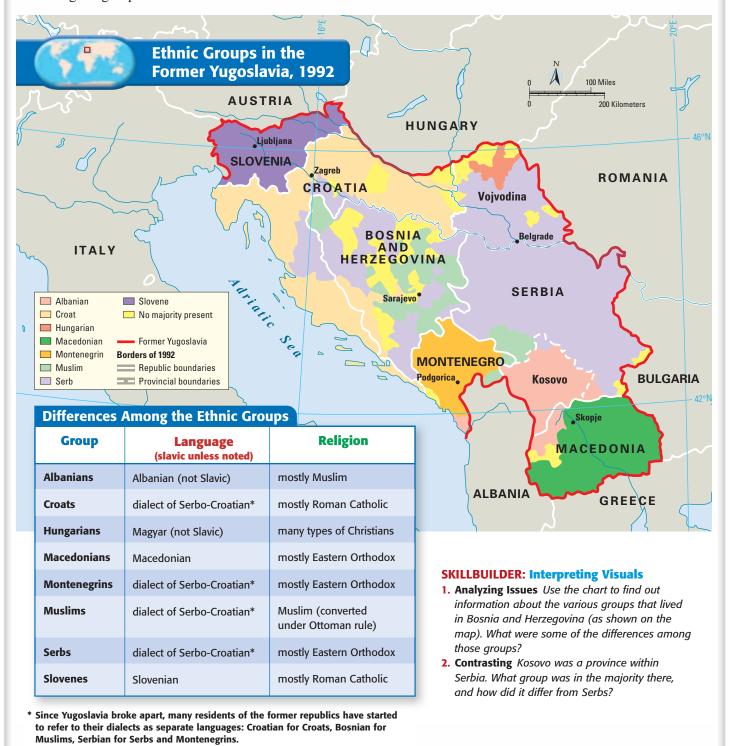
Contrasting

Contrast the democratic revolutions in Czechoslovakia and Romania.

History in Depth

Ethnic Groups in the Former Yugoslavia

Many ethnic and religious groups lived within Yugoslavia, which was a federation of six republics. The map shows how the ethnic groups were distributed. Some of those groups held ancient grudges against one another. The chart summarizes some of the cultural differences among the groups.



2001, Bosnia and Herzegovina began to stand on its own without as much need for supervision by the international community. **D**

Rebellion in Kosovo The Balkan region descended into violence and bloodshed again in 1998, this time in Kosovo, a province in southern Serbia made up almost entirely of ethnic Albanians. As an independence movement in Kosovo grew increasingly violent, Serbian military forces invaded the province. In response to growing reports of atrocities—and the failure of diplomacy to bring peace—NATO began a bombing campaign against Yugoslavia in the spring of 1999. After enduring more than two months of sustained bombing, Yugoslav leaders finally withdrew their troops from Kosovo. In 2007, talks continued over the status of Kosovo.

The Region Faces Its Problems In the early years of the 21st century, there were conflicting signs in Yugoslavia. Slobodan Milosevic was extradited to stand trial for war crimes but died in 2006, while his trial was continuing. A large portion of the country's foreign debt was erased. Despite an independence movement in Kosovo, parliamentary elections under UN supervision took place in November 2001 without violence.

In Montenegro (which together with Serbia made up Yugoslavia), an independence referendum in May 2006 revealed that most voters wanted to separate from Serbia. As the Montenegrins declared independence in 2006, Serbia accepted the new situation peacefully. In 2007 Serbia held a parliamentary election in which the ultra-nationalist Radical Party made some gains, but could not win enough seats to form a new government.

The nations of Central and Eastern Europe made many gains in the early years of the 21st century. Even so, they continued to face serious obstacles to democracy. Resolving ethnic conflicts remained crucial, as did economic progress. If the nations of Central and Eastern Europe and the former Soviet Union can improve their standard of living, democracy may have a better chance to grow. Meanwhile, economic reforms in Communist China sparked demands for political reforms, as you will read in the next section.

MAIN IDEA

Identifying Problems

D Why did Bosnia's mixed population cause a problem after Bosnia declared independence?

SECTION

ASSESSMENT

TERMS & NAMES 1. For each term or name, write a sentence explaining its significance.

- Solidarity
- Lech Walesa
- reunification
- · ethnic cleansing

USING YOUR NOTES

2. Which nation seems to have done best since the breakup? Explain.



MAIN IDEAS

- **3.** How did Solidarity affect Communist rule in Poland?
- **4.** What effect did reunification have on Germany's international role?
- **5.** What was the main cause of the breakup of Czechoslovakia?

CRITICAL THINKING & WRITING

- **6. ANALYZING CAUSES** Why did ethnic tension become such a severe problem in the Soviet Union and Yugoslavia?
- 7. DRAWING CONCLUSIONS What are some of the problems faced in Central and Eastern Europe in the 21st century?
- **8. RECOGNIZING EFFECTS** What effect did economic reform have on Slovakia?
- 9. WRITING ACTIVITY CULTURAL INTERACTION With a partner, create a cause-and-effect diagram to show how democratic reform spread through Central and Eastern Europe. The diagram should show the order in which reform happened and which countries influenced others.

CONNECT TO TODAY MAKING A PIE GRAPH

Research the size of the populations of Central and Eastern Europe countries mentioned in this section. Construct a **pie graph** showing the comparative sizes of the populations.

China: Reform and Reaction

MAIN IDEA

CULTURAL INTERACTION In response to contact with the West, China's government has experimented with capitalism but has rejected calls for democracy.

WHY IT MATTERS NOW

After the 1997 death of Chinese leader Deng Xiaoping, President Jiang Zemin seemed to be continuing Deng's policies.

TERMS & NAMES

- · Zhou Enlai
- Deng Xiaoping
- Four Modernizations
- Tiananmen Square
- · Hong Kong

SETTING THE STAGE The trend toward democracy around the world also affected China to a limited degree. A political reform movement arose in the late 1980s. It built on economic reforms begun earlier in the decade. However, although the leadership of the Communist Party in China generally supported economic reform, it opposed political reform. China's Communist government clamped down on the political reformers. At the same time, it maintained a firm grip on power in the country.

The Legacy of Mao

After the Communists came to power in China in 1949, Mao Zedong set out to transform China. Mao believed that peasant equality, revolutionary spirit, and hard work were all that was needed to improve the Chinese economy.

However, lack of modern technology damaged Chinese efforts to increase agricultural and industrial output. In addition, Mao's policies stifled economic growth. He eliminated incentives for higher production. He tried to replace family life with life in the communes. These policies took away the peasants' motive to work for the good of themselves and their families.

Facing economic disaster, some Chinese Communists talked of modernizing the economy. Accusing them of "taking the capitalist road," Mao began the Cultural Revolution in 1966 to cleanse China of antirevolutionary influences.

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	TAKING NOTES

Use the graphic organizer online to take notes on the events leading up to the demonstration in Tiananmen Square.

Mao's Attempts to Change China		
Mao's Programs	Program Results	
First Five-Year Plan 1953–1957	Industry grew 15 percent a year.Agricultural output grew very slowly.	
Great Leap Forward 1958–1961	China suffered economic disaster—industrial declines and food shortages. Mao lost influence.	
Cultural Revolution 1966–1976	 Mao regained influence by backing radicals. Purges and conflicts among leaders created economic, social, and political chaos. 	



▲ Zhou Enlai, a translator, Mao Zedong, President Nixon, and Henry Kissinger meet in Beijing in 1972.

Instead of saving radical communism, however, the Cultural Revolution turned many people against it. In the early 1970s, China entered another moderate period under **Zhou Enlai** (joh ehn•ly). Zhou had been premier since 1949. During the Cultural Revolution, he had tried to restrain the radicals.

Recognizing Effects

A What was the ultimate result of Mao's radical Communist policies?

China and the West

Throughout the Cultural Revolution, China played almost no role in world affairs. In the early 1960s, China had split with the Soviet Union over the leadership of world communism. In addition, China displayed hostility toward the United States because of U.S. support for the government on Taiwan.

China Opened Its Doors China's isolation worried Zhou. He began to send out signals that he was willing to form ties to the West. In 1971, Zhou startled the world by inviting an American table-tennis team to tour China. It was the first visit by an American group to China since 1949.

The visit began a new era in Chinese-American relations. In 1971, the United States reversed its policy and endorsed UN membership for the People's Republic of China. The next year, President Nixon made a state visit to China. He met with Mao and Zhou. The three leaders agreed to begin cultural exchanges and a limited amount of trade. In 1979, the United States and China established diplomatic relations.

Economic Reform Both Mao and Zhou died in 1976. Shortly afterward, moderates took control of the Communist Party. They jailed several of the radicals who had led the Cultural Revolution. By 1980, **Deng Xiaoping** (duhng show•pihng) had emerged as the most powerful leader in China. He was the last of the "old revolutionaries" who had ruled China since 1949.

Although a lifelong Communist, Deng boldly supported moderate economic policies. Unlike Mao, he was willing to use capitalist ideas to help China's economy. He embraced a set of goals known as the **Four Modernizations**. These called for progress in agriculture, industry, defense, and science and technology. Deng launched an ambitious program of economic reforms.

First, Deng eliminated Mao's communes and leased the land to individual farmers. The farmers paid rent by delivering a fixed quota of food to the government. They could then grow crops and sell them for a profit. Under this system, food production increased by 50 percent in the years 1978 to 1984.

Deng extended his program to industry. The government permitted private businesses to operate. It gave the managers of state-owned industries more freedom to set production goals. Deng also welcomed foreign technology and investment.

Deng's economic policies produced striking changes in Chinese life. As incomes increased, people began to buy appliances and televisions. Chinese youths now wore stylish clothes and listened to Western music. Gleaming hotels filled with foreign tourists symbolized China's new policy of openness.

Massacre in Tiananmen Square

Deng's economic reforms produced a number of unexpected problems. As living standards improved, the gap between the rich and poor widened. Increasingly, the public believed that party officials profited from their positions.

Furthermore, the new policies admitted not only Western investments and tourists but also Western political ideas. Increasing numbers of Chinese students studied abroad and learned about the West. In Deng's view, the benefits of opening the economy exceeded the risks. Nevertheless, as Chinese students learned more about democracy, they began to question China's lack of political freedom. **B**)

Students Demand Democracy In 1989, students sparked a popular uprising that stunned China's leaders. Beginning in April of that year, more than 100,000 students occupied **Tiananmen** (tyahn•ahn•mehn) **Square**, a huge public space in the heart of Beijing. The students mounted a protest for democracy. (See photograph on page 1064.)

The student protest won widespread popular support. When thousands of students began a hunger strike to highlight their cause, people poured into Tiananmen Square to support them. Many students called for Deng Xiaoping to resign.

Deng Orders a Crackdown Instead of considering political reform, Deng declared martial law. He ordered about 100,000 troops to surround Beijing. Although many students left the square after martial law was declared, about 5,000 chose to remain and continue their protest. The students revived their spirits by defiantly erecting a 33-foot statue that they named the "Goddess of Democracy."

On June 4, 1989, the standoff came to an end. Thousands of heavily armed soldiers stormed Tiananmen Square. Tanks smashed through barricades and crushed the Goddess of Democracy. Soldiers sprayed gunfire into crowds of frightened students. They also attacked protesters elsewhere in Beijing. The assault killed hundreds and wounded thousands.



Tiananmen Square

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Analyzing Causes B) How did eco-

MAIN IDEA

nomic reform introduce new political ideas to China?

> Analyzing Primary Sources

Training the Chinese Army

After the massacre in Tiananmen Square, Xiao Ye (a former Chinese soldier living in the United States) explained how Chinese soldiers are trained to obey orders without complaint.

PRIMARY SOURCE

We usually developed bleeding blisters on our feet after a few days of . . . hiking. Our feet were a mass of soggy peeling flesh and blood, and the pain was almost unbearable. . . . We considered the physical challenge a means of tempering [hardening] ourselves for the sake of the Party. . . . No one wanted to look bad. . . .

And during the days in Tiananmen, once again the soldiers did not complain. They obediently drove forward, aimed, and opened fire on command. In light of their training, how could it have been otherwise?

XIAO YE, "Tiananmen Square: A Soldier's Story"



DOCUMENT-BASED QUESTIONS

- 1. Making Inferences For whom did the soldiers seem to believe they were making their physical sacrifices?
- 2. Drawing Conclusions What attitude toward obeying orders did their training seem to encourage in the soldiers?

The attack on Tiananmen Square marked the beginning of a massive government campaign to stamp out protest. Police arrested thousands of people. The state used the media to announce that reports of a massacre were untrue. Officials claimed that a small group of criminals had plotted against the government. Television news, however, had already broadcast the truth to the world.

China Enters the New Millennium

The brutal repression of the prodemocracy movement left Deng firmly in control of China. During the final years of his life, Deng continued his program of economic reforms.

Although Deng moved out of the limelight in 1995, he remained China's leader. In February 1997, after a long illness, Deng died. Communist Party General Secretary Jiang Zemin (jee•ahng zeh•meen) assumed the presidency.

China Under Jiang Many questions arose after Deng's death. What kind of leader would Jiang be? Would he be able to hold on to power and ensure political stability? A highly intelligent and educated man, Jiang had served as mayor of Shanghai. He was considered skilled, flexible, and practical. However, he had no military experience. Therefore, Jiang had few allies among the generals. He also faced chal-

lenges from rivals, including hard-line officials who favored a shift away from Deng's economic policies.

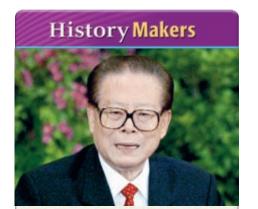
Other questions following Deng's death had to do with China's poor human rights record, its occupation of Tibet, and relations with the United States. During the 1990s, the United States pressured China to release political prisoners and ensure basic rights for political opponents. China remained hostile to such pressure. Its government continued to repress the prodemocracy movement. Nevertheless, the desire for freedom still ran through Chinese society. If China remained economically open but politically closed, tensions seemed bound to surface.

In late 1997, Jiang paid a state visit to the United States. During his visit, U.S. protesters demanded more democracy in China. Jiang admitted that China had made some mistakes but refused to promise that China's policies would change.

President Jiang Zemin and Premier Zhu Rongji announced their retirement in late 2002. Jiang's successor was Hu Jintao. However, Jiang was expected to wield influence over his successor behind the scenes. Hu became president of the country and general secretary of the Communist Party. Jiang remained political leader of the military. Both supported China's move to a market economy.

Transfer of Hong Kong Another major issue for China was the status of **Hong Kong**. Hong Kong was a thriving business center and British colony on the southeastern coast of China. On July 1, 1997, Great Britain handed Hong Kong over to China, ending 155 years of colonial rule. As part of the transfer, China promised to respect Hong Kong's economic system and political liberties for 50 years.

Many of Hong Kong's citizens worried about Chinese rule and feared the loss of their freedoms. Others, however, saw the transfer as a way to reconnect with their Chinese



Jiang Zemin 1926-

Jiang Zemin was trained as an engineer. After working as an engineer, heading several technological institutes, and serving as minister of the electronics industry, he moved up in politics.

In 1982, he joined the Central Committee of the Communist Party in China. He became mayor of Shanghai in 1985, in which post he proved to be an effective administrator. In 1989, he became general secretary of the Chinese Communist Party. This promotion was largely due to his support for the government's putdown of the prodemocracy demonstrations in that year. In 1993, he became president. In 2003, he stepped down and was replaced by Hu Jintao; however, Jiang retained power behind the scenes.

heritage. In the first four or five years after the transfer, the control of mainland China over Hong Kong tightened.

China Beyond 2000

The case of China demonstrates that the creation of democracy can be a slow, fitful, and incomplete process. Liberal reforms in one area, such as the economy, may not lead immediately to political reforms.

Economics and Politics In China, there has been a dramatic reduction in poverty. Some experts argue that China managed to reform its economy and reduce poverty because it adopted a gradual approach to selling off state industries and privatizing the economy rather than a more abrupt approach. China's

strategy has paid off: by 2007, the country had the world's fourth largest economy, after the United States, Japan, and Germany. Cheap consumer goods from China are filling shops and department stores worldwide.

But China's economic strength has come with a cost. The wealth gap between urban and rural areas has widened, with inequality leading to social unrest. In addition, rapid industrialization has caused pollution and severe environmental problems.

As countries are increasingly linked through technology and trade, they will have more opportunity to influence each other politically. When the U.S. Congress voted to normalize trade with China, supporters of such a move argued that the best way to prompt political change in China is through greater engagement rather than isolation. Another sign of China's increasing engagement with the world was its successful hosting of the 2008 Summer Olympics in Beijing.



▲ People celebrate in Tiananmen Square after Beijing won the bid for the 2008 Olympic Games.

SECTION

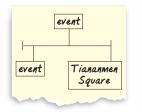
ASSESSMENT

TERMS & NAMES 1. For each term or name, write a sentence explaining its significance.

- Zhou Enlai
- Deng Xiaoping
- · Four Modernizations
- Tiananmen Square
- · Hong Kong

USING YOUR NOTES

2. Other than the demonstration in Tiananmen Square, which of these events was most important? Explain.



MAIN IDEAS

- 3. What effect did Mao's policies have on economic growth?
- 4. What were some of Deng Xiaoping's economic reforms?
- 5. How would you describe China's record on human rights?

CRITICAL THINKING & WRITING

- 6. SUPPORTING OPINIONS Judging from what you have read about the Chinese government, do you think Hong Kong will keep its freedoms under Chinese rule? Explain.
- 7. FOLLOWING CHRONOLOGICAL ORDER What were some of the events that followed the demonstration in Tiananmen Square?
- 8. COMPARING AND CONTRASTING Has there been greater progress in political or economic reform in China?
- 9. WRITING ACTIVITY CULTURAL INTERACTION Imagine that you are a Chinese student visiting the West. Write a letter home in which you explain what you have seen abroad.

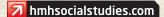
CONNECT TO TODAY MAKING A POSTER

China will be hosting the 2008 Summer Olympics in Beijing. Research the efforts that China is making to prepare the city for the festivities and present your findings in a poster.

History through Art

Photojournalism

From the earliest days of photography, magazines and newspapers have used photographs to convey the news. Photojournalists must respond quickly to recognize a history-making moment and to record that moment before it passes. As the photographs on this page demonstrate, photojournalists have captured many of the democratic struggles that have occurred in the last few decades. In some cases, news photographs have helped protesters or oppressed people gain the support of the world.



RESEARCH WEB LINKS Go online for more on photojournalism.

Flight from Srebrenica ►

During the conflicts in Bosnia and Herzegovina, the United Nations declared the city of Srebrenica a safe area. Even so, the Bosnian Serb army invaded in July 1995 and expelled more than 20,000 Muslims—nearly all of them women, children, or elderly people. In addition, the soldiers held more than 7,000 men and boys prisoner and over a five-day period massacred them.



▼ Man Defying Tanks A single Chinese man blocked tanks on

their way to crush prodemocracy protests in Tiananmen Square in June 1989. No one knows for sure what happened to the man afterward—or even who he was. Even so, this image has become one of the enduring photographs of the 20th century; it has come to stand for one man's courage in defying tyranny.



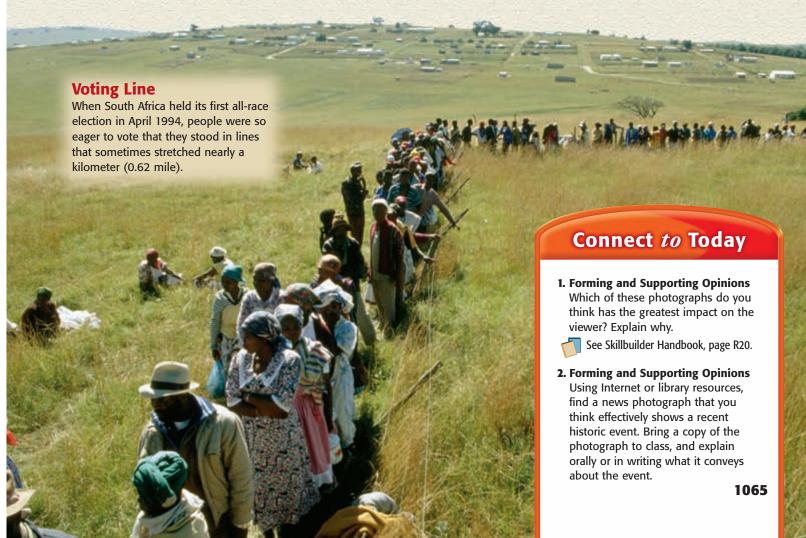
Abuelas de Plaza de Mayo ▲

From 1976 to 1983, the military government of Argentina tortured and killed thousands of political dissidents and sometimes stole their children. In this demonstration in December 1979, the *Abuelas de Plaza de Mayo* (Grandmothers of the Plaza de Mayo) demanded to know the fate of their relatives. The banner they carried reads "Disappeared Children."

Fall of the Wall ▼

When the East German government opened the Berlin Wall in November 1989, a huge celebration broke out. Some people began to use pickaxes to demolish the wall entirely. Others danced on top of the wall. (See also the image on page 1053.)





Chapter 35 Assessment

TERMS & NAMES

For each term or name below, briefly explain its connection to the democratic movements that took place from 1945 to the present.

1. PRI

- 5. glasnost
- 2. apartheid
- 6. Lech Walesa
- 3. Nelson Mandela
- 7. Deng Xiaoping
- 4. Mikhail Gorbachev
- 8. Tiananmen Square

MAIN IDEAS

Case Study: Latin American Democracies Section 1 (pages 1033–1039)

- 9. What are four common democratic practices?
- **10.** What group held up democratic progress in both Brazil and Argentina until the 1980s?

The Challenge of Democracy in Africa Section 2 (pages 1040–1045)

- 11. What brought about the civil war in Nigeria?
- **12.** What were three significant steps toward democracy taken by South Africa in the 1990s?

The Collapse of the Soviet Union Section 3 (pages 1046–1051)

- 13. What were the main reforms promoted by Soviet leader Mikhail Gorbachev?
- **14.** What was the August Coup and how did it end?

Changes in Central and Eastern Europe Section 4 (pages 1052–1058)

- 15. Which nations overthrew Communist governments in 1989?
- **16.** What led to the breakup of Yugoslavia?

China: Reform and Reaction Section 5 (pages 1059–1065)

- 17. What changes took place in China during the 1970s?
- **18.** How did the Chinese government react to demands for democratic reform?

CRITICAL THINKING

1. USING YOUR NOTES

List several leaders who helped their nations make democratic progress. For each, cite one positive action.

Leader	Nation	Positive Action

2. ANALYZING ISSUES

CULTURAL INTERACTION What are some examples from this chapter in which the negative impact of one culture on another blocked democratic progress?

3. SYNTHESIZING

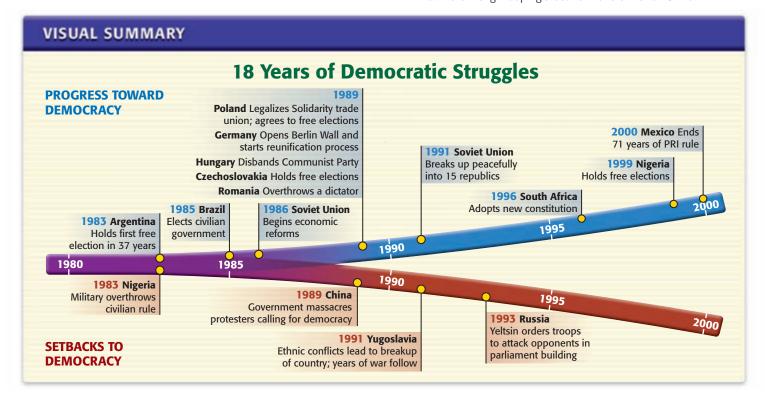
Consider what conditions helped democratic movements succeed and what conditions caused difficulties for them. What do you think were their hardest challenges?

4. DRAWING CONCLUSIONS

ECONOMICS How does a nation's economy affect its democratic progress?

5. SUMMARIZING

What were Deng Xiaoping's economic reforms for China?



STANDARDS-BASED ASSESSMENT

Use the quotation and your knowledge of world history to answer questions 1 and 2.

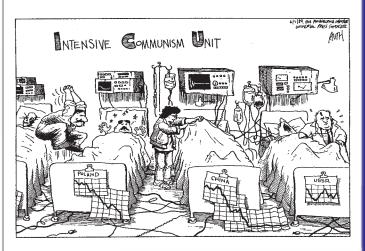
PRIMARY SOURCE

Whatever else you can say about the new Hong Kong, it will be more Chinese. Liu Heung-shing, the editor of the new Hong Kong magazine The Chinese, says that "for any meaningful art and culture to take off here, Hong Kong must find somewhere to anchor itself. To find that anchor. people will have to go north [to mainland China]." . . . Increasing numbers of Hong Kong's Cantonese speakers are studying mainland Mandarin. . . . At the same time that [Hong Kong] must resist China to retain Britain's legacy of rule of law, it knows that the most logical place for it to turn for commerce and culture is China.

ORVILLE SCHELL, "The Coming of Mao Zedong Chic"

- 1. What is the main change that is taking place in Hong Kong's culture?
 - **A.** China is looking to Hong Kong for cultural inspiration.
 - **B.** Hong Kong is turning to China for cultural inspiration.
 - **C.** Hong Kong is turning to the West for cultural inspiration.
 - **D.** Hong Kong is turning inward.
- 2. What point of view might a Hong Kong politician have about this change?
 - **A.** may fear China will restrict the city's freedoms
 - **B.** may welcome tighter controls from China
 - C. may threaten military action against China
 - **D.** may vow never to cooperate with mainland China

Use this political cartoon and your knowledge of world history to answer question 3.



- **3.** What is the cartoon saying about the state of communism in Poland, China, and the Soviet Union?
- **A.** Communism is thriving.
- **B.** Communism is helping nations gain economic health.
- **C.** Communism is failing around the world.
- **D.** Communism is sick but will recover.

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For additional test practice, go online for:

- Diagnostic tests
- Tutorials
- Strategies

Interact with History

REVOLUTION On page 1032, you considered why so many people want democracy. Now that you've read the chapter, have your explanations changed? Would you add anything to what you said before? Would you change anything you said before?

FOCUS ON WRITING

A government official has asked you for suggestions on how to move a Communist economy to a free-market economy. Go through the chapter and compile a "Things to Do" report based on actions that other governments have taken. Consider the following issues:

- unemployment
- inflation
- political effects
- · social upheaval

MULTIMEDIA ACTIVITY



Creating a Virtual Field Trip

With two other classmates, plan a two-week virtual field trip to explore the sights in China, including the Forbidden City and the sites of the 2008 Summer Olympics. After selecting and researching the sites you'd like to visit, use maps to determine your itinerary. Consider visiting these places and enjoying these excursions:

- Sites of the 2008 Summer Olympic games
- Sites around Beijing
- Great Wall
- A cruise along the Chang Jiang or Huang He rivers
- Three Gorges Dam
- Shanghai

For each place or excursion, give one reason why it is an important destination on a field trip to China. Include pictures and sound in your presentation.

CHAPTER

Global Interdependence,

1960-Present

Essential Question

How have advances in science and technology made the world more globally interdependent and affected people's lives?



What You Will Learn

In this chapter, you will learn how technology and diplomacy have helped make the world a more interconnected place.

SECTION 1 The Impact of Science and Technology

Main Idea Advances in technology after World War II led to increased global interaction and improved quality of life.

SECTION 2 Global Economic Development

Main Idea The economies of the world's nations are so tightly linked that the actions of one nation affect others.

SECTION 3 Global Security Issues

Main Idea Since 1945, nations have used collective security efforts to solve problems.

SECTION 4 Terrorism Case Study: September 11, 2001

Main Idea Terrorism threatens the safety of people all over the world.

SECTION 5 Cultures Blend in a Global Age

Main Idea Technology has increased contact among the world's people, changing their cultures.

Previewing Themes

SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY Advances in science and technology have changed the lives of people around the globe. Improved communications and transportation have allowed goods, services, and ideas to move rapidly.

Geography How does this map illustrate the idea of global interdependence?

CULTURAL INTERACTION Inventions and innovations have brought the nations of the world closer and exposed people to other cultures. Cultures are now blending ideas and customs much faster than before.

Geography Which countries in the Western Hemisphere are major destinations for immigrants?

ECONOMICS Since World War II, nations have worked to expand trade and commerce in world markets. Changes in technology have blurred national boundaries and created a global market.

Geography What do most countries with a net migration rate above 3 have in common economically?

POWER AND AUTHORITY Since the end of World War II, nations have adopted collective efforts to ensure their security. One of the greatest challenges in maintaining global security is international terrorism.

Geography What do most countries with a net migration rate above 3 have in common politically?



Many nations sign the Nuclear Non-Proliferation Treaty. (atomic energy symbol)

Helsinki Accords support human rights.

WORLD

U.S. and Soviet Union agree to joint space venture. Terrorists carry out attack at the Summer Olympic games in Munich. (masked terrorist in Munich)







How do global events affect your daily life?

You have just seen a television program recapping some recent news events. You are surprised at the number of stories that involve the United States and other countries. You begin to think about how events in such distant places as China and Iraq can affect life in your own country.

▼ War in Iraq, 2003

▼ Mapping the Human Genome



▲ Homeland Security Alert

▲ Severe Acute Respiratory Syndrome in China

EXAMINING the ISSUES

- How do the events shown in the photographs illustrate the political interdependence of different nations?
- What do these events tell you about scientific and cultural interdependence among nations?

As a class, discuss these questions. Remember what you have learned about the recent history of nations in different regions of the world. Try to think of reasons that nations are becoming increasingly dependent on one another. As you read this chapter, look for examples of economic, political, and cultural interdependence among the nations of the world.



The Impact of Science and Technology

MAIN IDEA

WHY IT MATTERS NOW

TERMS & NAMES

SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY

Advances in technology after World War II led to increased global interaction and improved quality of life.

Advances in science and technology affect the lives of people around the world.

- International
 cloning
 - Space Station green Internet
- genetic engineering
- revolution

SETTING THE STAGE Beginning in the late 1950s, the United States and the Soviet Union competed in the exploration of space. The Soviets launched Earth's first artificial satellite and put the first human in orbit around the planet. By the late 1960s, however, the United States had surpassed the Soviets. U.S. astronauts landed on the moon in 1969. The heavy emphasis on science and technology that the space race required led to the development of products that changed life for people across the globe.

Exploring the Solar System and Beyond

In its early years, competition between the United States and the Soviet Union in the space race was intense. Eventually, however, space exploration became one of the world's first and most successful arenas for cooperation between U.S. and Soviet scientists.

Cooperation in Space In 1972, years before the end of the Cold War, the United States and Soviet space programs began work on a cooperative project—the docking of U.S. and Soviet spacecraft in orbit. This goal was achieved on July 17, 1975, when spacecraft from the two countries docked some 140 miles above Earth. Television viewers across the globe watched as the hatch between the space vehicles opened and crews from Earth's fiercest rival countries greeted each other.

This first cooperative venture in space between the United States and the Soviet Union was an isolated event. People from different countries, however, continued to work together to explore space. The Soviets were the first to send an international crew into space. The crew of Soyuz 28, which orbited Earth in 1978, included a Czech cosmonaut. Since the mid-1980s, crews on U.S. space shuttle flights have included astronauts from Saudi Arabia, France, Germany, Canada, Italy, Japan, Israel, and Mexico. Shuttle missions put crews in orbit around Earth to accomplish a variety of scientific and technological tasks.

The **International Space Station** (ISS) project came together in 1993 when the United States and Russia agreed to merge their individual space station programs. The European Space Agency (ESA) and Japan also became part of the effort. Beginning in 1998, U.S. shuttles and Russian spacecraft transported sections of the ISS to be assembled in space. By the time it is completed in 2010, the ISS will cover



Use the graphic organizer online to take notes on the effects of scientific and technological developments.



▲ This view of the ISS was taken from the space shuttle Endeavor.

an area larger than a football field and house a crew of six. Ongoing experiments aboard the ISS will hopefully lead to advances in medicine and technology and help scientists study the long-term effects of weightlessness on the human body.

Exploring the Universe Unmanned space probes have been used to study the farther reaches of the solar system. The Soviet Venera spacecraft in the 1970s and the U.S. probe Magellan in 1990 provided in-depth information about Venus. On a 12year journey that began in 1977, the U.S. Voyager 2 sent dazzling pictures of Jupiter, Saturn, Uranus, and Neptune back to Earth.

In 1990, the U.S. space agency, NASA, and the European Space Agency worked together to develop and launch the Hubble Space Telescope. Nearly twenty years later, this orbiting telescope continues to observe and send back images of objects in the most remote regions of the universe. A

In 2004, NASA had two robotic rovers successfully land on Mars. Their mission was to study the planet for signs of water or life (now or in the past). Both rovers, Spirit and Opportunity, found evidence of water in Mars's past. Five years later, both were still operating—sending data back to Earth.

Expanding Global Communications

Since the 1960s, artificial satellites launched into orbit around Earth have aided worldwide communications. With satellite communication, the world has been gradually transformed into a global village. Today, political and cultural events occurring in one part of the world often are witnessed live by people thousands of miles away. This linking of the globe through worldwide communications is made possible by the miniaturization of the computer.

Smaller, More Powerful Computers In the 1940s, when computers first came into use, they took up a huge room. In the years since then, however, the circuitry that runs the computer has been miniaturized and made more powerful. This change is due, in part, to the space program, for which equipment had to be

downsized to fit into tiny space capsules. Silicon chips replaced the bulky vacuum tubes used earlier. Smaller than contact lenses, silicon chips hold millions of microscopic circuits.

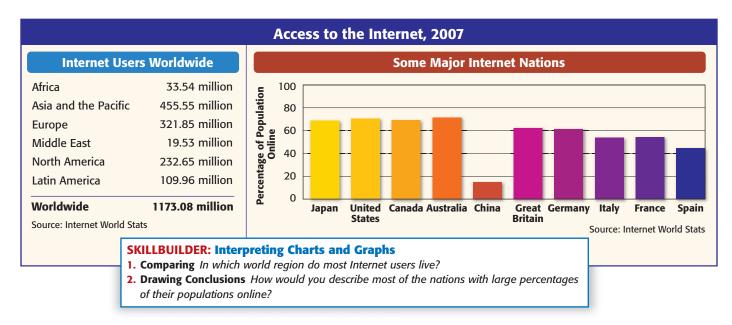
Following this development, industries began to use computers and silicon chips to run assembly lines. Today a variety of consumer products such as microwave ovens, telephones, keyboard instruments, and cars use computers and chips. Computers have become essential in offices, and millions of people around the globe have computers in their homes.

MAIN IDEA **Hypothesizing** A) Why might rival nations cooperate in space activities

but not on Earth?

▼ Tablet computer users now have books, newspapers, music, games, and movies at their fingertips.





Communications Networks Starting in the 1990s, businesses and individuals began using the **Internet**. The Internet is the voluntary linkage of computer networks around the world. It began in the late 1960s as a method of linking scientists so they could exchange information about research. Through telephone-line links, business and personal computers can be hooked up with computer networks. These networks allow users to communicate with people across the nation and around the world. Between 1995 and the end of 2007, the number of worldwide Internet users soared from 26 million to more than a billion.

Conducting business on the Internet has become a way of life. The Internet transmits information electronically to remote locations, paying the way for home offices and telecommuting-working at home using a computer connected to a business network. Once again, as it has many times in the past, technology has changed how and where people work. **B**)

Transforming Human Life

Advances with computers and communications networks have transformed not only the ways people work but lifestyles as well. Technological progress in the sciences, medicine, and agriculture has improved the quality of the lives of millions of people.

Health and Medicine Before World War II, surgeons seldom performed operations on sensitive areas such as the eye or the brain. However, in the 1960s and 1970s, new technologies, such as more powerful microscopes, the laser, and ultrasound, were developed. Many of these technologies advanced surgical techniques.

Advances in medical imaging also helped to improve health care. Using data provided by CAT scans and MRI techniques, doctors can build three-dimensional images of different organs or regions of the body. Doctors use these images to diagnose injuries, detect tumors, or collect other medical information.

In the 1980s, genetics, the study of heredity through research on genes, became a fast-growing field of science. Found in the cells of all organisms, genes are hereditary units that cause specific traits, such as eye color, in every living organism. Technology allowed scientists to isolate and examine individual genes that are responsible for different traits. Through **genetic engineering**, scientists were able to introduce new genes into an organism to give that organism new traits.

Another aspect of genetic engineering is **cloning**. This is the creation of identical copies of DNA, the chemical chains of genes that determine heredity. Cloning actually allows scientists to reproduce both plants and animals that are identical to

MAIN IDEA **Summarizing** B) What types of technology have recently changed

the workplace?

Social History

Molecular Medicine

In 2003, scientists employed on the Human Genome Project completed work on a map of the thousands of genes contained in DNA—human genetic material. The information provided by this map has helped in the development of a new field of medicine. Called "molecular medicine," it focuses on how genetic diseases develop and progress.

Researchers in molecular medicine are working to identify the genes that cause various diseases. This will help in detecting diseases in their early stages of development. Another area of interest to researchers is gene therapy. This involves replacing a patient's diseased genes with normal ones. The ultimate aim of workers in this field is to create "designer drugs" based on a person's genetic makeup.

existing plants and animals. The application of genetics research to everyday life has led to many breakthroughs, especially in agriculture.

The Green Revolution In the 1960s, agricultural scientists around the world started a campaign known as the **green revolution**. It was an attempt to increase food production worldwide. Scientists promoted the use of fertilizers, pesticides, and high-yield, disease-resistant strains of a variety of crops. The green revolution helped avert famine and increase crop yields in many parts of the world.

However, the green revolution had its negative side. Fertilizers and pesticides often contain dangerous chemicals that may cause cancer and pollute the environment. Also, the cost of the chemicals and the equipment to harvest more crops was far too expensive for an average peasant farmer. Consequently, owners of small farms received little benefit from the advances in agriculture. In some cases, farmers were forced off the land by larger agricultural businesses.

Advances in genetics research seem to be helping to fulfill some of the goals of the green revolution. In this new "gene revolution," resistance to pests is bred into plant strains, reducing the need for pesticides. Plants being bred to tolerate poor soil conditions also reduce the need for fertilizers. The gene revolution involves some risks, including the accidental

creation of disease-causing organisms. However, the revolution holds great promise for increasing food production in a world with an expanding population.

Science and technology have changed the lives of millions of people. What people produce and even their jobs have changed. These changes have altered the economies of nations. Not only have nations become linked through communications networks but they are also linked in a global economic network, as you will see in Section 2.

MAIN IDEA

Recognizing Effects

What are some of the positive and negative effects of genetic engineering?

SECTION

ASSESSMENT

TERMS & NAMES 1. For each term or name, write a sentence explaining its significance.

- · International Space Station
- Internet
- genetic engineering
- cloning
- green revolution

USING YOUR NOTES

2. Which of the three developments do you think has had the greatest global effect? Why?

Developments	Effects
Communications	
Health and	
Medicine	
Green	
Revolution	

MAIN IDEAS

- 3. How does the development of the International Space Station show that space exploration has become a cooperative endeavor?
- 4. How has the development of the computer and the Internet changed the way people work?
- **5.** What areas of medicine have benefited from scientific and technological developments?

CRITICAL THINKING & WRITING

- **6. MAKING INFERENCES** Why do you think that space exploration became an arena for cooperation between the Soviet Union and the United States?
- **7. HYPOTHESIZING** How do you think the Internet will affect the world of work in the future?
- **8. FORMING AND SUPPORTING OPINIONS** Is there a limit to how far cloning should go? Why or why not?
- 9. WRITING ACTIVITY SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY Use encyclopedia yearbooks and science magazines to identify a technological advance made in the last year. Write a brief report on the impact this advance has had on daily life.

CONNECT TO TODAY CREATING A GRAPH

Conduct research into how people use the Internet. Use your findings to construct a **graph** showing the most common Internet activities.

Global Economic Development

MAIN IDEA

ECONOMICS The economies of the world's nations are so tightly linked that the actions of one nation affect others.

WHY IT MATTERS NOW

Every individual is affected by the global economy and the environment.

TERMS & NAMES

- developed nation
- emerging nation
 sustainable
- global economy
- free trade
- · ozone laver
- growth

SETTING THE STAGE At the end of World War II, much of Europe and Asia lay in ruins, with many of the major cities leveled by bombing. The devastation of the war was immense. However, with aid from the United States, the economies of Western European nations and Japan began expanding rapidly within a decade. Their growth continued for half a century, long after the United States ceased supplying aid. Advances in science and technology contributed significantly to this ongoing economic growth.

Technology Revolutionizes the World's Economy

In both Asia and the Western world, an explosion in scientific knowledge prompted great progress that quickly led to new industries. A prime example was plastics. In the 1950s, a process to develop plastics from petroleum at low pressures and low temperatures was perfected. Within a few years, industries made a host of products easily and cheaply out of plastics. Other technological advances have also changed industrial processes, lowered costs, and increased the quality or the speed of production. For example, robotic arms on automobile assembly lines made possible the fast and safe manufacture of high-quality cars.

Information Industries Change Economies Technological advances in manufacturing reduced the need for factory workers. But in other areas of the economy, new demands were emerging. Computerization and communications advances changed the processing of information. By the 1980s, people could transmit information quickly and cheaply. Information industries such as financial services, insurance, market research, and communications services boomed. Those industries depended on "knowledge workers," or people whose jobs focus on working with information.

The Effects of New Economies In the postwar era, the expansion of the world's economies led to an increase in the production of goods and services so that many nations benefited. The economic base of some nations shifted. Manufacturing jobs began to move out of **developed nations**, those nations with the industrialization, transportation, and business facilities for advanced production of manufactured goods. The jobs moved to emerging nations, those in the process of becoming industrialized. Emerging nations became prime locations for new manufacturing operations. Some economists believe these areas were chosen because



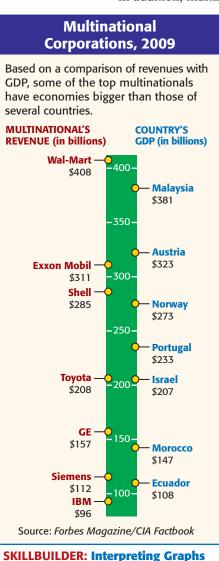
Use the graphic organizer online to take notes on the forces that have shaped the global economy.



they had many eager workers whose skills fit manufacturing-type jobs. Also, these workers would work for less money than those in developed nations. On the other hand, information industries that required better-educated workers multiplied in the economies of developed nations. Thus the changes brought by technology then changed the workplace of both developed and emerging nations.

Economic Globalization

Economies in different parts of the world have been linked for centuries through trade and through national policies, such as colonialism. However, a true global economy did not begin to take shape until well into the second half of the 1800s. The **global economy** includes all the financial interactions—among people, businesses, and governments—that cross international borders. In recent decades, several factors hastened the process of globalization. Huge cargo ships could inexpensively carry enormous supplies of fuels and other goods from one part of the world to another. Telephone and computer linkages made global financial transactions quick and easy. In addition, multinational corporations developed around the world.



Multinational Corporations Companies that operate in a number of different countries are called multinational or transnational corporations. U.S. companies such as Exxon Mobil and Ford; European companies such as BP and Royal Dutch/Shell; and Japanese companies such as Toyota and Mitsui are all multinational giants.

All of these companies have established manufacturing plants, offices, or stores in many countries. For their manufacturing plants, they select spots where the raw materials or labor are cheapest. This enables them to produce components of their products on different continents. They ship the various components to another location to be assembled. This level of economic integration allows such companies to view the whole world as the market for their goods. Goods or services are distributed throughout the world as if there were no national boundaries.

Expanding Free Trade Opening up the world's markets to trade is a key aspect of globalization. In fact, a major goal of globalization is **free trade**, or the elimination of trade barriers, such as tariffs, among nations. As early as 1947, nations began discussing ways to open trade. The result of these discussions was the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT). Over the years, several meetings among the nations that signed the GATT have brought about a general lowering of protective tariffs and considerable expansion of free trade. Since 1995, the World Trade Organization (WTO) has overseen the GATT to ensure that trade among nations flows as smoothly and freely as possible.

Regional Trade Blocs A European organization set up in 1951 promoted tariff-free trade among member countries. This experiment in economic cooperation was so successful that six years later, a new organization, the European Economic Community (EEC), was formed. Over time, most of the other Western European countries joined the

Analyzing Causes

A What elements helped to accelerate the process of globalization?

Vocabulary tariff: a tax on goods imported from another country

1. Comparing Which has the larger

economy greater than that of Toyota but

economy, Austria or Shell?

2. Clarifying Which countries have an

smaller than that of Shell?



1992. By 2007, twenty-seven nations were EU members, and many had adopted the common European currency—the euro (symbol: €).

The economic success of the EU inspired countries in other regions to make trade agreements with each other. The North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA), put into effect in 1994, called for the gradual elimination of tariffs and trade restrictions among Canada, the United States, and Mexico. Organizations in Asia, Africa, Latin America, and

the South Pacific have also created regional trade policies.

(CEMAC)

North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA)

Organization of the Petroleum

Exporting Countries (OPEC)

Southern Common Market (MFRCOSUR)

Southern African Development Community (SADC)

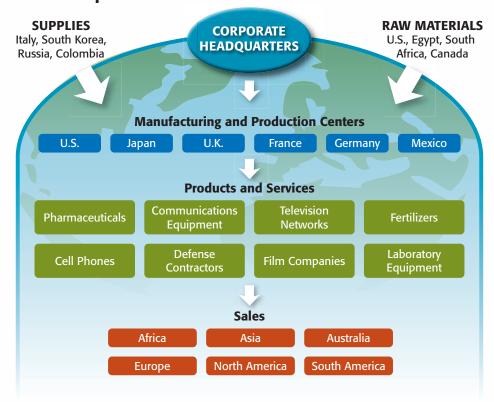
> **A Global Economic Crisis** Beginning in 2007, after a long period of relative worldwide prosperity, several factors combined to cause an economic downturn. Housing prices in the United States had skyrocketed, driven up by lax lending policies that offered mortgage loans to almost anyone. The financial industry found it could bundle a group of these mortgages into an investment vehicle called a mortgage-backed security (MBS). These securities were then purchased by investors worldwide, who believed them to be safe investments. When housing prices in the United States began to plummet, banks and other financial companies across the globe saw the value of their MBSs wither. Lending virtually stopped, investors teetered on the brink of bankruptcy, and millions of people worldwide lost their homes and jobs. Governments around the world were forced to step in to stabilize the situation. By 2010, the world economy had indeed stabilized, but it remained relatively weak.

> Analyzing Key Concepts

Globalization

Globalization can be described in broad terms as a process that makes something worldwide in its reach or operation. Currently, globalization is most often used in reference to the spread and diffusion of economic or cultural influences. The graphics below focus on economic globalization. The first shows a global corporation. The second lists some arguments for and against economic globalization.

Global Corporation



Arguments for and Against Economic Globalization

For	Against
• promotes peace through trade	creates conflict because of an inherently unfair system
raises the standard of living around the world	benefits developed nations disproportionately
creates jobs in emerging countries	• takes jobs from high-paid laborers in developed countries
promotes investment in less developed countries	benefits those who already have money
creates a sense of world community	erodes local cultures

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RESEARCH WEB LINKS Go online for more on globalization.

DATA FILE

INTERNATIONAL REGULATION

Many countries have joined international organizations to help regulate and stimulate the global economy. Such groups face the same criticisms against globalization in general.

World Trade Organization (WTO)

- Stated goal: "Help trade flow smoothly, freely, fairly, and predictably"
- 153 member nations; around 30 nations negotiating for admission (193 countries in the world)
- WTO members account for over 97 percent of world trade.

International Monetary Fund (IMF)

- Stated goal: "Promote international monetary cooperation; to foster economic growth and high levels of employment; and to provide temporary financial assistance to countries"
- 186 member countries
- In February 2010, IMF total resources were \$333 billion.

The World Bank Group

- Stated goal: "A world free of poverty"
- 186 member countries
- In 2002, this group provided \$19.5 billion to emerging countries.

Connect to Today

- 1. Making Inferences How are money and culture related to each other when discussing globalization?
- See Skillbuilder Handbook, page R10.
- **2. Making Predictions** Will globalization continue or will another process replace it? Why or why not?

Impact of Global Development

The development of the global economy has had a notable impact on the use of energy and other resources. Worldwide demand for these resources has led to both political and environmental problems.

Political Impacts Manufacturing requires the processing of raw materials. Trade requires the transport of finished goods. These activities, essential for development, require the use of much energy. For the past 50 years, one of the main sources of energy used by developed and emerging nations has been oil. For nations with little of this resource available in their own land, disruption of the distribution of oil causes economic and political problems.

On the other hand, nations possessing oil reserves have the power to affect economic and political situations in countries all over the world. For example, in the 1970s the Organization of Petroleum Exporting Countries (OPEC) declared an oil embargo—a restriction of trade. This contributed to a significant economic decline in many developed nations during that decade.

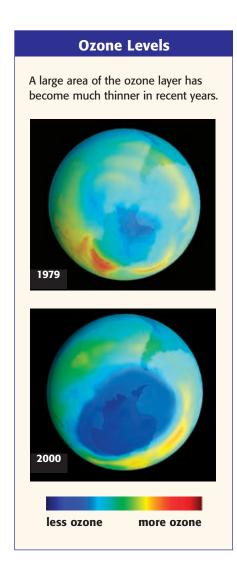
In 1990, Iraq invaded Kuwait and seized the Kuwaiti oil fields. Fears began to mount that Iraq would also invade Saudi Arabia, another major source of oil. This would have put most of the world's petroleum supplies under Iraqi control. Economic sanctions imposed by the UN failed to persuade Iraq to withdraw from Kuwait. Then, in early 1991, a coalition of some 39 nations declared war on Iraq. After several weeks of fighting, the Iraqis left Kuwait and accepted a cease-fire. This Persian Gulf War showed the extent to which the economies of nations are globally linked.

Environmental Impacts Economic development has had a major impact on the environment. The burning of coal and oil as an energy source releases carbon dioxide into the atmosphere, causing health-damaging air pollution and acid rain. The buildup of carbon dioxide in the atmosphere also has contributed to global warming.

The release of chemicals called chlorofluorocarbons (CFCs), used in refrigerators, air conditioners, and manufacturing processes, has destroyed ozone in Earth's upper atmosphere. The **ozone layer** is our main protection against the Sun's damaging ultraviolet rays. With the increase in ultraviolet radiation reaching Earth's surface, the incidence of skin cancer continues to rise in many parts of the world. Increased ultraviolet radiation also may result in damage to populations of plants and plankton at the bases of the food chains, which sustain all life on Earth.

▼ During the 1991 Persian Gulf War, the Iraqis set hundreds of Kuwaiti oil wells ablaze. Smoke from these fires clouded the skies more than 250 miles away.





Economic development has also led to problems with the land. Large-scale soil erosion is a worldwide problem due to damaging farming techniques. The habitat destruction that comes from land development has also led to shrinking numbers of wildlife around the world. At present, the extinction rate of plants and animals is about a thousand times greater than it would naturally be, and appears to be increasing. This high extinction rate means that certain species can no longer serve as an economic resource. The resulting loss of wildlife could endanger complex and life-sustaining processes that keep Earth in balance.

"Sustainable Growth" Working together, economists and scientists are looking for ways to reduce the negative effect that development has on the environment. Their goal is to manage development so that growth can occur, but without destroying air, water, and land resources. The concept is sometimes called "green growth." Many people feel that the negative impact of economic growth on the environment will not be completely removed.

But "greener growth," also known as **sustainable growth**, is possible. This involves two goals: meeting current economic needs, while ensuring the preservation of the environment and the conservation of resources for future generations. Making such plans and putting them into practice have proved to be difficult. But many scientists believe that meeting both goals is essential for the health of the planet in the future. Because the economics of nations are tied to their political climates, such development plans will depend on the efforts of nations in both economic and political areas. **B**

MAIN IDEA

B What is meant by the term sustainable growth?

SECTION 2

ASSESSMENT

TERMS & NAMES 1. For each term or name, write a sentence explaining its significance.

- developed nation
- · emerging nation
- · global economy
- free trade
- ozone layer
- sustainable growth

USING YOUR NOTES

2. Which of these forces do you think has had the greatest impact on the development of a global economy?



MAIN IDEAS

- **3.** Why are "knowledge workers" becoming more important in the developed nations?
- 4. What impact did the economic success of the EU have on other regions of the world?
- **5.** How has global economic development affected the environment?

CRITICAL THINKING & WRITING

- **6. RECOGNIZING EFFECTS** In what ways has technology changed the workplace of people across the world?
- 7. ANALYZING MOTIVES Why might some nations favor imposing tariffs on the imports of certain products?
- **8. SUPPORTING OPINIONS** Do you think that sustainable growth is possible? Why or why not?
- 9. WRITING ACTIVITY ECONOMICS Make a survey of the labels on class members' clothing and shoes. List the countries in which these items were produced. Write a short explanation of how the list illustrates the global economy.

CONNECT TO TODAY CREATING A POSTER

Recycling is an important aspect of sustainable growth. Create a **poster** encouraging local businesses to recycle cans, paper products, and plastics.

Different Perspectives: Using Primary and Secondary Sources

hmhsocialstudies.com INTERACTIVE

Economics and the Environment

Economists, politicians, and environmentalists came up with the concept of "sustainable growth"-both economic development and environmental protection are considered when producing a development plan for a nation. Some people see the relationship between economics and the environment as strained and getting worse. Others view policies protecting the environment as harmful to economies and ultimately harmful to the environment. The selections below examine these different perspectives.



A PRIMARY SOURCE

Lester R. Brown

Lester R. Brown is president of the Earth Policy Institute, which researches how to attain an environmentally sustainable economy and assesses current economic programs around the world.

Most decisions taken in economic policy are made by economic advisors. You can see this in the World Bank's annual development reports where they see the environment as a sub-sector of the economy. However, if you look at it as a natural scientist or ecologist, you have to conclude that the economy is a subset of the earth's ecosystem. . . .

Many of the problems that we face are the result of the incompatibility of the economy with the ecosystem. The relationship between the global economy, which has expanded sixfold over the last half century, and the earth's ecosystem is a very stressed one. The manifestations of this stress are collapsing fisheries, falling water tables, shrinking forests, expanding deserts, rising carbon dioxide levels, rising temperatures, melting ice, dying coral reefs, and so forth. Not only is this a stressed relationship but a deteriorating one.

B PRIMARY SOURCE

The Liberty Institute

The Liberty Institute is based in India and seeks to strengthen individual rights, rule of law, limited government, and free markets.

The market is the natural ally of the environment. Environmental resources, like other economic resources can be most efficiently allocated if these are brought under the discipline of the marketplace. It is ironic . . . [that] rather than creating a market for environmental resources, new restrictions are being imposed on the economy in the name of protecting the environment.

Environmental quality is like a value-added product that becomes economically affordable and technologically viable with economic growth. It is no paradox therefore that the environment is much cleaner and safer in industrially developed countries that adopted a more market-friendly approach...

The market allows the consumer to register his price preference for a particular quality of product, including environmental quality.

C POLITICAL CARTOON

Chris Madden

Educating through humor, cartoonist Chris Madden illustrates the close connection between the environment and economics. A "ship of fools" is a metaphor for human weakness.



The ship of fools and the rocks of short-term economic planning

Document-Based

- 1. Compare Sources A and B. Which perspective do you support? Why?
- 2. In your own words, describe the meaning of the cartoon in Source C.
- 3. Research an environmental issue facing your community and how economics is a part of the debate. Present your findings to the class.

Global Security Issues

MAIN IDEA

WHY IT MATTERS NOW

TERMS & NAMES

POWER AND AUTHORITY Since 1945, nations have used collective security efforts to solve problems.

Personal security of the people of the world is tied to security within and between nations.

- · proliferation Universal
 - Declaration of **Human Rights**
- inequality AIDS

gender

 refugee political dissent

SETTING THE STAGE World War II was one of history's most devastating conflicts. More than 55 million people died as a result of bombings, the Holocaust, combat, starvation, and disease. Near the end of the war, one of humankind's most destructive weapons, the atomic bomb, killed more than 100,000 people in Hiroshima and Nagasaki in a matter of minutes. Perhaps because of these horrors, world leaders look for ways to make the earth a safer, more secure place to live.

Issues of War and Peace



Use the graphic organizer online to take notes on collective measures employed by the world's nations to increase global security.

In the years after the end of World War II, the Cold War created new divisions and tensions among the world's nations. This uneasy situation potentially threatened the economic, environmental, and personal security of people across the world. So, nations began to work together to pursue collective security.

Nations Unite and Take Action Many nations consider that having a strong military is important to their security. After World War II, nations banded together to create military alliances. They formed the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO), the Southeast Asia Treaty Organization (SEATO), the Warsaw Pact, and others. The member nations of each of these alliances generally pledged military aid for their common defense.

In addition to military alliances to increase their security, world leaders also took steps to reduce the threat of war. The United Nations (UN) works in a variety of ways toward increasing collective global security.

Peacekeeping Activities One of the major aims of the UN is to promote world peace. The UN provides a public forum, private meeting places, and skilled mediators to help nations try to resolve conflicts at any stage of their development. At the invitation of the warring parties, the UN also provides peacekeeping forces. These forces are made up of soldiers from different nations. They work to carry out peace agreements, monitor cease-fires, or put an end to fighting to allow peace negotiations to go forward. They also help to move refugees, deliver supplies, and operate hosptials.

As of June 2007, the UN had over 82,000 soldiers and police in 16 peacekeeping forces around the world. Some forces, such as those in India, Pakistan, and Cyprus, have been in place for decades.

Weapons of Mass Destruction

Nations have not only worked to prevent and contain conflicts, they also have forged treaties to limit the manufacturing, testing, and trade of weapons. The weapons of most concern are those that cause mass destruction. These include nuclear, chemical, and biological weapons that can kill thousands, even millions of people.

In 1968, many nations signed a Nuclear Non-Proliferation Treaty to help prevent the **proliferation**, or spread, of nuclear weapons to other nations. In the 1970s, the United States and the Soviet Union signed the Strategic Arms Limitation Treaties. In the 1980s, both countries



▲ In central Baghdad, a U.S. Marine watches as a statue of Saddam Hussein is pulled down.

talked about deactivating some of their nuclear weapons. Many nations also signed treaties promising not to produce biological or chemical weapons.

War in Iraq Other nations, however, have tried to develop weapons of mass destruction (WMD). Iraq, for example, used chemical weapons in conflicts during the 1980s. Many people suspected that the Iraqi leader, Saddam Hussein, had plans to develop biological and nuclear weapons too. As part of the cease-fire arrangements in the Persian Gulf War, Iraq agreed to destroy its weapons of mass destruction. UN inspectors were sent to monitor this disarmament process. However, in 1998, the Iraqis ordered the inspectors to leave.

In 2002, analysts once again suspected that Hussein might be developing WMD. UN weapons inspectors returned, but Hussein seemed reluctant to cooperate. U.S. President George Bush argued that Hussein might be close to building powerful weapons to use against the United States or its allies. In March 2003, Bush ordered American troops to invade Iraq. Troops from Great Britain and other countries supported the attack. After four weeks of fighting, Hussein's government fell.

However, violence in Iraq continued. Factions of Iraqis battled one another for power in the new government. Iraqis angered by the presence of foreign troops in their country fought American soldiers. By the end of 2009, untold thousands of Iragis and over 4,300 Americans had been killed. No WMD were ever found.

Ethnic and Religious Conflicts Some conflicts among people of different ethnic or religious groups have roots centuries old. Such conflicts include those between Protestants and Catholics in Ireland, between Palestinians and Israelis in the Middle East, and among Serbs, Bosnians, and Croats in southeastern Europe.

These conflicts have led to terrible violence. The Kurds of southwest Asia have also been the victims of such violence. For decades, Kurds have wanted their own country. But their traditional lands cross the borders of three countries—Turkey, Iran, and Iraq. In the past, the Turks responded to Kurdish nationalism by forbidding Kurds to speak their native language. The Iranians also persecuted the Kurds, attacking them over religious issues. In the late 1980s, the Iraqis dropped poison gas on the Kurds, killing 5,000. Several international organizations, including the UN, worked to end the human rights abuses inflicted upon the Kurds.

Human Rights Issues

In 1948, the UN issued the **Universal Declaration of Human Rights**, which set human rights standards for all nations. It stated that "All human beings are born free and equal in dignity and rights. . . . Everyone has the right to life, liberty, and security of person." The declaration further listed specific rights that all human beings should have. Later, in the Helsinki Accords of 1975, the UN addressed the issues of freedom of movement and freedom to publish and exchange information.

Both the declaration and the accords are nonbinding. However, the sentiments in these documents inspired many people around the world. They made a commitment to ensuring that basic human rights are respected. The UN and other international agencies, such as Amnesty International, identify and publicize human rights violations. They also encourage people to work toward a world in which liberty and justice are guaranteed for all.

Continuing Rights Violations Despite the best efforts of various human rights organizations, protecting human rights remains an uphill battle. Serious violations of fundamental rights continue to occur around the world.

One type of violation occurs when governments try to stamp out **political dissent**, or the difference of opinion over political issues. In many countries around the world, from Cuba to Iran to Myanmar, individuals and groups have been persecuted for holding political views that differ from those of the people in power. In some countries, ethnic or racial hatreds lead to human rights abuses. In Sudan's western province of Darfur, for example, militias and government forces have been accused of genocide. The situation has created hundreds of thousands of refugees and led to the deaths of 200,000.

Women's Status Improves In the past, when women in Western nations entered the work force, they often faced discrimination in employment and salary. In non-Western countries, many women not only faced discrimination in jobs, they were denied access to education. In regions torn by war or ethnic conflict, they were often victims of violence and abuse. As women suffered, so too did their family members, especially children.

However, in the 1970s, a heightened awareness of human rights encouraged women in many countries to work to improve their lives. They pushed for new laws and government policies that gave them greater equality. In 1975, the UN held the first of several international conferences on women's status in the world. The fourth conference was held in Beijing, China, in 1995. It addressed such issues as preventing violence against women and empowering women to take leadership roles in politics and in business.

In 2005, the UN reviewed the status of women. Its report, titled *Progress of the World's Women 2000*, found that women had made notable gains in many parts of the world, especially in the areas of education and work. Even so, the report concluded that **gender inequality**—the difference between men and women in terms of wealth and status—still very much existed.

History Makers

Mother Teresa 1910-1997

Mother Teresa was one of the great champions of human rights for all people. Born Agnes Gonxha Bojaxhiu in what today is Macedonia, Mother Teresa joined a convent in Ireland at the age of 18. A short time later, she headed to India to teach at a girls' school. Over time, she noticed many sick and homeless people in the streets. She soon vowed to devote her life to helping India's poor.

In 1948, she established the Order of the Missionaries of Charity in Calcutta, which committed itself to serving the sick, needy, and unfortunate. In recognition of her commitment to the downtrodden, Mother Teresa received the Nobel Peace Prize in 1979.

nmhsocialstudies.com

RESEARCH WEB LINKS Go online for more on Mother Teresa.

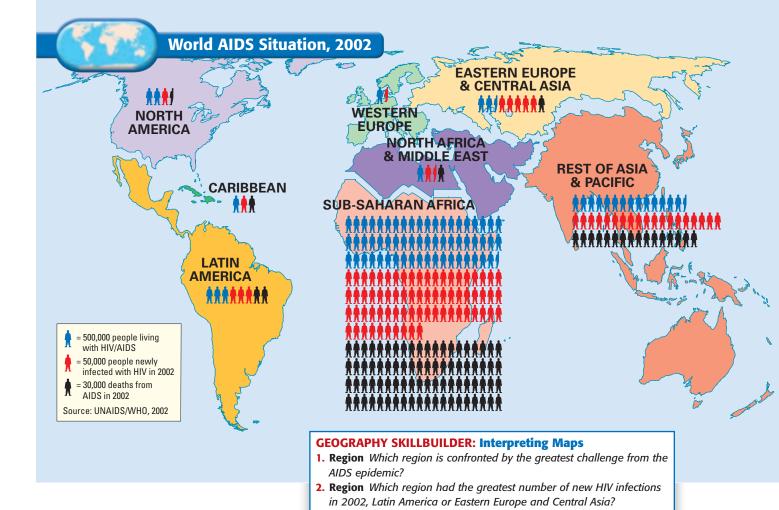
Vocabulary

A nonbinding agreement means that a nation does not suffer a penalty if it does not meet the terms of the declaration.

MAIN IDEA

Analyzing Issues

A What responsibilities do nations have for protecting human rights in other countries?



Health Issues

In recent decades, the enjoyment of a decent standard of health has become recognized as a basic human right. However, for much of the world, poor health is the norm. World health faced a major threat in 2003, with the outbreak of severe acute respiratory syndrome (SARS). This pneumonia-like disease emerged in China and spread worldwide. Afraid of infection, many people canceled travel to Asia. The resulting loss of business hurt Asian economies.

The AIDS Epidemic Perhaps the greatest global health issue is a disease known as AIDS, or acquired immune deficiency syndrome. It attacks the immune system, leaving sufferers open to deadly infections. The disease was first detected in the early 1980s. Since that time, AIDS has claimed the lives of nearly 25 million people worldwide. By 2007, there were almost 40 million people across the world living with HIV (the virus that causes AIDS) or AIDS. And in 2006, 4.3 million people were newly infected with HIV.

While AIDS is a worldwide problem, Sub-Saharan Africa has suffered most from the epidemic. About 63 percent of all persons infected with HIV live in this region. And in 2005, on average as many as 6,500 people died of AIDS each day. Most of the people dying are between the ages of 15 and 49—the years when people are at their most productive economically. AIDS, therefore, is reducing the number of people available as workers, managers, and entrepreneurs. As a result, economic growth is slowing in many countries in the region.

Since the '90s the world has made some progress in slowing the spread of AIDS. In response to the devastating impact of the disease, the UN issued the Declaration of Commitment on HIV/AIDS in 2001. This document set targets for halting the spread of AIDS and provided guidelines on how countries could pool their efforts.



▲ Two Afghan girls quietly wait for food at a refugee camp on the Afghanistan-Iran border.

Population Movement

The global movement of people has increased dramatically in recent years. This migration has taken place for both negative and positive reasons.

Push-Pull Factors People often move because they feel pushed out of their homelands. Lack of food due to drought, natural disasters, and political oppression are examples of push factors of migration. In 2005, the number of **refugees**—people who leave their country to move to another to find safety—stood at 19.2 million.

Not only negative events push people to migrate. Most people have strong connections to their home countries and do not leave unless strong positive attractions pull them away. They hope for a better life for themselves and for their children, and thus migrate to developed nations. For example, hundreds of thousands of people migrate from Africa to Europe and from Latin America to the United States every year. **B**

Effects of Migration Everyone has the right to leave his or her country. However, the country to which a migrant wants to move may not accept that person. The receiving country might have one policy about accepting refugees from political situations, and another about migrants coming for economic reasons. Because of the huge volume of people migrating from war-torn, famine-stricken, and politically unstable regions, millions of immigrants have no place to go. Crowded into refugee camps, often under squalid conditions, these migrants face a very uncertain future.

On the positive side, immigrants often are a valuable addition to their new country. They help offset labor shortages in a variety of industries. They bring experiences and knowledge that can spur the economy. In addition, they contribute to the sharing, shaping, and blending of a newly enriched culture.

MAIN IDEA

Analyzing Causes

B What push and pull factors cause people to migrate?

SECTION 3

ASSESSMENT

TERMS & NAMES 1. For each term or name, write a sentence explaining its significance.

- proliferation
- · Universal Declaration of Human Rights
- political dissent
- gender inequality
- AIDS
- refugee

USING YOUR NOTES

2. What methods have resulted in the greatest contribution to global security? Why?



MAIN IDEAS

- 3. What steps have nations taken to control the proliferation of weapons of mass destruction?
- **4.** How has AIDS affected the economy of Sub-Saharan Africa?
- **5.** What positive effects does immigration have?

CRITICAL THINKING & WRITING

- 6. MAKING INFERENCES Why might nations want to retain or develop an arsenal of nuclear, biological, and chemical weapons?
- **7. IDENTIFYING PROBLEMS** How are ethnic and religious conflicts related to problems of global security?
- **8. RECOGNIZING EFFECTS** How can individuals affect social conditions around the world? Consider the example of Mother Teresa when writing your answer.
- WRITING ACTIVITY SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY Write a paragraph explaining how advances in science and technology have increased threats to global security.

CONNECT TO TODAY CREATING A DATABASE

Locate recent information on refugees around the world. Use your findings to create a **database** of charts and graphs titled "The Global Refugee Situation."



Terrorism

Case Study: September 11, 2001

MAIN IDEA

WHY IT MATTERS NOW

TERMS & NAMES

POWER AND AUTHORITY

Terrorism threatens the safety of people all over the world.

People and nations must work together against the dangers posed by terrorism.

- terrorism
 auborterrorism
- cyberterrorism
- Department of Homeland Security
- USA Patriot Act

SETTING THE STAGE Wars are not the only threat to international peace and security. **Terrorism**, the use of violence against people or property to force changes in societies or governments, strikes fear in the hearts of people everywhere. Recently, terrorist incidents have increased dramatically around the world. Because terrorists often cross national borders to commit their acts or to escape to countries friendly to their cause, most people consider terrorism an international problem.

What Is Terrorism?

Terrorism is not new. Throughout history, individuals, small groups, and governments have used terror tactics to try to achieve political or social goals, whether to bring down a government, eliminate opponents, or promote a cause. In recent times, however, terrorism has changed.

Modern Terrorism Since the late 1960s, more than 14,000 terrorist attacks have occurred worldwide. International terrorist groups have carried out increasingly destructive, high-profile attacks to call attention to their goals and to gain major media coverage. Many countries also face domestic terrorists who oppose their governments' policies or have special interests to promote.

The reasons for modern terrorism are many. The traditional motives, such as gaining independence, expelling foreigners, or changing society, still drive various terrorist groups. These groups use violence to force concessions from their enemies, usually the governments in power. But other kinds of terrorists, driven by radical religious and cultural motives, began to emerge in the late 20th century.

The goal of these terrorists is the destruction of what they consider the forces of evil. This evil might be located in their own countries or in other parts of the world. These terrorists are ready to use any kind of weapon to kill their enemies. They are even willing to die to ensure the success of their attacks.

Terrorist Methods Terrorist acts involve violence. The weapons most frequently used by terrorists are the bomb and the bullet. The targets of terrorist attacks often are crowded places where people normally feel safe—subway stations, bus stops, restaurants, or shopping malls, for example. Or terrorists might target something that symbolizes what they are against, such as a government building



Use the graphic organizer online to take notes on information about the September 11 attacks and other terrorist incidents around the world.



▲ The sarin gas attack in the Tokyo subway in 1995 is the most notorious act of biochemical terrorism.

or a religious site. Such targets are carefully chosen in order to gain the most attention and to achieve the highest level of intimidation. A

Recently, some terrorist groups have used biological and chemical agents in their attacks. These actions involved the release of bacteria or poisonous gases into the atmosphere. While both biological and chemical attacks can inflict terrible casualties, they are equally powerful in generating great fear among the public. This development in terrorism is particularly worrisome, because biochemical agents are relatively easy to acquire. Laboratories all over the world use bacteria and viruses in the development of new drugs. And the raw materials needed to make some deadly chemical agents can be purchased in many stores.

Cyberterrorism is another recent development. This involves politically motivated attacks on information systems, such as hacking into computer networks or spreading computer viruses. Experts suggest that as more governments and businesses switch to computers to store data and run operations, the threat of cyberterrorism will increase.

Responding to Terrorism Governments take various steps to stamp out terrorism. Most adopt a very aggressive approach in tracking down and punishing terrorist groups. This approach includes infiltrating the groups to gather information on membership and future plans. It also includes striking back harshly after a terrorist attack, even to the point of assassinating known terrorist leaders.

Another approach governments use is to make it more difficult for terrorists to act. This involves eliminating extremists' sources of funds and persuading governments not to protect or support terrorist groups. It also involves tightening security measures so as to reduce the targets vulnerable to attack.

Terrorism Around the World

The problem of modern international terrorism first came to world attention in a shocking way during the 1972 Summer Olympic Games in Munich, Germany (then West Germany). Members of a Palestinian terrorist group killed two Israeli athletes and took nine others hostage, later killing them. Five of the terrorists and a police officer were killed during a rescue attempt. Since then, few regions of the world have been spared from terrorist attacks.

The Middle East Many terrorist organizations have roots in the Israeli-Palestinian conflict over land in the Middle East. Groups such as the Palestine Islamic Jihad, Hamas, and Hizballah have sought to prevent a peace settlement between Israel and the Palestinians. They want a homeland for the Palestinians on their own terms, deny Israel's right to exist, and seek Israel's destruction. In a continual cycle of violence, the Israelis retaliate after most terrorist attacks, and the terrorists strike again. Moderates in the region believe that the only long-term solution is a compromise between Israel and the Palestinians over the issue of land. However, the violence has continued with only an occasional break.

MAIN IDEA

Analyzing Motives

A Of what value would gaining public attention be to a terrorist group?

Europe Many countries in Europe have been targets of domestic terrorists who oppose government policies. For example, for decades the mostly Catholic Irish Republican Army (IRA) engaged in terrorist attacks against Britain because it opposed British control of Northern Ireland. Since 1998, however, the British, the IRA, and representatives of Northern Ireland's Protestants have been negotiating a peaceful solution to the situation. An agreement was reached in 2005.

Asia Afghanistan, in Southwest Asia, became a haven for international terrorists after the Taliban came to power in 1996. (See Chapter 34.) In that year, Osama bin Laden, a Saudi Arabian millionaire involved in terrorist activities, moved to Afghanistan. There he began using mountain hideouts as a base of operations for his global network of Muslim terrorists known as al-Qaeda.

Terrorist groups have arisen in East Asia, as well. One, known as Aum Shinrikyo ("Supreme Truth"), is a religious cult that wants to control Japan. In 1995, cult members released sarin, a deadly nerve gas, in subway stations in Tokyo. Twelve people were killed and more than 5,700 injured. This attack brought global attention to the threat of biological and chemical agents as terrorist weapons.

Africa Civil unrest and regional wars were the root causes of most terrorist activity in Africa at the end of the 20th century. But al-Qaeda cells operated in many African countries, and several major attacks against U.S. personnel and facilities in Africa were linked to al-Qaeda. In 1998, for example, bombings at the U.S. embassies in Kenya and Tanzania left over 200 dead and more than 5,000 people injured. The United States responded to these attacks with missile strikes on suspected terrorist facilities in Afghanistan and in Sudan, where bin Laden was based from 1991 to 1996.

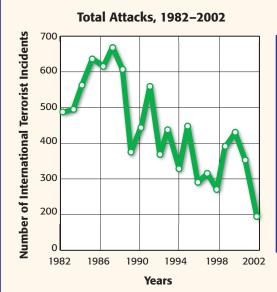
Latin America Narcoterrorism, or terrorism linked to drug trafficking, is a major problem in Latin America, particularly in Colombia. The powerful groups that control that country's narcotics trade have frequently turned to violence. The Revolutionary Armed Forces of Colombia (FARC) is a left-wing guerrilla group that has links with these drug traffickers. The FARC has attacked Colombian political, military, and economic targets, as well as those with American ties. **B**

MAIN IDEA

Analyzing Causes

B What are some reasons for terrorism in various regions of the world?

International Terrorist Attacks



International Casualties of Terrorism, 1997–2002

	Africa	Asia	Eurasia	Latin America	Middle East	North America	Western Europe
1997	28	344	27	11	480	7	17
1998	5,379	635	12	195	68	0	405
1999	185	690	8	10	31	0	16
2000	102	904	103	20	78	0	4
2001	150	651	0	6	513	4,091	20
2002	12	1281	615	52	772	0	6
Total	5,856	4,505	765	294	1,942	4,098	468

Source: U.S. Department of State

SKILLBUILDER: Interpreting Charts and Graphs

- 1. Comparing Which three areas suffered the greatest numbers of casualties of terrorism?
- 2. Drawing Conclusions How would you describe the overall trend in worldwide terrorist attacks since the mid-1980s?

Case Study: September 11, 2001

Attack on the United States

On the morning of September 11, 2001, 19 Arab terrorists hijacked four airliners heading from East Coast airports to California. In a series of coordinated strikes, the hijackers crashed two of the jets into the twin towers of the World Trade Center in New York City and a third into the Pentagon outside Washington, D.C. The fourth plane crashed in an empty field in Pennsylvania. •

The Destruction The planes, loaded with fuel, became destructive missiles when they crashed into the World Trade Center and the Pentagon. The explosions and fires so weakened the damaged skyscrapers that they crumbled to the ground less than two hours after impact. The fire and raining debris caused nearby buildings to collapse as well. The damage at the Pentagon, though extensive, was confined to one section of the building.

The toll in human lives was great. About 3,000 people died in the attacks. All passengers on the four planes were killed, as well as workers and visitors in the World Trade Center and the Pentagon. The dead included more than 340 New York City firefighters and 60 police officers who rushed to the scene to help and were buried in the rubble when the skyscrapers collapsed.

The Impact of the Attack September 11 had a devastating impact on the way Americans looked at life. Many reported feeling that everything had changed—that life would never be the same. Before, Americans had viewed terrorism as something that happened in other countries. Now they felt vulnerable and afraid.

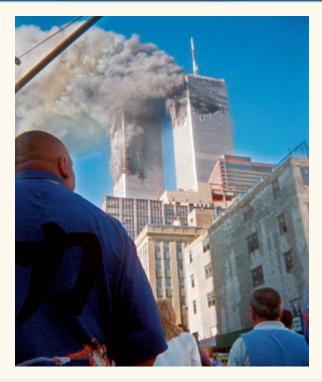
This sense of vulnerability was underscored just a few days after September 11, when terrorism struck the United States again. Letters containing spores of a bacterium that causes the disease anthrax were sent to people in the news media and to members of Congress in Washington, D.C. Anthrax bacteria, when inhaled, can

MAIN IDEA

Making Inferences

Why were the specific targets of the September 11 attacks selected by the terrorists?

Destruction in New York City and the Pentagon





▲ The strike on the Pentagon left a charred, gaping hole in the southwest side of the building.

■ Stunned bystanders look on as smoke billows from the twin towers of the World Trade Center.



damage the lungs and cause death. Five people who came in contact with spores from the tainted letters died of inhalation anthrax. Two were postal workers.

Investigators did not find a link between the September 11 attacks and the anthrax letters. Some of them believed that the letters might be the work of a lone terrorist rather than an organized group. Regardless of who was responsible for the anthrax scare, it caused incredible psychological damage. Many Americans were now fearful of an everyday part of life—the mail.

▲ A hazardous materials team prepares to enter a congressional building during the anthrax scare.

The United States Responds

Immediately after September 11, the United States called for an international effort to combat terrorist groups. President George W. Bush declared, "This battle will take time and resolve. But make no mistake about it: we will win."

As a first step in this battle, the U.S. government organized a massive effort to identify those responsible for the attacks. Officials concluded that Osama bin Laden directed the terrorists. The effort to bring him to justice led the United States to begin military action against Afghanistan in October, as you read in Chapter 34.

Antiterrorism Measures The federal government warned Americans that additional terrorist attacks were likely. It then took action to prevent such attacks. The **Department of Homeland Security** was created in 2002 to coordinate national efforts against terrorism. Antiterrorism measures included a search for terrorists in the United States and the passage of antiterrorism laws.

The al-Qaeda network was able to carry out its terrorist attacks partly through the use of "sleepers." These are agents who move to a country, blend into a community, and then, when directed, secretly prepare for and carry out terrorist acts. A search to find any al-Qaeda terrorists who remained in the United States was begun. Officials began detaining and questioning Arabs and other Muslims whose behavior was considered suspicious or who had violated immigration regulations.

Some critics charged that detaining these men was unfair to the innocent and violated their civil rights. However, the government held that the actions were justified because the hijackers had been Arabs. The government further argued that it was not unusual to curtail civil liberties during wartime in order to protect national security. This argument was also used to justify a proposal to try some terrorist suspects in military tribunals rather than in criminal courts. On October 26, 2001,



▲ Passengers wait to go through a security check at La Guardia Airport in New York. President Bush signed an antiterrorism bill into law. The law, known as the **USA Patriot Act**, allowed the government to

- detain foreigners suspected of terrorism for seven days without charging them with a crime
- tap all phones used by suspects and monitor their e-mail and Internet use
- make search warrants valid across states
- order U.S. banks to investigate sources of large foreign accounts
- prosecute terrorist crimes without any time restrictions or limitations.

Again, critics warned that these measures allowed the government to infringe on people's civil rights.

Aviation Security The federal government also increased its involvement in aviation security. The Federal Aviation Administration (FAA) ordered airlines to install bars on cockpit doors to prevent passengers from gaining control of planes, as the

hijackers had done. Sky marshals—trained security officers—were assigned to fly on planes, and National Guard troops began patrolling airports.

The Aviation and Transportation Security Act, which became law in November 2001, made airport security the responsibility of the federal government. Previously, individual airports had been responsible. The law provided for a federal security force that would inspect passengers and carry-on bags. It also required the screening of checked baggage.

Airline and government officials debated these and other measures for making air travel more secure. Major concerns were long delays at airports and respect for passengers' privacy. It has also become clear that public debate over security measures will continue as long as the United States fights terrorism and tries to balance national security with civil rights.

SECTION

4

ASSESSMENT

TERMS & NAMES 1. For each term or name, write a sentence explaining its significance.

- terrorism
- cyberterrorism
- Department of Homeland Security
- USA Patriot Act

USING YOUR NOTES

2. How were the September 11 terrorist attacks unique? How were they similar to other terrorist incidents?



MAIN IDEAS

- **3.** How has terrorism changed in recent years?
- **4.** What methods do terrorists use?
- 5. What steps did the United States take in response to the terrorist attacks of September 11, 2001?

CRITICAL THINKING & WRITING

- **6. ANALYZING MOTIVES** What might cause individuals to use terror tactics to bring about change?
- 7. FORMING AND SUPPORTING OPINIONS Is it important for the U.S. government to respect peoples' civil rights as it wages a war against terrorism? Why or why not?
- **8. DRAWING CONCLUSIONS** What do you think has been the greatest impact of terrorism on American life?
- 9. WRITING ACTIVITY SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY Conduct research to find information on how science and technology are used to combat terrorism. Then write an illustrated report titled "Science and Counterterrorism."

MULTIMEDIA ACTIVITY PREPARING A TIME LINE



Use the Internet to research terrorist incidents since the end of 2001. Use your findings to create a **time line** titled "Recent Major Terrorist Attacks."

INTERNET KEYWORD terrorism



Cultures Blend in a Global Age

MAIN IDEA

WHY IT MATTERS NOW

TERMS & NAMES

CULTURAL INTERACTION Technology has increased contact among the world's people, changing their cultures.

Globalization of culture has changed the ways people live, their perceptions, and their interactions.

 popular culture

materialism

SETTING THE STAGE Since the beginnings of civilization, people have blended ideas and ways of doing things from other cultures into their own culture. The same kind of cultural sharing and blending continues today. But, because of advances in technology, it occurs at a much more rapid pace and over much greater distances. Twenty-first-century technologies allow people from all over the world to have increasing interaction with one another. Such contacts promote widespread sharing of cultures.

Cultural Exchange Accelerates

Cultural elements that reflect a group's common background and changing interests are called **popular culture**. Popular culture involves music, sports, movies, the Internet, clothing fashions, foods, and hobbies or leisure activities. Popular culture around the world incorporates features from many different lands. Of all the technologies that contribute to such cultural sharing, television, movies, the Internet, and other mass media have been the most powerful.

Mass Media In the United States, 99 percent of American households have at least one television set. In Western Europe, too, most households have one or more televisions. Access to television is less widespread in the emerging nations, but it is growing. The speed at which television can present information helps create an up-to-the-minute shared experience of global events. Wars, natural disasters, and political drama in faraway places have become a part of everyday life.

However, no mass media does more to promote a sense of a global shared experience than does the Internet. In a matter of minutes, a political demonstration in South America can be captured on a camera phone and uploaded to an online video community for all the world to see. Blogs, social networking sites, and real-time information networks also transmit the most current news, information, entertainment, and opinions worldwide in the blink of an eye.

Television, the Internet, and other mass media, including radio and movies, are among the world's most popular forms of entertainment. But they also show how people in other parts of the world live and what they value. Mass media is the major way popular culture spreads to all parts of the globe.

International Elements of Popular Culture The entertainment field, especially television, has a massive influence on popular culture. People from around



Use the graphic organizer online to take notes on areas of popular culture that have become international in scope.

Global Patterns

International Baseball

The sport of baseball is an example of global popular culture. When American missionaries and teachers arrived in Japan in the 1870s, they introduced the game of baseball. Over the years the game gained popularity there. Today, some Major League teams have Japanese players and several American players play in the Japanese league.

Baseball spread to Mexico, Cuba, Puerto Rico, Panama, and the Dominican Republic in the late 19th and early 20th centuries. Today baseball is a popular game in these and other Latin American countries. And more than 25 percent of the players in Major League Baseball come from Latin America.

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INTERNET ACTIVITY Go online to create a scrapbook of foreign players in Major League Baseball.

the world are avid viewers of American TV programs. For example, in Bhutan, a tiny country high in the Himalaya, ESPN, HBO, Cartoon Network, and CNN are among the most-watched channels. CNN truly is a global channel, since it reaches more than 200 million households in over 200 countries.

Television broadcasts of sporting events provide a front-row seat for sports fans all over the globe. Basketball and soccer are among the most popular televised sports. National Basketball Association (NBA) games are televised in over 200 countries. In China, for example, broadcasts of NBA games of the week regularly attract an audience in the millions. One of the most-watched international sporting events is the soccer World Cup. Over 715 million viewers worldwide watched the 2006 World Cup Final.

Music is another aspect of popular culture that has become international. As the equipment for listening to music has become more portable, there are only a few places in the world that do not have access to music from other cultures. People from around the world dance to reggae bands from the Caribbean, chant rap lyrics from the United States, play air guitar to rowdy European bands, and enjoy the fast drumming of Afropop tunes. And the performers who create this music often gain international fame.

MAIN IDEA

Recognizing Effects

A What effects have television and mass media had on popular culture?

Global Impact: Cultural Crossroads

Rock 'n' Roll

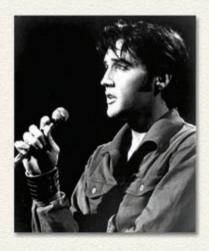
In the middle of the 1950s, a new style of music emerged on the American scene. It was called rock 'n' roll. The music explored social and political themes. Rock music, which seemed to adults to reflect a youth rebellion, soon became the dominant popular music for young people across the world. As the influence of rock music spread, international artists added their own traditions, instruments, and musical styles to the mix called rock.

"The King" ▶

"Rock and roll music, if you like it and you feel it, you just can't help but move to it. That's what happens to me, I can't help it."—Elvis Presley, called the "King of rock 'n' roll" by many.

U2 ▶

U2, led by singer Bono (right), is one of the world's most popular and influential rock bands. Over a career spanning more than 20 years, this Irish band has kept its music vibrant and fresh by absorbing and reworking all manner of musical styles. The band has drawn on the blues, gospel, 1950s rock 'n' roll, 1960s protest songs, and hip-hop to create a very distinctive kind of music.





World Culture Blends Many Influences

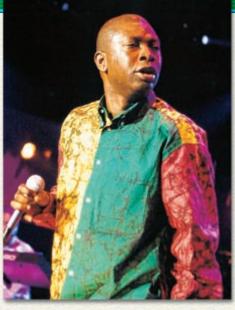
Greater access to the ideas and customs of different cultures often results in cultural blending. As cultural ideas move with people among cultures, some beliefs and habits seem to have a greater effect than others. In the 20th century, ideas from the West have been very dominant in shaping cultures in many parts of the globe.

Westernizing Influences on Different Cultures Western domination of the worldwide mass media helps explain the huge influence the West has on many different cultures today. However, heavy Western influence on the rest of the world's cultures is actually rooted in the 19th century. Western domination of areas all over the globe left behind a legacy of Western customs and ideas. Western languages are spoken throughout the world, mainly because of Europe's history of colonization in the Americas, Asia, and Africa.

Over the past 50 years, English has emerged as the premier international language. English is spoken by about 500 million people as their first or second language. Although more people speak Mandarin Chinese than English, English speakers are more widely distributed. English is the most common language used on the Internet and at international conferences. The language is used by scientists, diplomats, doctors, and businesspeople around the world. The widespread use of English is responsible, in part, for the emergence of a dynamic global culture.

Western influence can be seen in other aspects of popular culture. For example, blue jeans are the clothes of choice of most of the world's youth. Western business suits are standard uniforms among many people. American-style hamburgers and soft drinks can be purchased in many countries of the world. Mickey Mouse and other Disney characters are almost universally recognized. Western influence also has an effect on ways of thinking in other parts of the world. For example, people





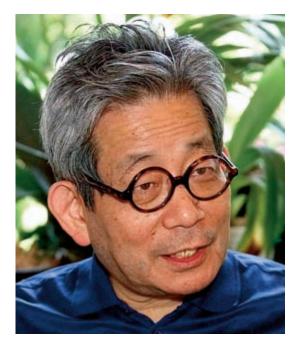
The spread of American culture, including sports, fashion, and fast food, has created an international culture recognizable in all corners of the globe. In some cases American culture is simply a powerful influence, as other societies blend American culture with local customs. Cultural blending is evident even in America's past. Symbols of American culture like baseball and hot dogs are themselves the result of cross-cultural influences.

▲ "World Pop"

Youssou N'Dour, a singer from the West African country of Senegal, blends traditional African styles with American rock to create a new form that has been called "world-pop fusion."

Connect to Today

- **1. Making Inferences** How have improvements in technology and global communications aided in the blending of musical styles?
 - 🚺 See Skillbuilder Handbook, page R10.
- 2. Creating Oral Presentations Find out the global origins of such aspects of American culture as rock 'n' roll and baseball. Report your findings to the class in an oral presentation.



▲ Kenzaburo Oe of Japan was awarded the Nobel literature prize in 1994. Oe studied Western literature in college, and he has used Western literary styles to tell stories about his personal life and the myths and history of his country.



▲ South African writer Nadine Gordimer won the Nobel Prize for Literature in 1991. Many of her novels and stories published prior to 1991 focused on the evils of the apartheid system. As a result, much of her work was censored or banned by the South African government.

from many different cultures have adopted **materialism**, the Western mindset of placing a high value on acquiring material possessions.

Non-Western Influences Cultural ideas are not confined to moving only from the West to other lands. Non-Western cultures also influence people in Europe and the United States. From music and clothing styles to ideas about art and architecture, to religious and ethical systems, non-Western ideas are incorporated into Western life. And cultural blending of Western and non-Western elements opens communications channels for the further exchange of ideas throughout the globe.

The Arts Become International Modern art, like popular culture, has become increasingly international. Advances in transportation and technology have facilitated the sharing of ideas about art and the sharing of actual works of art. Shows and museums throughout the world exhibit art of different styles and from different places. It became possible to see art from other cultures that had not previously been available to the public.

Literature, too, has become internationally appreciated. Well-known writers routinely have their works translated into dozens of languages, resulting in truly international audiences. The list of Nobel Prize winners in literature over the last 20 years reflects a broad variety of nationalities, including Turkish, Egyptian, Mexican, South African, West Indian, Japanese, Polish, Chinese, and Hungarian. **B**

Future Challenges and Hopes

Many people view with alarm the development of a global popular culture heavily influenced by Western, and particularly American, ways of life. They fear that this will result in the loss of their unique identity as a people or nation. As a result, many countries have adopted policies that reserve television broadcast time for national programming. For example, France requires that 40 percent of broadcast time be set aside for French-produced programs. And in South Korea, the government limits foreign programming to just 20 percent of broadcast time.

MAIN IDEA Summarizing B. Name three

B Name three advances that allow a greater sharing of the arts.

Some countries take a different approach to protecting cultural diversity in the media. Television programmers take American shows and rework them according to their own culture and traditions. As an Indian media researcher noted, "We really want to see things our own way." Other countries take more drastic steps to protect their cultural identity. They strictly censor the mass media to keep unwanted ideas from entering their nation.

Sometimes people respond to perceived threats to their culture by trying to return to traditional ways. Cultural practices and rites of passage may receive even more emphasis as a group tries to preserve its identity. In some countries, native groups take an active role in preserving the traditional ways of life. For example, the Maori in New Zealand have revived ancestral customs rather than face cultural extinction. Many Maori cultural activities are conducted in a way that preserves Maori ways of thinking and behaving. In 1987, the New Zealand government recognized the importance of this trend by making the Maori language one of the country's official languages. (C)

Global Interdependence Despite the fear and uncertainty accompanying global interdependence, economic, political, and environmental issues do bring all nations closer together. Nations have begun to recognize that they are dependent on other nations and deeply affected by the actions of others far away. As elements of everyday life and expressions of culture become more international in scope, people across the world gain a sense of connectedness with people in other areas of the world. For example, the response to the events of September 11, 2001, was international in scope. People from around the world expressed their concern and support for the United States. It was as if this act of terrorism had struck their own countries.

Throughout history, human beings have faced challenges to survive and to live better. In the 21st century, these challenges will be faced by people who are in increasing contact with one another. They have a greater stake in learning to live in harmony together and with the physical planet. As Martin Luther King, Jr., stated, "Our loyalties must transcend our race, our tribe, our class, and our nation; and this means we must develop a world perspective."

MAIN IDEA

Recognizing **Effects**

C How do people react against greater global interdependence?

SECTION



ASSESSMENT

- TERMS & NAMES 1. For each term or name, write a sentence explaining its significance.
- popular culture
- materialism

USING YOUR NOTES

2. Which of the international popular culture aspects has the greatest effect on your life? Why?



MAIN IDEAS

- 3. How do the mass media spread popular culture across the world?
- 4. Why do Western cultures tend to dominate other cultures?
- 5. What steps have governments and people taken to protect cultural diversity?

CRITICAL THINKING & WRITING

- 6. CLARIFYING Why are the mass media such an effective means of transmitting culture?
- 7. RECOGNIZING EFFECTS Do you think that limiting the amount of foreign television programming is an effective way to protect cultural diversity? Why or why not?
- 8. FORMING AND SUPPORTING OPINIONS "Ethnocentrism the belief in the superiority of one's own ethnic group—has taken hold in the world." Do you agree or disagree? Explain.
- 9. WRITING ACTIVITY CULTURAL INTERACTION Write a letter to a friend in another country describing the elements of American popular culture they might appreciate.

CONNECT TO TODAY CREATING A SCRAPBOOK

Study current newspapers and magazines to find pictures that show cultural blending. Create a scrapbook of these pictures. Write captions explaining how each picture illustrates cultural blending.

Chapter 36 Assessment

TERMS & NAMES

For each term or name below, briefly explain its connection to global interdependence from 1960 to the present.

1. Internet 6. refugee 2. genetic engineering

7. terrorism

3. global economy 4. free trade

8. USA Patriot Act 9. popular culture

5. political dissent

10. materialism

MAIN IDEAS

The Impact of Science and Technology Section 1 (pages 1071-1074)

- 11. In what ways have science and technology changed the lives of people today?
- 12. What was the goal of the green revolution?

Global Economic Development Section 2

(pages 1075-1081)

- 13. How are a developed nation and an emerging nation different?
- 14. What is the function of the World Trade Organization?

Global Security Issues Section 3 (pages 1082–1086)

- 15. What methods has the world community used to resolve conflicts since World War II?
- 16. What efforts have been made to guarantee basic human rights?

Case Study: Terrorism Section 4 (pages 1087–1092)

- 17. What methods do terrorists employ?
- **18.** How did the United States respond to the terrorist attacks of September 11, 2001?

Cultures Blend in a Global Age Section 5 (pages 1093–1097)

- 19. Which technologies have had the most powerful impact on cultural sharing?
- 20. Why have Western influences had a major impact all over the world?

CRITICAL THINKING

1. USING YOUR NOTES

SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY Use the diagram to show how advances in science and technology have changed lifestyles.

Cause	Effect
Miniaturization of computer parts	
Expanded global communication	→
Genetic research	→

2. EVALUATING COURSES OF ACTION

POWER AND AUTHORITY How is the UN working to address the unresolved problems of the world?

3. IDENTIFYING SOLUTIONS

CULTURAL INTERACTION Imagine you are the culture minister of a small country. What steps would you take to ensure that your country's cultural identity is protected? Explain why you think these steps would be effective.

4. RECOGNIZING EFFECTS

ECONOMICS How are individuals affected by the global economy?

VISUAL SUMMARY

Global Interdependence



Economics

- · Service industries grow in developed nations.
- Free trade expands world markets.
- Environmental challenges continue.

Culture

- Mass media spreads many cultures.
- Popular culture becomes more international.
- Global interdependence awareness develops.

Science and Technology

- Space cooperation stretches horizons.
- · Advanced communications allow wider contact.
- Inventions improve life and health.

Politics

- Terrorism and weapons of mass destruction threaten global security.
- Nations take collective security actions.
- Human rights improve worldwide.
- · Immigrants change cultures.

STANDARDS-BASED ASSESSMENT

Use the passage, which was written by a German journalist, and your knowledge of world history to answer questions 1 and 2.

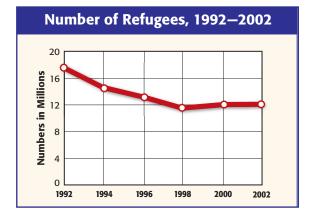
PRIMARY SOURCE

Imagine a roomful of 14-year-olds-from Germany, Japan, Israel, Russia and Argentina. Obviously, they would all be wearing Levi's and baseball caps. But how would they relate to one another? They would communicate in English, though haltingly and with heavy accents. About what? . . . They would debate the merits of Nike versus Converse, of Chameleon versus Netscape. Sure, they would not discuss Herman Melville or George Gershwin, but neither would they compare notes on Dante or Thomas Mann. The point is that they would talk about icons and images "made in the U.S.A."

JOSEF JOFFE, from "America the Inescapable"

- **1.** Which statement best describes the main idea of the excerpt?
 - **A.** Many teenagers have little understanding of world literature.
 - **B.** American popular culture plays a major role in teenagers' lives.
 - **C.** All teenagers communicate in English.
 - **D.** Most teenagers wear American-made clothes.
- 2. Which is the most likely way that teenagers in other countries learn about American popular culture?
 - A. through the mass media
 - **B.** through discussions with their parents
 - **C.** through school textbooks
 - **D.** through Internet bulletin boards

Use the graph and your knowledge of world history to answer question 3.



- 3. Which statement best describes the overall trend shown in this graph?
 - **A.** There has been a steady rise in the number of refugees.
 - B. The number of refugees has risen dramatically.
 - **C.** There has been a steady fall in the number of refugees.
 - **D.** The number of refugees has fallen dramatically.

hmhsocialstudies.com TEST PRACTICE

For additional test practice, go online for:

- Diagnostic tests
- Tutorials
- Strategies

Interact with History

After reading Chapter 36, do you believe events in other nations affect your life? Which kinds of events are more likely to affect you in a very personal way? Create a survey about global interdependence to ask students in your class or school. Consider organizing your questions in four broad categories: science and technology, economics, security, and culture.

FOCUS ON WRITING

Use the Internet and library resources to find information on SARS. Use your findings to write a brief report. Your report should cover the following topics:

- where and when the disease emerged
- possible causes and methods of prevention
- · statistics on the disease

MULTIMEDIA ACTIVITY



NetExplorations: The Environment

Go to NetExplorations at hmhsocialstudies.com to learn more about the environment and the dangers it faces. Working in a team with three other students, find information on a recent discovery concerning changes in the environment. Use your findings to create the script for a 10-minute television news segment on the discovery and its implications for everyday life. The script should include

- a description and explanation of the discovery
- interviews on the subject with scientists, government officials, and representatives of non-governmental organizations
- references to locations, sound, and visuals
- a concluding statement on the overall significance of the discovery and what, if anything, needs to be done about it

Five Developing Nations

Nation building is the creation of a state with a national identity. In Unit 8, you studied many nations that emerged since World War II. Forming a politically and economically stable country that safeguards basic human rights is a formidable task, especially in places where the people have different ethnic or religious backgrounds and different traditions and goals. To succeed, a new nation must forge a national identity. In the next six pages, you will see how five countries are working to become developed nations.





A 2007 protest against Israel's construction of a barrier in the West Bank >

1985 1995 2005

Israel-Egypt **Peace Treaty 1979**

The first treaty between Israel and an Arab country.

First intifada 1987

The intifada was a widespread campaign of resistance. Palestinians Arabs all over Israel participated in boycotts, demonstrations, rock throwing, and attacks on Israeli soldiers.

Israel leaves Gaza 2005

After 38 years of occupation, Israel withdrew its forces and removed Israeli settlers from the Gaza Strip, leaving it to Palestinian control.

Indira Gandhi killed 1984

In October, prime minister Indira Gandhi was shot by two of her Sikh bodyguards in retaliation for an attack on a Sikh temple where terrorists were hiding.

India reaches out 2005

India made a major attempt to reach out to major powers, signing significant agreements with the United States, the European Union, Japan, and Russia throughout the year.

1985 1995 2005

Political opening 1988

In 1988, opposition parties were able to seriously challenge the ruling party for the first time.

Zapatista uprising 1994 ▶

Rebels seized control of several towns in the state of Chiapas, demanding more democracy and a better life for the native people.

1995 2005 1985



Nigeria held its first free election after almost 20 years of military dictators.

Free election 1999

2005

Fall of Marcos rule 1986 A

Marcos was forced into exile when he attempted to falsify the results of the 1986 election. Corazón Aquino became president.

Impeachment attempt fails 2005

An attempt to impeach President Gloria Macapagal Arroyo, over claims of vote rigging in the 2004 election, was rejected in the Philippine Congress.



Comparing &Contrasting

- 1. What are some problems that can arise in developing nations as a result of ethnic, religious, and economic problems?
- 2. How do Israels religious problems differ from those of the other countries on the time line?



National Characteristics

Many developing nations are trying to bring together a patchwork of ethnic groups that historically competed or were hostile to each other. To complicate matters more, the groups often speak different languages. Choosing one group's language as the official language could earn government leaders the ill-will of the other groups. Moreover, the traditions of one group might be objectionable to another for moral or religious reasons. The chart below describes the current situation in the five sample countries.

	Political	Cultural		
	Government	Flag	Language	Religion
Israel	 Parliamentary democracy Unicameral Knesset (parliament) President elected for seven-year term by Knesset Prime minister heads the largest party in the Knesset Supreme Court appointed for life by president 	***	 Hebrew (official) Arabic (official) English (used commonly)	Jewish, 76.4%Muslim, 16%Christian, 2.1%Druze, 1.6%
India	 Federal Republic Bicameral legislature elected by people and state assemblies President chosen by electoral college; five-year term Prime minister chosen by ruling party Supreme Court appointed by president to serve until age 65 		 Hindi (official and most common) Over 200 languages spoken English (used in education and government) 	 Hindu, 80.5% Muslim, 13.4% Christian, 2.3% Sikh, 1.9% Buddhist, Jain, Parsi in small numbers
Mexico	 Federal Republic Bicameral legislature, elected by popular vote or by party vote President elected by popular vote for six-year term Supreme Court appointed by president with consent of the Senate 		 Spanish Mayan, Nahuatl and other indigenous languages 	Roman Catholic, 76.5%Protestant, 6.3%
Nigeria	 Republic Bicameral legislature elected by popular vote President elected by popular vote for one or two four-year terms Supreme Court appointed by president 		 English (official) Hausa, Yoruba, Igbo, Fulani 	Muslim, 50%Christian, 40%Indigenous faiths, 10%
Philippines	 Republic Bicameral legislature elected by popular vote President elected by popular vote for six-year term Supreme Court appointed by president to serve until age 70 	*	Filipino (official)English (official)Eight major dialects	Roman Catholic, 80.9%Protestant, 11.6%Muslim, 5%

Economic

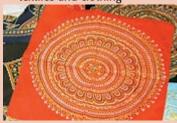
Trading

Main Export

- Imports: crude oil, grains, military equipment, raw materials
- Exports: fruits, vegetables, cut diamonds, high-technology equipment.
- cut diamonds



- Imports: crude oil, machinery, fertilizer, chemicals, gems
- Exports: software services, engineering products, gems, jewelry, textiles, chemicals, leather goods
- textiles and clothing



- Imports: metalworking and agricultural machinery, electrical equipment, car parts for assembly and repair
- Exports: petroleum products, silver, manufactured goods, cotton, coffee, fruits, and vegetables
- Imports: machinery, chemicals, manufactured goods, food
- Exports: petroleum and petroleum products, cocoa, rubber

· manufactured goods



petroleum



- Imports: fuels, consumer goods, raw materials, capital goods
- Exports: coconut products, clothing, electronic products, machinery, and transport equipment
- electronics



"How can [a people] think of themselves as a national people if they don't even have a single language unifying them? Language is one of the most important instruments of nation-building, a potentially powerful unifying force."

David Lamb, from The Africans

Comparing & Contrasting

- 1. What similarities are there among the governments of the countries listed on the chart?
- 2. Why does David Lamb think language is such an important part of nation building?



Important Trends

In their inaugural speeches, the following leaders outlined the principal problems they wished to address during their terms in office. Below are some highlights of what they said. Note that the problems they discuss are shared by many of the developing nations you studied in Unit 8.

PRIMARY SOURCE

Israel

Former Prime Minister Ariel Sharon discussed the Israeli national identity.



I believe wholeheartedly that the State of Israel has no greater resource than themselves, the Jewish people. We shall strengthen the bond and connection with the Jews of the Diaspora and the Zionist education of our education system. We will work towards bringing masses of Jewish immigrants to Israel and their absorption in the country. We must educate our children towards values: to respect for others, to equality between people, to national pride and love of country.

DOCUMENT-BASED QUESTION

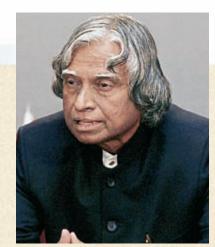
In Sharon's view, what should be the continuing objectives of Israel?

PRIMARY SOURCE

India

Former President Abdul Kalam stressed the importance of keeping religion separate from government.

I wish to emphasize my unflinching commitment to the principle of secularism, which is the cornerstone of our nationhood and which is



the key feature of our civilization strength. During the last one year I met a number of spiritual leaders of all religions. They all echoed one message, that is, unity of minds and hearts of our people will happen and we will see the golden age of our country, very soon. I would like to endeavor to work for bringing about unity of minds among the divergent traditions of our country.

DOCUMENT-BASED QUESTION

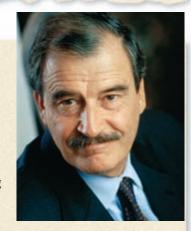
Why does Kalam think India needs a secular government?

PRIMARY SOURCE

Mexico

Equal rights and economic opportunities are what the poor need in the view of Vicente Fox.

I emphatically maintain that social justice is part of an efficient economy, not its adversary. It is time we recognized that everything cannot be solved by the State, nor can everything be solved by the market. I believe that the vote for



democracy is inseparable from the vote for social equity.

Quality education, employment and regional development are the levers to remove, once and for all, the signs of poverty, which are inequity, injustice, discrimination and exclusion.

DOCUMENT-BASED QUESTION

According to Fox, what does Mexico have to provide its poor so they can obtain social equity?

Go online to listen to selected audio excerpts.

PRIMARY SOURCE

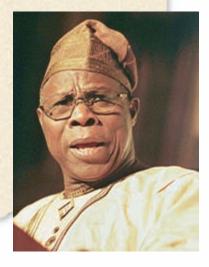
Nigeria

Former President Olusegun Obasanjo explains his plan to curb the military.

The incursion of the military into government has been a disaster for our country and for the military over the last thirty years. . . . [P]rofessionalism has been lost. Youths go into the military not to pursue a noble career but with the sole intention of taking part in coups and to be appointed as military administrators of states and chairmen of task forces. . . . A great deal of reorientation has to be undertaken and a re-definition of roles, re-training and re-education will have to be done to ensure that the military submits to civil authority and regains its pride, professionalism and traditions. We shall restore military cooperation and exchanges with our traditional friends.

DOCUMENT-BASED QUESTION

How did President Obasanjo propose to change the military culture in Nigeria?



PRIMARY SOURCE

Philippines

Former President Gloria Macapagal Arroyo discusses the importance of the rule of law.

Politics and political power as traditionally practiced and used in the Philippines are among the roots of the social and economic inequities that characterize our national problems. Thus, to achieve true reforms, we need to outgrow our traditional brand of politics based on patronage and personality. Traditional politics is the politics of the status quo. It is a structural part of our problem.

We need to promote a new politics of true party programs and platforms, of an institutional process of dialogue with our citizenry. This new politics is the politics of genuine reform. It is a structural part of the solution.



DOCUMENT-BASED QUESTION

According to Macapagal Arroyo, how does traditional politics promote poverty and how does party politics promote social equity?

Comparing & Contrasting

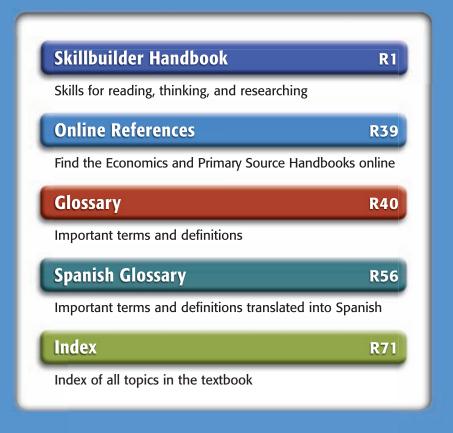
- 1. How does Kalam's view of religion in national self-identity and government contrast with Sharon's?
- 2. How might party politics as described by Macapagal Arroyo help to achieve the solutions Fox considers essential?

EXTENSION ACTIVITY

Choose one of the countries studied in Unit 8 that became independent after World War II. Research on the Internet how that country has fared in recent times. Use the Web sites of major newspapers, magazines, and other news organizations to find information on how ethnic, religious, economic, and other relevant concerns are being handled. Organize this information into an oral presentation to explain how the country is or is not changing.

WORLD HISTORY

PATTERNS OF INTERACTION



Skillbuilder Handbook

Refer to the Skillbuilder Handbook when you need help in answering Main Idea questions or questions in Section Assessments and Chapter Assessments. In addition, the handbook will help you answer questions about maps, charts, and graphs.

SECT	ION 1: Reading Critically	
1.1 1.2 1.3 1.4	Determining Main Ideas Following Chronological Order Clarifying; Summarizing Identifying Problems and Solutions	R2 R3 R4 R5
1.5	Analyzing Causes and Recognizing Effects	R6
1.6 1.7	Comparing and Contrasting Distinguishing Fact from Opinion	R7 R8
	Distinguishing race norm opinion	-110
SECT	ION 2: Higher-Order Critical Thinking	
2.1	Categorizing	R9
2.2	Making Inferences	R10
2.3	Drawing Conclusions	R11
2.4	Developing Historical Perspective	R12
2.5	Formulating Historical Questions	R13
2.6	Making Predictions	R14
2.7	Hypothesizing	R15
2.8 2.9	Analyzing Motives	R16
2.9	Analyzing Issues Analyzing Bias	R17 R18
2.10	Evaluating Decisions and Courses of Action	R19
2.12	Forming and Supporting Opinions	R20
2.13	Synthesizing	R21
	ION 3: Exploring Evidence: Print, Visual, Technology Sources	
3.1	Analyzing Primary and Secondary Sources	R22
3.2	Visual, Audio, and Multimedia Sources	R23
3.3	Using the Internet	R24
3.4 3.5	Interpreting Maps	R25 R27
3.6	Interpreting Charts Interpreting Graphs	R27
3.7	Analyzing Political Cartoons	R29
J.,	Analyzing Fonded Curtoons	ILZ3
SECT	ION 4: Creating Presentations	
4.1	Writing for Social Studies	R30
4.2	Creating a Map	R31
4.3	Creating Charts and Graphs	R32
4.4	Creating and Using a Database	R33
4.5	Creating a Model	R34
4.6	Creating/Interpreting a Research Outline	R35
4.7	Creating Oral Presentations	R36
4.8	Creating Written Presentations	R37

Determining Main Ideas

The **MAIN IDEA** is a statement that sums up the most important point of a paragraph, a passage, an article, or a speech. Determining the main idea will increase your understanding as you read about historic events, people, and places. Main ideas are supported by details and examples.

Understanding the Skill

STRATEGY: IDENTIFY THE TOPIC. To find the main idea of a passage, first identify the topic. Then, as you read, define the central idea about the topic that the many details explain or support. The following passage contains information about the Renaissance. The diagram organizes the information to help you determine the main idea.

- Identify the topic by first looking at the title or subti**tle.** This title suggests a quick way to identify the topic by looking for the name of the Renaissance woman, Isabella d'Este.
- Look at the beginning and ending sentences of each paragraph for possible clues to the main idea.
- Read the entire passage. Look for details about the topic. What central idea do they explain or support?

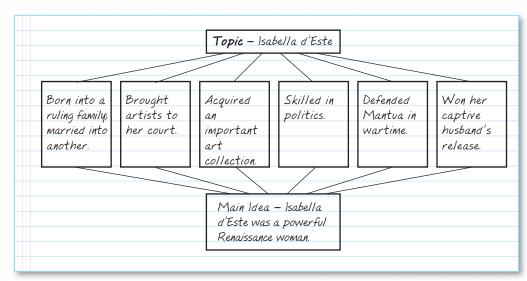
1 A Renaissance Woman

Isabella d'Este was a woman who lived during the Renaissance. This historic period produced the ideal, or "universal," man—one who excelled in many fields. The concept of universal excellence applied almost exclusively to men. 2 Yet a few women managed to succeed in exercising power.

2 Isabella d'Este was one such woman. Born into the ruling family of the city-state of Ferrara, she married the ruler of Mantua, another city-state. Isabella brought many Renaissance artists to her court and acquired an art collection that was famous throughout Europe. She was also skilled in politics. When her husband was taken captive in war, Isabella defended Mantua and won his release.

STRATEGY: MAKE A DIAGRAM. State the topic and list the supporting details in a chart. Use the information you record to help you state the main idea.

Think how each detail supports the main idea.



Applying the Skill

MAKE YOUR OWN DIAGRAM. Turn to Chapter 19, page 530. Read "Technology Makes Exploration Possible." Make a diagram, like the one above, to identify the topic, the most important details, and the main idea of the passage.

1.2 Following Chronological Order

CHRONOLOGICAL ORDER is the order in which events happen in time. Historians need to figure out the order in which things happened to get an accurate sense of the relationships among events. As you read history, figure out the sequence, or time order, of events.

Understanding the Skill

STRATEGY: LOOK FOR TIME CLUES. The following paragraph is about the rulers of England after the death of Henry VIII. Notice how the time line that follows puts the events in chronological order.

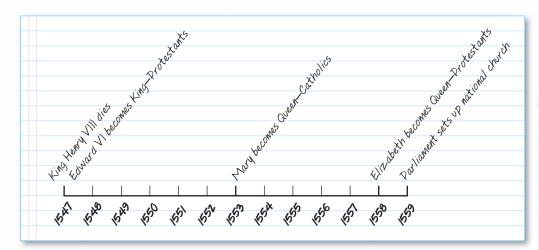
- Look for clue words about time. These are words like first, initial, next, then, before, after, followed, finally, and by that time.
- Use specific dates provided in the text.
- 3 Watch for references to previous historical events that are included in the background.

Henry's Children Rule England

1) After the death of Henry VIII in 2 1547, each of his three children eventually ruled. This created religious turmoil. Edward VI became king at age nine and ruled only six years. During his reign, the Protestants gained power. Edward's half-sister Mary 1 followed him to the throne. She was a Catholic who returned the English Church to the rule of the pope. Mary had many Protestants killed. England's 1 next ruler was Anne Boleyn's daughter, Elizabeth. After inheriting the throne in 1558, Elizabeth I returned her kingdom to Protestantism. In 2 1559 Parliament followed Elizabeth's 3 request and set up a national church much like the one under Henry VIII.

STRATEGY: MAKE A TIME LINE.

If the events are complex. make a time line of them. Write the dates below the line and the events above the line.



Applying the Skill

MAKE YOUR OWN TIME LINE. Skim Chapter 20, Section 1, "Spain Builds an American Empire," to find out about Spanish conquests in the Americas. List the important dates and events. Start with the arrival of Columbus in the Americas in 1492 and end with the rebellion led by Popé in 1680.

1.3 Clarifying; Summarizing

CLARIFYING means making clear and fully understanding what you read. One way to do this is by asking yourself questions about the material. In your answers, restate in your own words what you have read.

SUMMARIZING means condensing what you read into fewer words. You state only the main ideas and the most important details. In your own words, reduce the paragraph or section into a brief report of its general ideas.

Understanding the Skill

STRATEGY: UNDERSTAND AND CONDENSE THE TEXT. The passage below tells about trade in West Africa between 300 and 1600. Following the description is a summary that condenses and also clarifies the key information.

- Summarize: Look for topic sentences stating the main **idea.** These are often at the beginning of a section or paragraph. Restate each main idea
- Clarify: Look up words or concepts you don't know.
- Summarize: Include key facts and statistics. Watch for numbers, dates, quantities, percentages, and facts.
- Clarify: Make sure you under**stand.** Ask yourself questions and answer them. For example, who's carrying what?

West African Trade

1 The wealth of the savanna empires was based on trade in two precious commodities, gold and salt. The gold came from a forest region south of the 2 savanna between the Niger and Senegal rivers. Working in utmost secrecy, miners dug gold from shafts as much as 100 feet deep or sifted it from fast-moving streams. 3 Until about 1350, at least two thirds of the world's supply of gold came from West Africa.

Although rich in gold, the savanna and forest areas lacked salt, a material essential to human life. In contrast, the 3 Sahara contained abundant deposits of salt. Arab traders, eager to obtain West African gold, carried salt across the Sahara by camel caravan. After a long journey, they reached the market towns of the savanna. 4 Meanwhile, the other traders brought gold north from the forest region. The two sets of merchants met in trading centers such as Timbuktu. Royal officials made sure that all traders weighed goods fairly and did business according to law.

STRATEGY: FIND AND CLEARLY RESTATE THE MAIN IDEA.

MAIN IDEA

Gold and salt were traded in West Africa.

STRATEGY: WRITE A SUMMARY.

Clarify and Summarize: Write a summary to clarify your understanding of the main ideas.

Summary

Trade in West Africa was based on gold from the south and salt from the north. Gold was mined in the forest regions. Two thirds of all the world's gold supply came from West Africa. Salt came from the desert. Arab traders met with African traders at trade centers such as Timbuktu.

Applying the Skill

CLARIFY AND WRITE YOUR OWN SUMMARY. Turn to Chapter 17, pages 484, and read "Printing Spreads Renaissance Ideas." Note the main ideas. Look up any words you don't recognize. Then write a summary of the section. Condense the section in your own words.

1.4 Identifying Problems and Solutions

IDENTIFYING PROBLEMS means finding and understanding the difficulties faced by a particular group of people at a certain time. Noticing how the people solved their problems is **IDENTIFYING SOLUTIONS.** Checking further to see how well those solutions worked is identifying outcomes.

Understanding the Skill

STRATEGY: LOOK FOR PROBLEMS AND SOLUTIONS. The passage below summarizes some economic problems facing Latin American nations during the early 20th century.

- Look for implied problems. Problems may be suggested indirectly. This sentence suggests that a serious problem in Latin America was the uneven division of wealth.
- 2 Look for problems people
- 3 Look for solutions people tried to deal with each problem.
- 4 Check outcomes to the solutions. See how well the solutions worked. Sometimes the solution to one problem caused another problem.

Land Reform In Latin America

In Latin America, concentration of productive land in the hands of a 1 few created extremes of wealth and poverty. Poor peasants had no choice but to work large estates owned by a few wealthy families. Landlords had no reason to invest in expensive farm machinery when labor was so cheap.

2 Farming methods were inefficient and economic development was slow.

As Latin American nations began to modernize in the 20th century, land ownership became a political issue. In response, a handful of countries began land reform programs. These programs

3 divided large estates into smaller plots. Small plots of land were in turn distributed to farm families or granted to villages for communal farming. However, just turning over the land to the landless was not enough. 4 Peasant farmers needed instruction, seeds, equipment, and credit. If the land and the people were to be productive, governments would have to provide assistance to the peasants.

STRATEGY: MAKE A CHART.

Summarize the problems and **solutions in a chart.** Identify the problem or problems and the steps taken to solve them. Look for the short- and long-term effects of the solutions.

Problems	Solutions	Outcomes
A few wealthy people	Land reform programs	Peasants were given land,
owned most of the land.	divided large estates into	and communal farms were
	smaller plots.	set up.
Inefficient farming resulted	•	,
in slow economic development.		
Peasants lacked equipment,	Governments would have to	Not stated
resources, skills.	assist with loans and	7401 Stated.
,	instruction.	

Applying the Skill

MAKE YOUR OWN CHART. Turn to Chapter 22, Section 4, "The American Revolution." Make a chart that lists the problems faced by the colonies before the American Revolution. List the solutions that were tried and whatever outcomes are mentioned.

1.5 Analyzing Causes and Recognizing Effects

CAUSES are the events, conditions, and other reasons that lead to an event. Causes happen before the event in time; they explain why it happened. **EFFECTS** are the results or consequences of the event. One effect often becomes the cause of other effects, resulting in a chain of events. Causes and effects can be both short-term and long-term. Examining CAUSE-AND-EFFECT RELATIONSHIPS helps historians see how events are related and why they took place.

Understanding the Skill

STRATEGY: KEEP TRACK OF CAUSES AND EFFECTS AS YOU READ. The passage below describes events leading to the rise of feudalism in Japan. The diagram that follows summarizes the chain of causes and effects.

- Causes: Look for clue words that show cause. These include because, due to, since, and therefore.
- 2 Look for multiple causes and **multiple effects.** The weakness of the central government caused the three effects (a,b,c) shown
- Effects: Look for results or **consequences.** Sometimes these are indicated by clue words such as brought about, led to, as a result, and consequently.
- 4 Notice that an effect may be the cause of another event. This begins a chain of causes and effects.

Feudalism Comes to Japan

For most of the Heian period, the rich Fujiwara family held the real power in Japan. Members of this family held many influential posts. By about the middle of the 11th century, the power of the central government and the Fujiwaras began to slip. This was 1 due in part to court families' greater interest in luxury and artistic pursuits than in governing.

2 Since the central government was weak, (a) large landowners living away from the capital set up private armies. 3 As a result, (b) the countryside became lawless and dangerous. Armed soldiers on horseback preyed on farmers and travelers, while pirates took control of the seas. (c) For safety, farmers and small landowners traded parts of their land to strong warlords in exchange for protection. 4 Because the lords had more land, the lords gained more power. This marked the beginning of a feudal system of localized rule like that of ancient China and medieval Europe.

STRATEGY: MAKE A CAUSE-AND-EFFECT DIAGRAM.

Summarize cause-and-effect relationships in a diagram. Starting with the first cause in a

series, fill in the boxes until you reach the end result.

Cause -	Effect/Cause —	Effect/Cause	Effect
Ruling families	Weak central	• Landowners set	Feudalism was
had little interest	government was	up private armies.	established in Jap
in governing.	unable to control	• Countryside	
	the land.	became dangerous.	
		• Farmers traded	
		land for safety	
		under warlords.	

Applying the Skill

MAKE YOUR OWN CAUSE-AND-EFFECT DIAGRAM. Turn to Chapter 20, Section 3, "The Atlantic Slave Trade" (pages 566–570) and make notes about the causes and effects of the slave trade. Make a diagram, like the one shown above, to summarize the information you find.

1.6 Comparing and Contrasting

Historians compare and contrast events, personalities, ideas, behaviors, beliefs, and institutions in order to understand them thoroughly. **COMPARING** involves finding both similarities and differences between two or more things. **CONTRASTING** means examining only the differences between them.

Understanding the Skill

STRATEGY: LOOK FOR SIMILARITIES AND DIFFERENCES. The following passage describes life in the ancient Greek city-states of Sparta and Athens. The Venn diagram below shows some of the similarities and differences between the two city-states.

- **Compare: Look for features** that two subjects have in **common.** Here you learn that both Athens and Sparta started out as farming communities.
- **2** Compare: Look for clue words indicating that two **things are alike.** Clue words include all, both, like, as, likewise, and similarly.
- 3 Contrast: Look for clue words that show how two things differ. Clue words include unlike, by contrast, however, except, different, and on the other hand.

Sparta and Athens

The Greek city-states developed separately but shared certain characteristics, 1 including language and religion. Economically, all began as farming economies, and all except Sparta eventually moved to trade. Politically, 2 all city-states, except for Sparta, evolved into early forms of democracies.

The leader in the movement to democracy was Athens. After a series of reforms, every Athenian citizen was considered equal before the law. However, as in the other Greek city-states, only about one fifth of the population were citizens. Slaves did much of the work, so Athenian citizens were free to create works of art, architecture, and literature, including drama.

- 3 By contrast, Sparta lived in constant fear of revolts by helots, people who were held in slave-like conditions to work the land. The city was set up as a military dictatorship, and Spartan men dedicated their lives to the military. 4 In Sparta, duty, strength, and discipline were valued over beauty, individuality, and creativity. As a result, Spartans created little art, architecture, or literature.
- Contrast: Look for ways in which two things are different. Here you learn that Athens and Sparta had different values.

STRATEGY: MAKE A VENN DIAGRAM.

Compare and Contrast: Summarize similarities and differences in a Venn diagram.

In the overlapping area, list characteristics shared by both subjects. Then, in one oval list the characteristics of one subject not shared by the other. In the other oval, list unshared characteristics of the second subject.

Athens Only	Both	Sparta Only
Economy: moved from	Language: Greek	Economy: remained
/ farming to trade /		\ farming community
	Religion: same	
Government:		Government: military
democracy	Slavery: in both	dictatorship
Valves: beauty,	Economy : began as	/ Values : duty,
individuality,	farming communities	strength, /
creativity		discipline /
,		' /

Applying the Skill

MAKE YOUR OWN VENN DIAGRAM. Turn to Chapter 20, pages 564-565, and read the section called "Native Americans Respond." Make a Venn diagram comparing and contrasting Dutch and English colonists' relations with Native Americans.

1.7 Distinguishing Fact from Opinion

FACTS are events, dates, statistics, or statements that can be proved to be true. Facts can be checked for accuracy. **OPINIONS** are judgments, beliefs, and feelings of the writer or speaker.

Understanding the Skill

STRATEGY: FIND CLUES IN THE TEXT. The following excerpt tells about the uprising of Jews in the Warsaw ghetto in 1943. The chart summarizes the facts and opinions.

- Facts: Look for specific names, dates, statistics, and statements that can be proved. The first two paragraphs provide a factual account of the event.
- Opinion: Look for assertions, claims, hypotheses, and judg**ments.** Here Goebbels expresses his opinion of the uprising and of the Jews.
- Opinion: Look for judgment words that the writer uses to describe the people and **events.** Judgment words are often adjectives that are used to arouse a reader's emotions.

The Warsaw Ghetto Uprising

With orders from Himmler to crush the Jews, 11 the Nazis attacked on April 19, 1943, at the start of the holiday of Passover. 1 Two thousand armed SS troops entered the ghetto, marching with tanks, rifles, machine guns, and trailers full of ammunition. The Jewish fighters were in position—in bunkers, in windows, on rooftops. 1 They had rifles and handguns, hand grenades and bombs that they had made. And they let fly. . . .

Germans brought in more troops, and the fighting intensified. German pilots dropped bombs on the ghetto....

On May 1, Goebbels [Nazi propaganda minister] wrote in his diary: "Of course this jest will probably not last long." He added a complaint. "But it shows what one can expect of the Jews if they have guns."

Goebbels' tone was mocking. But his forecast was inevitable—and correct. . . . Goebbels did not record in his diary, when the uprising was over, that the 3 starving Jews of the ghetto, with their 3 pathetic supply of arms, had held out against the German army for forty days, longer than Poland or France had held out.

Source: A Nightmare in History, by Miriam Chaikin. (New York: Clarion Books, 1987) pp. 77-78

STRATEGY: MAKE A CHART.

Divide facts and opinions in a **chart.** Summarize and separate the facts from the opinions expressed in a passage.

FACTS	OPINIONS
On April 19, 1943, 2,000 armed SS troops attacked the Warsaw	Goebbels: The uprising was a jest, but showed to danger of letting Jews get hold of guns.
ghetto. Jewish fighters held out for 40 days.	Author: It is difficult to believe that Warsaw
	Jews with their pathetic supply of arms were a
	to defeat the powerful Nazis.

Applying the Skill

MAKE YOUR OWN CHART. Turn to Chapter 20, "Different Perspectives" (page 560), and look at the primary and secondary sources. Make a chart in which you summarize the facts in your own words, and list the opinions and judgments stated. Look carefully at the language used in order to separate one from the other.

2.1 Categorizing

CATEGORIZING means organizing similar kinds of information into groups. Historians categorize information to help them identify and understand historical patterns.

Understanding the Skill

STRATEGY: DECIDE WHAT INFORMATION NEEDS TO BE CATEGORIZED. The

following passage describes India's Taj Mahal, a memorial built by a Mughal ruler. As you read, look for facts and details that are closely related. Then choose appropriate categories.

- Look at topic sentences for clues to defining categories.
- Look at the type of information each paragraph contains. A paragraph often contains similar kinds of information.

Building the Taj Mahal

- 1 Some 20,000 workers labored for 22 years to build the famous tomb. It is made of white marble brought from 250 miles away. The minaret towers are about 130 feet high. The building itself is 186 feet square.
- 1 The design of the building is a blend of Hindu and Muslim styles. The pointed 2 arches are of Muslim design, and the perforated marble 2 windows and 2 doors are typical of a style found in Hindu temples.

The inside of the building is a glittering garden 2 thousands of carved marble flowers inlaid with tiny precious stones. One tiny flower, one inch square, had 60 different inlays.

STRATEGY: MAKE A CHART.

- Add a title.
- Sort information into the categories you have chosen.
- Make one column for each category.

Labor	Dimensions	Design features
• 20,000 workers	• Minaret towers: 130	• Made of white marble
• 22 years to complete	feet high	 Pointed arches (Muslin
,	• Building: 186 feet	influence)
		 Perforated marble
		windows and doors
		(Hindu influence)
		• Interior: thousands of
		carved marble flowers
		inlaid with precious sto

Applying the Skill

MAKE YOUR OWN CHART. Turn to Chapter 22, page 637. Read "New Artistic Styles." Decide what categories you will use to organize the information. Then make a chart, like the one above, that organizes the information in the passage into the categories you have chosen.

2.2 Making Inferences

Inferences are ideas and meanings not stated in the material. MAKING INFERENCES means reading between the lines to extend the information provided. Your inferences are based on careful study of what is stated in the passage as well as your own common sense and previous knowledge.

Understanding the Skill

STRATEGY: DEVELOP INFERENCES FROM THE FACTS. This passage describes the Nok culture of West Africa. Following the passage is a diagram that organizes the facts and ideas that lead to inferences.

- Read the stated facts and ideas.
- Use your knowledge, logic, and common sense to draw **conclusions.** You could infer from these statements that the Nok were a settled people with advanced technology and a rich culture.
- 3 Consider what you already **know that could apply.** Your knowledge of history might lead you to infer the kinds of improvements in life brought about by better farming tools.
- 4 Recognize inferences that are **already made.** Phrases like "the

evidence suggests" or "historians believe" indicate inferences and conclusions experts have made from historical records.

The Nok Culture

1 The earliest known culture of West Africa was that of the Nok people. They lived in what is now Nigeria between 900 B.C. and A.D. 200. Their name came from the village where the first artifacts from their culture were discovered by archaeologists. The 2 Nok were farmers. They were also 2 the first West African people known to smelt iron. The Nok began making iron around 500 B.C., using it to make tools for farming and weapons for hunting. 3 These iron implements lasted longer than wood or stone and vastly improved the lives of the Nok.

rivers. 2 Many are sculptures made of terra cotta, a reddish-brown clay. Carved in great artistic detail, some depict the heads of animals such as elephants and others depict human heads. The features of some of the heads reveal a great deal about their history. One of the human heads, for example, shows an elaborate hairdo arranged in six buns, a style that is still worn by some people in Nigeria today. 4 This similarity suggests that the Nok may have been the ancestors of modern-day Africans.

Nok artifacts have been found in an area stretching for 300 miles between the Niger and Benue

STRATEGY: MAKE A CHART.

Summarize the facts and inferences you make in a chart.

Stated Facts and Ideas	Inferences
• iron farming tools	iron tools improved agriculture and
• iron harder than wood	contributed to cultural development
• tools improved life	
• Nok artifacts found in 300-mile radius	Nok culture spread across this area
• heads carved in great artistic detail	Nok were skilled potters and sculptor
• sculptures included elephant heads	elephants played a role in people's live

Applying the Skill

MAKE YOUR OWN CHART. Read the Tamil poem from ancient India quoted in Chapter 7 on page 194. Using a chart like the one above, make inferences from the poem about its author, its subject, and the culture it comes from.

2.3 Drawing Conclusions

DRAWING CONCLUSIONS means analyzing what you have read and forming an opinion about its meaning. To draw conclusions, you look closely at the facts, combine them with inferences you make, and then use your own common sense and experience to decide what the facts mean.

Understanding the Skill

STRATEGY: COMBINE INFORMATION TO DRAW CONCLUSIONS. The passage below presents information about the reunification of East and West Germany in 1990. The diagram that follows shows how to organize the information to draw conclusions.

- Read carefully to understand **all the facts.** Fact: Reunification brought social and political freedoms to East Germans.
- Read between the lines to **make inferences.** Inference: After a market economy was introduced, many industries in eastern Germany failed, which put people out of work.
- Use the facts to make an infer**ence.** Inference: Reunification put a strain on government resources.
- Ask questions of the material. What are the long-term economic prospects for eastern Germany? Conclusion: Although it faced challenges, it seemed to have a greater chance for success than other former Communist countries.

Germany is Reunified

On October 3, 1990, Germany once again became a single nation. 1 After more than 40 years of Communist rule, most East Germans celebrated their new political freedoms. Families that had been separated for years could now visit whenever they chose.

Economically, the newly united Germany faced serious problems. More than 40 years of Communist rule had left East Germany in ruins. Its transportation and telephone systems had not been modernized since World War II. State-run industries in East Germany had to be turned over to private control and operate under free-market rules. 2 However, many produced shoddy goods that could not compete in the global market.

Rebuilding eastern Germany's bankrupt economy was going to be a difficult, costly process. 3 Some experts estimated the price tag for reunification could reach \$200 billion. In the short-term, the government had to provide 2 unemployment benefits to some 1.4 million workers from the east who found themselves out of work.

4 In spite of these problems, Germans had reasons to be optimistic. Unlike other Eastern European countries, who had to transform their Communist economies by their own means, East Germany had the help of a strong West Germany. Many Germans may have shared the outlook expressed by one worker: "Maybe things won't be rosy at first, but the future will be better."

STRATEGY: MAKE A DIAGRAM.

Summarize the facts, inferences, and your conclusion in a diagram.

Facts	Inferences	Conclusion About Passag
East Germans gained freedoms.	East Germans welcomed the end of Communist rule.	
Transportation and telephone systems were outmoded.	Rebuilding took time.	Although eastern German was in bad shape at the time of reunification, it
State-run industries produced shoddy goods.	Industries couldn't compete in free-market economy.	had the advantage of the strength of western Germa as it made the transition to
Unemployment skyrocketed. Cost for reunification could be #200 billion.	Reunification put a great financial burden on Germany.	democracy and capitalism.

Applying the Skill

MAKE A DIAGRAM. Look at Chapter 6, pages 160–162, on the collapse of the Roman Republic. As you read, draw conclusions based on the facts. Use the diagram above as a model for organizing facts, inferences, and conclusions about the passage.

2.4 Developing Historical Perspective

DEVELOPING HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE means understanding events and people in the context of their times. It means not judging the past by current values, but by taking into account the beliefs of the time.

Understanding the Skill

STRATEGY: LOOK FOR VALUES OF THE PAST. The following passage was written by Bartolomé de Las Casas, a Spanish missionary who defended the rights of Native Americans. It challenges an argument presented by a scholar named Sepúlveda, who held that the Spaniards had the right to enslave the Native Americans. Following the passage is a chart that summarizes the information from a historical perspective.

- Identify the historical figure, the occasion, and the date.
- Look for clues to the attitudes. customs, and values of people **living at the time.** As a Spanish missionary, Las Casas assumes that Europeans are more civilized than Native Americans and that Native Americans need to be converted to Catholicism.
- **3** Explain how people's actions and words reflected the attitudes, values, and passions of **the era.** Las Casas challenges prejudices about Native Americans that were widely held in Europe. His language emphasizes a favorable comparison between Native American and European societies.

- In Defense of the Indians (1550) Bartolomé de Las Casas
- Now if we shall have shown that among our Indians of the western and southern shores (granting that we call them barbarians and that they are barbarians) there are important kingdoms, large numbers of people who live settled lives in a society, great cities, kings, judges and laws, persons who engage in commerce, buying, selling, lending, and the other contracts of the law of nations, will it not stand proved that the Reverend Doctor Sepúlveda has spoken wrongly and viciously against peoples like these?... From the fact that the Indians are barbarians it does not necessarily follow that they are incapable of government and have to be ruled by others, 2 except to be taught about the Catholic faith and to be admitted to the holy sacraments. 3 They are not ignorant, inhuman, or bestial. Rather, long before they had heard the word Spaniard they had 3 properly organized states, wisely ordered by excellent laws, religion, and custom. They cultivated friendship and, bound together in common fellowship, lived in populous cities in which they wisely administered the affairs of both peace and war justly and equitably, truly governed by laws that at very many points surpass ours, and could have won 4 the admiration of the sages of Athens. . . .
- 4 Notice words, phrases, and settings that reflect the period. Las Casas speaks from a time when Europeans looked to classical Greece as a benchmark for civilization.

STRATEGY: WRITE A SUMMARY.

Use historical perspective to understand Las Casas's attitudes. In a chart, list key words, phrases, and details from the passage. In a short paragraph, summarize the basic values and attitudes of Las Casas.

Key Phrases	Las Casas's In Defense of the Indians
• barbarians	Las Casas argues that Native Americans are not inhuman and do
• Catholic faith	not deserve cruelty and slavery. Rather, they are fully capable
	of "coming up" to the level of Spanish civilization. Although he
 not inhuman, ignorant, 	makes the statement that Native Americans are barbarians, his
or bestial	language and comparisons seem to suggest that he believes them
 properly organized 	to be highly civilized in many respects. At the same time, he
states, wisely ordered	believes in the importance of converting them to Catholicism.
sages of Athens	

Applying the Skill

WRITE YOUR OWN SUMMARY. Turn to Chapter 11, page 319, and read the excerpt from Medieval Russia's Epics, Chronicles, and Tales. Read the passage using historical perspective. Then summarize your ideas in a chart like the one above.

2.5 Formulating Historical Questions

FORMULATING HISTORICAL QUESTIONS is important as you examine primary sources—firsthand accounts, documents, letters, and other records of the past. As you analyze a source, ask questions about what it means and why it is significant. Then, when you are doing research, write questions that you want your research to answer. This step will help to guide your research and organize the information you collect.

Understanding the Skill

STRATEGY: QUESTION WHAT YOU READ. The Muslim scholar Ibn Battuta published an account of his journeys in Asia and Africa in the 1300s. The following passage is part of his description of China. After the passage is a web diagram that organizes historical questions about it.

- Ask about the historical record **itself.** Who produced it? When was it produced?
- 2 Ask about the facts presented. Who were the main people? What did they do? What were they like?
- 3 Ask about the person who created the record. What judgments or opinions does the author express?
- 4 Ask about the significance of the record. How would you interpret the information presented? How does it fit in with the history of this time and place? What more do you need to know to answer these questions?

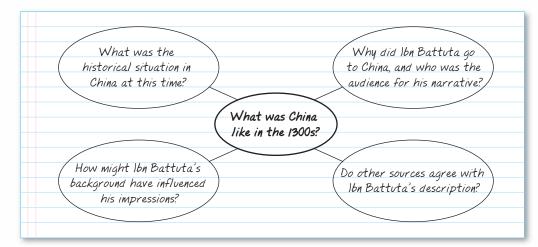
1 Ibn Battuta in China, Around 1345

The Chinese themselves are infidels, who worship idols and burn their dead like the Hindus.... In every Chinese city there is a quarter for Muslims in which they live by themselves, and in which they have mosques both for the Friday services and for other religious purposes. The Muslims are honored and respected. 3 The Chinese infidels eat the flesh of swine and dogs, and sell it in their markets. 2 They are wealthy folk and well-to-do, but they make no display either in their food or their clothes. You will see one of their principal merchants, a man so rich that his wealth cannot be counted, wearing a coarse cotton tunic. But there is one thing that the Chinese take a pride in, that is gold and silver plate. Every one of them carries a stick, on which they lean in walking, and which they call "the third leg." 4 Silk is very plentiful among them, because the silk-worm attaches itself to fruits and feeds on them without requiring much care. For that reason, it is so common as to be worn by even the very poorest there. Were it not for the merchants it would have no value at all, for a single piece of cotton cloth is sold in their country for the price of many pieces of silk.

STRATEGY: MAKE A WEB DIAGRAM.

Investigate a topic in more depth by asking questions. Ask a large question and then

ask smaller questions that explore and develop from the larger question.



Applying the Skill

MAKE YOUR OWN WEB DIAGRAM. Turn to the quotation by Bernal Díaz in Chapter 16, page 455. Use a web diagram to write historical questions about the passage.

2.6 Making Predictions

MAKING PREDICTIONS means projecting the outcome of a situation that leaders or groups face or have faced in the past. Historians use their knowledge of past events and the decisions that led up to them to predict the outcome of current situations. Examining decisions and their alternatives will help you understand how events in the past shaped the future.

Understanding the Skill

STRATEGY: IDENTIFY DECISIONS. The following passage describes relations between Cuba and the United States following Fidel Castro's successful attempt to overthrow former Cuban dictator Fulgencio Batista. The chart lists decisions that affected U.S./Cuban relations, along with alternative decisions and predictions of their possible outcomes.

- To help you identify decisions, look for words such as decide, decision, and chose.
- 2 Notice how one political decision often leads to another.
- 3 Notice both positive and negative decisions.

U.S./Cuban Relations under Castro

During the 1950s, Cuban dictator Fidel Castro 11 chose to nationalize the Cuban economy, which resulted in the takeover of U.S.-owned sugar mills and refineries. 2 U.S. President Eisenhower responded by ordering an embargo on all trade with Cuba. As relations between the two countries deteriorated, Cuba became more dependent on the USSR for economic and military aid. In 1960, the CIA trained anti-Castro Cuban exiles to invade Cuba. 3 Although they landed at Cuba's Bay of Pigs, the United States 1 decided not to provide them with air support. Castro's forces defeated the exiles, which humiliated the United States.

STRATEGY: MAKE A CHART.

- Use a chart to record decisions.
- Suggest alternative decisions.
- 6 Predict a possible outcome for each alternative decision.

4	5	6
Decisions	Alternative Decisions	Prediction of Outcome
Castro nationalized Cuban economy.	Castro did not nationalize Cuban economy.	There was no United State embargo of trade with Cub
The United States placed an embargo on trade with Cuba.	The United States continued to trade with Cuba.	Cuba continued to depend on the United States economically.
CIA trained Cuban exiles, who invaded Cuba.	The CIA did not train exiles to invade Cuba.	There was no invasion of Cuba.
The United States did not provide air support for the invasion.	The United States provided air support to the invaders.	The United States successfully invaded Cuba

APPLYING THE SKILL

MAKE A CHART like the one above. Turn to Chapter 21, page 615, and read the first four paragraphs of the section "English Civil War." Identify three decisions of England's King Charles I. Record them on your chart, along with an alternative decision for each. Then predict a possible outcome for each alternative decision.

2.7 Hypothesizing

HYPOTHESIZING means developing a possible explanation for historical events. A hypothesis is an educated guess about what happened in the past or a prediction about what might happen in the future. A hypothesis takes available information, links it to previous experience and knowledge, and comes up with a possible explanation, conclusion, or prediction.

Understanding the Skill

STRATEGY: FIND CLUES IN THE READING. In studying the Indus Valley civilization, historians do not yet know exactly what caused that culture to decline. They have, however, developed hypotheses about what happened to it. Read this passage and look at the steps that are shown for building a hypothesis. Following the passage is a chart that organizes the information.

- ldentify the event, pattern, or trend you want to explain.
- Determine the facts you have **about the situation.** These facts support various hypotheses about what happened to the Indus Valley civilization.
- 3 Develop a hypothesis that might explain the event. Historians hypothesize that a combination of ecological change and sudden catastrophe caused the Indus Valley civilization to collapse.
- Determine what additional information you need to test

the hypothesis. You might refer to a book about India, for example, to learn more about the impact of the Aryan invasions.

Mysterious End to Indus Valley Culture

2 Around 1750 B.C., the quality of building in the Indus Valley cities declined. Gradually, the great cities fell into decay. What happened? Some historians think that the Indus River changed course, as it tended to do, so that its floods no longer fertilized the fields near the cities. Other scholars suggest that people wore out the valley's land. They overgrazed it, overfarmed it, and overcut its trees, brush, and grass.

As the Indus Valley civilization neared its end, around 1500 B.C., a sudden catastrophe may have

had a hand in the cities' downfall. 2 Archaeologists have found a half-dozen groups of skeletons in the ruins of Mohenjo-Daro, seemingly never buried. 3 Their presence suggests that the city, already weakened by its slow decline, may have been abandoned after a natural disaster or a devastating attack from human enemies. The Aryans, a nomadic people from north of the Hindu Kush mountains, swept into the Indus Valley at about this time. 4 Whether they caused the collapse of the Indus Valley civilization or followed in its wake is not known.

STRATEGY: MAKE A CHART.

Use a chart to summarize your hypothesis about events.

Write down your hypothesis and the facts that support it. Then you can see what additional information you need to help prove or disprove it.

Hypothesis	Facts that support the hypothesis	Additional information needed
A combination of	• Building quality declined	• What was Indus Valley culture like:
ecological change	 Indus River tended to 	 What were the geographical
and sudden catas-	change course	characteristics of the region?
trophe caused the	 Unburied skeletons were 	 How did overfarming tend to affect
Indus Valley civili-	found at Mohenjo-Daro	the environment?
zation to collapse	· Aryan invasions occurred	 What factors affected the decline of
,	around same time	other ancient civilizations?

Applying the Skill

MAKE YOUR OWN CHART. Turn to Chapter 19, page 545, and read the Primary Source. Predict what impact the introduction of firearms might have had on Japan. Then read the surrounding text material. List facts that support your hypothesis and what additional information you might gather to help prove or disprove it.

2.8 Analyzing Motives

ANALYZING MOTIVES means examining the reasons why a person, group, or government takes a particular action. To understand those reasons, consider the needs, emotions, prior experiences, and goals of the person or group.

Understanding the Skill

STRATEGY: LOOK FOR REASONS WHY. On June 28, 1914, Serb terrorists assassinated Austria-Hungary's Archduke Franz Ferdinand and his wife when they visited Sarajevo, the capital of Bosnia. In the following passage, Borijove Jevtic, a Serb terrorist, explains why the assassination occurred. Before this passage, he explains that the terrorists had received a telegram stating that the Archduke would be visiting Sarajevo on June 28. The diagram that follows summarizes the motives of the terrorists for murdering the Archduke.

- Look for motives based on basic needs and human **emotions.** Needs include food, shelter, safety, freedom. Emotions include fear, anger, pride, desire for revenge, and patriotism, for example.
- Look for motives based on past events or inspiring individuals.
- Notice both positive and negative motives.

The Assassination of the Archduke

How dared Franz Ferdinand, not only the representative of the oppressor but in his own person an 1 arrogant tyrant, enter Sarajevo on that day? Such an entry was a 1 studied insult.

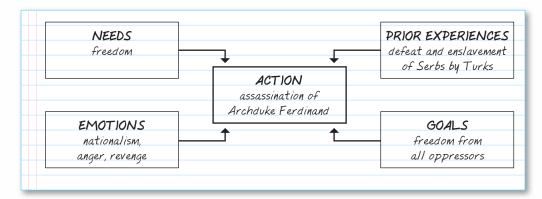
2 28 June is a date engraved deeply in the heart of every Serb, so that the day has a name of its own. It is called the vidovnan. It is the day on which the old Serbian kingdom was conquered by the Turks at the battle of Amselfelde in 1389. It is also the day on which in the second Balkan War the Serbian arms took glorious revenge on the Turk for his old victory and for the years of enslavement.

3 That was no day for Franz Ferdinand, the new oppressor, to venture to the very doors of Serbia for a display of the force of arms which kept us beneath his heel.

Our decision was taken almost immediately. Death to the tyrant!

STRATEGY: MAKE A DIAGRAM.

Make a diagram that summarizes motives and actions. List the important action in the middle of the diagram. Then list motives in different categories around the action.



Applying the Skill

MAKE YOUR OWN DIAGRAM. Turn to Chapter 27, Section 1, "The Scramble for Africa." Read the section and look for motives of European nations in acquiring lands in other parts of the world. Make a diagram, like the one above, showing the European nations' motives for taking the land.

2.9 Analyzing Issues

An issue is a matter of public concern or debate. Issues in history are usually economic, social, political, or moral. Historical issues are often more complicated than they first appear. ANALYZING AN ISSUE means taking a controversy apart to find and describe the different points of view about the issue.

Understanding the Skill

STRATEGY: LOOK FOR DIFFERENT SIDES OF THE ISSUE. The following passage describes working conditions in English factories in the early 1800s. The cluster diagram that follows the passage helps you to analyze the issue of child labor.

- Look for a central problem with its causes and effects.
- **2** Look for facts and statistics. Factual information helps you understand the issue and evaluate the different sides or arguments.
- 3 Look for different sides to the issue. You need to consider all sides of an issue before deciding your position.

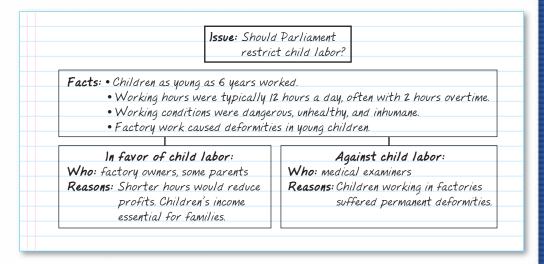
Children at Work

- 1) Child labor was one of the most serious problems of the early Industrial Revolution. Children as young as 6 years worked exhausting jobs in factories and mines. Because wages were very low, many families in cities could not survive unless all their members, including children, worked.
- 2 In most factories, regular work hours were 6 in the morning to 6 in the evening, often with two "over-hours" until 8. It was common for 40 or more children to work together in one room—a room with little light or air. Those who lagged behind in their work were often beaten. Because safety was a low concern for many factory owners, accidents were common.

In 1831, Parliament set up a committee to investigate abuses of child labor. 2 Medical experts reported that long hours of factory work caused young children to become crippled or stunted in their growth. They recommended that children younger than age 14 should work no more than 8 hours. 3 Factory owners responded that they needed children to work longer hours in order to be profitable. As one owner testified, reduced working hours for children would "much reduce the value of my mill and machinery, and consequently of ... my manufacture." As a result of the committee's findings, Parliament passed the Factory Act of 1833. The act made it illegal to hire children under 9 years old, and it limited the working hours of older children.

STRATEGY: MAKE A CLUSTER DIAGRAM.

If an issue is complex, make a cluster diagram. A cluster diagram can help you analyze an issue.



Applying the Skill

MAKE YOUR OWN CLUSTER DIAGRAM. Chapter 34, page 998, describes the partition of India. Make a cluster diagram to analyze the issue and the positions of the people involved.

2.10 Analyzing Bias

BIAS is a prejudiced point of view. Historical accounts that are biased tend to be one-sided and reflect the personal prejudices of the historian.

Understanding the Skill

STRATEGY: THINK ABOUT THE WRITER AS YOU READ. The European explorer Amerigo Vespucci reached the coast of Brazil in 1502, on his second voyage to the Americas. Below are his impressions of the people he met.

- Identify the author and information about him or her. Does the author belong to a specialinterest group, social class, political party, or movement that might promote a one-sided or slanted viewpoint on the subject?
- **2 Search for clues.** Are there words, phrases, statements, or images that might convey a positive or negative slant? What might these clues reveal about the author's bias?
- **3** Examine the evidence. Is the information that the author presents consistent with other accounts? Is the behavior described consistent with human nature as you have observed it?

1 Amerigo Vespucci Reports on the People of Brazil

For twenty-seven days I ate and slept among them, and what I learned about them is as follows. Having no laws and no religious faith, they live according to nature. 2 They understand nothing of the immortality of the soul. There is no possession of private property among them, for everything is in common. They have no boundaries of kingdom or province. They have no king, nor do they obey anyone. Each one is his own master. 3 There is no administration of justice, which is unnecessary to them, because in their code no one rules...

They are also 2 a warlike people and very cruel to their own kind... That which made me... astonished at their wars and cruelty was that I could not understand from them why they made war upon each other, considering that they held no private property or sovereignty of empire and kingdoms and 3 did not know any such thing as lust for possession, that is pillaging or a desire to rule, which appear to me to be the causes of wars and every disorderly act. When we requested them to state the cause, they did not know how to give any other cause than that this curse upon them began in ancient times and they sought to avenge the deaths of their forefathers.

STRATEGY: MAKE A CHART.

Make a chart of your analysis. For each of the heads listed on the left side of the chart, summarize information presented in the passage.

author, date	Amerigo Vespucci, 1502
occasion	exploration of coast of Brazil on second voyage to Americas
tone	judging, negative, superior
bias	Since the native people do not live in organized states and have no private property, they have no system of authority, laws, or moral principles. They have no apparent religious beliefs. They
	are warlike and cruel and seem to make war on one another for no reason. The author's comments about the soul seem to show a
	bias towards his own religious beliefs. He also reveals a prejudice that European customs and practices are superior to all others.

Applying the Skill

MAKE YOUR OWN CHART. Look at the quotation by the Qing emperor Kangxi in the Primary Source in Chapter 19, page 549. Summarize the underlying assumptions and biases using a chart like the one shown.

2.11 Evaluating Decisions and **Courses of Action**

EVALUATING DECISIONS means making judgments about the decisions that historical figures made. Historians evaluate decisions on the basis of their moral implications and their costs and benefits from different points of view.

EVALUATING VARIOUS COURSES OF ACTION means carefully judging the choices that historical figures had to make. By doing this, you can better understand why they made some of the decisions they did.

Understanding the Skill

STRATEGY: LOOK FOR CHOICES AND REASONS. The following passage describes the decisions U.S. President John Kennedy had to make when he learned of Soviet missile bases in Cuba. As you read it, think of the alternative responses he could have made at each turn of events. Following the passage is a chart that organizes information about the Cuban missile crisis.

- Look at decisions made by individuals or by groups. Notice the decisions Kennedy made in response to Soviet actions.
- 2 Look at the outcome of the decisions.
- 3 Analyze a decision in terms of the choices that were possible. Both Kennedy and Khrushchev faced the same choice. Either could carry out the threat, or either could back down quietly and negotiate.

The Cuban Missile Crisis

During the summer of 1962, the flow of Soviet weapons into Cuba-including nuclear missilesgreatly increased. 1 President Kennedy responded cautiously at first, issuing a warning that the United States would not tolerate the presence of offensive nuclear weapons in Cuba. Then, on October 16, photographs taken by American U-2 planes showed the president that the Soviets were secretly building missile bases on Cuba. Some of the missiles, armed and ready to fire, could reach U.S. cities in minutes.

- 1) On the evening of October 22, the president made public the evidence of missiles and stated his ultimatum: any missile attack from Cuba would trigger an all-out attack on the Soviet Union. Soviet ships continued to head toward the island, while the U.S. navy prepared to stop them and U.S. invasion troops massed in Florida. To avoid confrontation, the Soviet ships suddenly halted. 2 Soviet Premier Nikita Khrushchev offered to remove the missiles from Cuba in exchange for a pledge not to invade the island. Kennedy agreed, and the crisis ended.
- 3 Some people criticized Kennedy for practicing brinkmanship, when private talks might have resolved the crisis without the threat of nuclear war. Others believed he had been too soft and had passed up a chance to invade Cuba and oust its Communist leader, Fidel Castro.

STRATEGY: MAKE A CHART.

Make a simple chart of your **analysis.** The problem was that Soviet nuclear missiles were being shipped to Cuba. The decision to be made was how the United States should respond.

Kennedy's Choices	Pros	Cons	My Evaluation
Publicly confront Khrushchev with	Show Khrushchev and	Nuclear war could occur.	
navy and prepare	world the power and strong will of the U.S;		In your opinion, which was the
for war.	force him to back off.		better choice?
Say nothing to U.S.	Avoid frightening U.S.	The U.S. would look weak	Why?
public and negotiate	citizens and avoid	publicly; Khrushchev	
quietly.	threat of nuclear war.	could carry out plan.	

Applying the Skill

MAKE A CHART. Chapter 31, page 919, describes the decisions British and French leaders made when Hitler took over the Sudetenland in Czechoslovakia just before World War II. Make a chart, like the one shown, to summarize the pros and cons of their choice of appeasement and evaluate their decision yourself.

2.12 Forming and Supporting Opinions

Historians do more than reconstruct facts about the past. They also **FORM OPINIONS** about the information they encounter. Historians form opinions as they interpret the past and judge the significance of historical events and people. They **SUPPORT THEIR OPINIONS** with logical thinking, facts, examples, quotes, and references to events.

Understanding the Skill

STRATEGY: FIND ARGUMENTS TO SUPPORT YOUR OPINION. In the following passage, journalist Paul Gray summarizes differing opinions about the significance and impact of Columbus's voyages. As you read, develop your own opinion about the issue.

- Decide what you think about a subject after reading all the information available to you. After reading this passage, you might decide that Columbus's legacy was primarily one of genocide, cruelty, and slavery. On the other hand, you might believe that, despite the negatives, his voyages produced many long-term benefits.
- Consider the opinions and interpretations of historians and other experts. Weigh their arguments as you form your own opinion.
- Support your opinion with facts, quotes, and examples, including references to similar events from other historical eras.

How Should History View the Legacy of Columbus?

In one version of the story, Columbus and the Europeans who followed him 1 brought civilization to two immense, sparsely populated continents, in the process fundamentally enriching and altering the Old World from which they had themselves come.

Among other things, Columbus' journey was the first step in a long process that eventually produced the United States of America, 2 a daring experiment in democracy that in turn became a symbol and a haven of individual liberty for people throughout the world. But the revolution that began with his voyages was far greater than that. It altered science, geography, philosophy, agriculture, law, religion, ethics, government—the sum, in other words, of what passed at the time as Western culture.

Increasingly, however, there is a counterchorus, an opposing rendition of the same events that

deems Columbus' first footfall in the New World to be fatal to the world he invaded, and even to the rest of the globe. The indigenous peoples and their cultures were doomed by European 3 arrogance, 3 brutality, and 3 infectious diseases. Columbus' gift was 3 slavery to those who greeted him; his arrival set in motion the ruthless destruction, continuing at this very moment, of the natural world he entered. Genocide, ecocide, exploitation... are deemed to be a form of Eurocentric theft of history from [the Native Americans].

STRATEGY: MAKE A CHART.

Summarize your opinion and supporting information in a **chart.** Write an opinion and then list facts, examples, interpretations, or other information that support it.

Historical interpretations:	
 Europeans were arrogant and brutal. 	
 Columbus's arrival set in motion ruthless 	
destruction of environment.	
 Through conquest and exploitation, 	
Europeans "stole" Native Americans'	

Applying the Skill

MAKE YOUR OWN CHART. Look at the Different Perspectives on Economics and the Environment in Chapter 36, page 1081. Read the selections and form your own opinion about the concept of sustainable development. Summarize your supporting data in a chart like the one shown above.

2.13 Synthesizing

SYNTHESIZING is the skill historians use in developing interpretations of the past. Like detective work, synthesizing involves putting together clues, information, and ideas to form an overall picture of a historical event. A synthesis is often stated as a generalization, or broad summary statement.

Understanding the Skill

STRATEGY: BUILD AN INTERPRETATION AS YOU READ. The passage below describes the first settlement of the Americas. The highlighting indicates the different kinds of information that lead to a synthesis—an overall picture of Native American life.

- Read carefully to understand the facts. Facts such as these enable you to base your interpretations on physical evidence.
- 2 Look for explanations that link the facts together. This statement is based on the evidence provided by baskets, bows and arrows, and nets, which are mentioned in the sentences that follow.
- **3** Consider what you already know that could apply. Your general knowledge will probably lead you to accept this statement as reasonable.
- 4 Bring together the information you have about a subject. This interpretation brings together different kinds of information to arrive at a new understanding of the subject.

The First Americans

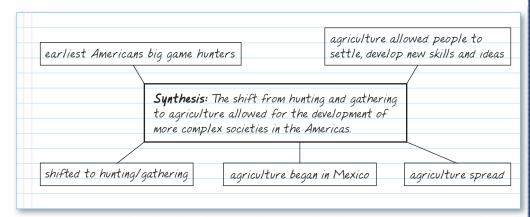
1) From the discovery of chiseled arrowheads and charred bones at ancient sites, it appears that the earliest Americans lived as big game hunters. The woolly mammoth, their largest prey, provided them with food, clothing, and bones for constructing tools and shelters. 2 People gradually shifted to hunting small game and gathering available plants. They created baskets to collect nuts, wild rice, chokeberries, gooseberries, and currants. Later they invented bows and arrows to hunt small game such as jackrabbits and deer. They wove nets to fish the streams and lakes.

Between 10,000 and 15,000 years ago, a revolution took place in what is now central Mexico. People began to raise plants as food. Maize may have been the first domesticated plant, with pumpkins, peppers, beans, and potatoes following. Agriculture spread to other regions.

3 The rise of agriculture brought about tremendous changes to the Americas. Agriculture made it possible for people to remain in one place. It also enabled them to accumulate and store surplus food. As their surplus increased, people had the time to develop skills and more complex ideas about the world. 4 From this agricultural base rose larger, more stable societies and increasingly complex societies.

STRATEGY: MAKE A CLUSTER DIAGRAM.

Summarize your synthesis in a cluster diagram. Use a cluster diagram to organize the facts, opinions, examples, and interpretations that you have brought together to form a synthesis.



Applying the Skill

MAKE YOUR OWN CLUSTER DIAGRAM. In Chapter 17 on pages 488–489, the beginnings of the Protestant Reformation are discussed. Read the passage and look for information to support a synthesis about its fundamental causes. Summarize your synthesis in a cluster diagram.

3.1 Analyzing Primary and **Secondary Sources**

PRIMARY SOURCES are written or created by people who lived during a historical event. The writers might have been participants or observers. Primary sources include letters, diaries, journals, speeches, newspaper articles, magazine articles, eyewitness accounts, and autobiographies.

SECONDARY SOURCES are derived from primary sources by people who were not present at the original event. They are written after the event. They often combine information from a number of different accounts. Secondary sources include history books, historical essays, and biographies.

Understanding the Skill

STRATEGY: EVALUATE THE INFORMATION IN EACH TYPE OF SOURCE. This passage describes political reforms made by Pericles, who led Athens from 461 to 429 B.C. It is mainly a secondary source, but it includes a primary source in the form of a speech.

- Secondary Source: Look for information collected from **several sources.** Here the writer presents an overall picture of the reforms made by Pericles and the reasons for them.
- Secondary Source: Look for analysis and interpretation. A secondary source provides details and perspective that are missing in a primary source. It also provides context for the primary source.
- Primary Source: Identify the author and evaluate his or her **credentials.** How is the speaker connected to the event? Here, this speaker is Pericles himself.
- 4 Primary Source: Analyze the **source using historical perspective.** Read the source for factual information while also noting the speaker's opinions, biases, assumptions, and point of view.

Stronger Democracy in Athens

To strengthen democracy, Pericles increased the number of public officials who were paid salaries. Before, only wealthier citizens could afford to hold public office because most positions were unpaid. Now even the poorest could serve if elected or chosen by lot. 2 This reform made Athens one of the most democratic governments in history. However, political rights were still limited to those with citizenship status—a minority of Athens' total population.

The introduction of direct democracy was an important legacy of Periclean Athens. Few other citystates practiced this style of government. In Athens, male citizens who served in the assembly established all the important policies that affected the polis. In a famous "Funeral Oration" for soldiers killed in the Peloponnesian War, 3 Pericles expressed his great pride in Athenian democracy:

4) Our constitution is called a democracy because power is in the hands not of a minority but of the

whole people. When it is a question of settling private disputes, everyone is equal before the law;

when it is a question of putting one person before another in positions of public responsibility, what counts is not membership of a particular class, but the actual ability which the man possesses. No one, as long as he has it in him to be of service to the state, is kept in political obscurity because of poverty.

STRATEGY: MAKE A CHART.

Summarize information from primary and secondary sources on a chart.

Primary Source	Secondary Source
Author: Pericles	Author: world history textbook
Qualifications: main figure in the events	Qualifications: had access to multiple
described	accounts of event
Information: describes his view of	Information: puts events in historical perspe
Athenian democracy—power in the hands	tive-Athens one of most democratic govern-
of "the whole people"	ments in history but limited rights to citizes

Applying the Skill

MAKE YOUR OWN CHART. Read the passage "Mehmed II Conquers Constantinople" in Chapter 18, pages 508–509, which includes a quote from the Greek historian Kritovoulos. Make a chart in which you summarize information from the primary and secondary sources.

3.2 Visual, Audio, and **Multimedia Sources**

In addition to written accounts, historians use many kinds of **VISUAL SOURCES.** These include paintings, photographs, political cartoons, and advertisements. Visual sources are rich with historical details and sometimes reflect the mood and trends of an era better than words can.

Spoken language has always been a primary means of passing on human history. AUDIO SOURCES, such as recorded speeches, interviews, press conferences, and radio programs, continue the oral tradition today.

Movies, CD-ROMs, television, and computer software are the newest kind of historical sources, called **MULTIMEDIA SOURCES**.

Understanding the Skill

STRATEGY: EXAMINE THE SOURCE CAREFULLY. Below are two portraits from the late 1700s, one of Marie Antoinette, the queen of France, and one of a woman who sells vegetables at the market. The chart that follows summarizes historical information gained from interpreting and comparing the two paintings.

- Identify the subject and source.
- **2 Identify important visual details.** Look at the faces, poses, clothing, hairstyles, and other elements.
- **Make inferences from the visual details.** Marie Antoinette's rich clothing and her hand on the globe symbolize her wealth and power. The contrast between the common woman's ordinary clothing and her defiant pose suggests a different attitude about power.

Use comparisons, information from other sources, and your own knowledge to give **support to your interpretation.** Royalty usually had their portraits painted in heroic poses. Ordinary people were not usually the subjects of such portraits. David's choice of subject and pose suggests that he sees the common people as the true heroes of France.



A Woman of the Revolution [La maraîchère] (1795), Jacques Louis David



Marie Antoinette, Jacques Gautier d'Agoty



STRATEGY: MAKE A CHART.

Summarize your interpretation in a simple chart.

Subject	Visual Details	Inferences	Message
Common woman	Face is worn and	Has worked hard for	Although the details
	clothing is plain, but	little in life, but strong,	are strikingly differ-
	her head is held high	proud, and defiant	ent, the two paintings
	and she wears the red	•	convey similar charac-
	scarf of revolution		teristics about their
			subjects.
Marie Antoinette	Richly dressed and	Lives life of comfort	
	made up; strikes an	and power; proud,	
	imperial pose	strong, and defiant	

Applying the Skill

MAKE YOUR OWN CHART. Turn to the detail from a mural by Diego Rivera in Chapter 16, page 456. The painting shows the Aztec god Quetzalcoatl in many forms. Use a chart, like the one above, to analyze and interpret the painting.

3.3 Using the Internet

The **INTERNET** is a network of computers associated with universities, libraries, news organizations, government agencies, businesses, and private individuals worldwide. Each location on the Internet has a **HOME PAGE** with its own address, or **URL**.

With a computer connected to the Internet, you can reach the home pages of many organizations and services. You might view your library's home page to find the call number of a book or visit an online magazine to read an article. On some sites you can view documents, photographs, and even moving pictures with sound.

The international collection of home pages, known as the **WORLD WIDE WEB**, is a good source of up-to-the-minute information about current events as well as in-depth research on historical subjects. This textbook contains many suggestions for navigating the World Wide Web. Begin by entering **hmhsocialstudies.com** to access the home page for Holt McDougal World History.

Understanding the Skill

STRATEGY: EXPLORE THE ELEMENTS ON THE SCREEN. The computer screen below shows the "Issues & Press" page of the U.S. Department of State, the department of the executive branch responsible for international affairs.

- **1** Go directly to a Web page. If you know the address of a particular Web page, type the address in the box at the top of the screen and press ENTER (or RETURN). After a few seconds, the Web page will appear on your screen.
- Explore the links. Click on any one of the images or topics to find out more about a specific subject. These links take you to another page at this Web site. Some pages include links to related information that can be found at other places on the Internet.
- **3 Learn more about the page.** Scan the page to learn the types of information contained at this site. This site has information about current events, politics, and health and environmental issues.
- Explore the features of the page. This page provides multimedia links and a chance to ask questions of State Department officials.



Applying the Skill

DO YOUR OWN

INTERNET RESEARCH. Explore the web sites for Chapter 34 located at hmhsocialstudies.com. **PATH:** hmhsocialstudies.com → World History → Chapter 34 → Research Links.

3.4 Interpreting Maps

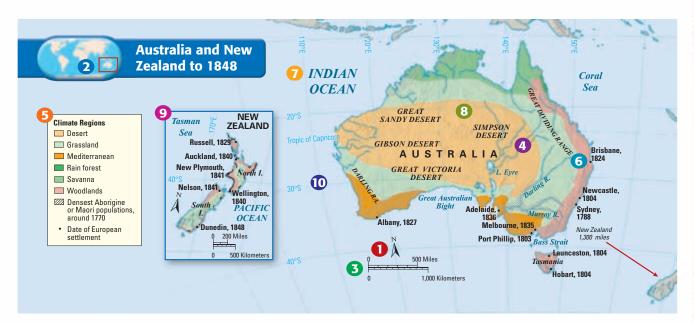
MAPS are representations of features on the earth's surface. Historians use maps to locate historical events, to show how geography has influenced history, and to illustrate human interaction with the environment.

Different kinds of maps are used for specific purposes.

POLITICAL MAPS show political units, from countries, states, and provinces, to counties, districts, and towns. Each area is shaded a different color.

PHYSICAL MAPS show mountains, hills, plains, rivers, lakes, and oceans. They may use contour lines to indicate elevations on land and depths under water.

HISTORICAL MAPS illustrate such things as economic activity, political alliances, land claims, battles, population density, and changes over time.



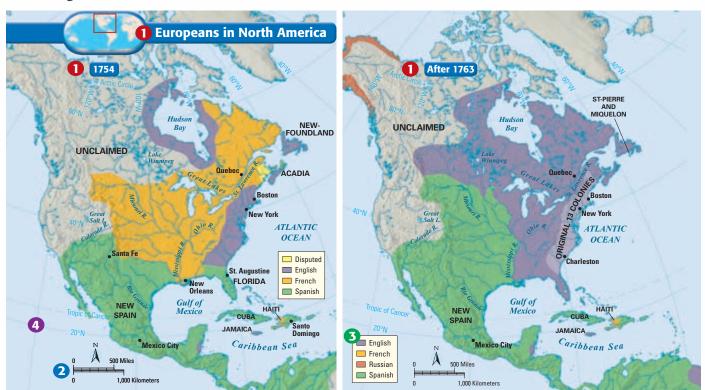
- **Compass Rose** The compass rose is a feature indicating the map's orientation on the globe. It may show all four cardinal directions (N, S, E, W) or just indicate north.
- **2 Locator** A locator map shows which part of the world the map subject area covers.
- **Scale** The scale shows the ratio between a unit of length on the map and a unit of distance on the earth. The maps in this book usually show the scale in miles and kilometers.
- 4 Lines Lines indicate rivers and other waterways, political boundaries, roads, and routes of exploration or migration.
- **Example 2** Legend or Key The legend or key explains the symbols, lines, and special colors that appear on the map.
- 6 **Symbols** Locations of cities and towns often appear as dots. A capital city is often shown as a star or as a dot with a circle around it. Picture symbols might be used to indicate an area's products, resources, and special features.

- **Labels** Key places such as cities, bodies of water, and landforms are labeled. Key dates, such as those for the founding of cities, may also be labeled.
- **8 Colors** Maps use colors and shading for various purposes. On physical maps, color may be used to indicate different physical regions or altitudes. On political maps, color can distinguish different political units. On specialty maps, color can show variable features such as population density, languages, or cultural areas.
- **9 Inset** An inset is a small map that appears within a larger map. It often shows an area of the larger map in greater detail. Inset maps may also show a different area that is in some way related to the area shown on the larger map.
- Lines of Latitude and Longitude Lines of latitude and longitude appear on maps to indicate the absolute location of the area shown.
 - Lines of latitude show distance measured in degrees north or south of the equator.
 - Lines of longitude show distance measured in degrees east or west of the prime meridian, which runs through Greenwich, England.

3.4 (Continued)

Understanding the Skill

STRATEGY: READ ALL THE ELEMENTS OF THE MAP. The historical maps below show European landholdings in North America in 1754 and after 1763. Together they show changes over time.



- Look at the map's title to learn the subject and purpose of the map. What area does the map cover? What does the map tell you about the area? Here the maps show North America in 1754 and after 1763 with the purpose of comparing European claims at two different times.
- **2 Look at the scale and compass.** The scale shows you how many miles or kilometers are represented. Here the scale is 500 actual miles to approximately 5/8 inch on the map. The compass shows you which direction on the map is north.
- **3 Read the legend.** The legend tells you what the symbols and colors on the map mean.
- 4 Find where the map area is located on **the earth.** These maps show a large area from the Arctic Circle to below latitude 20°N and 40° to 140°W

STRATEGY: MAKE A CHART. Study the maps and pose questions about how the geographic patterns and distributions changed. Use the answers to create a chart.

Relate the map to the five geography themes by making **a chart.** The five themes are described online and on the **Student** One Stop DVD-ROM. Ask questions about the themes and record your answers on the chart.

What Was the Location? Large area from Arctic Circle to below 20° N, and 40° to 140° W What Was the Place? North American continent

What Was the Region? Western Hemisphere

Was There Any Movement? Between 1754 and 1763, land claimed by France was taken over by the other two colonial powers. Spain expanded its territories northward, while Britain expanded westward.

How Did Humans Interact with the Environment? Europeans carved out political units in the continent, which already had inhabitants. They claimed vast areas, with waterways and large mountain ranges to cross.

Applying the Skill

MAKE YOUR OWN CHART. Turn to Chapter 12, page 334, and study the map titled "The Mongol Empire, 1294." Make a chart, like the one shown above, in which you summarize what the map tells you according to the five geography themes.

3.5 Interpreting Charts

CHARTS are visual presentations of materials. Historians use charts to organize, simplify, and summarize information in a way that makes it more meaningful or easier to remember. Several kinds of charts are commonly used.

SIMPLE CHARTS are used to summarize information or to make comparisons.

TABLES are used to organize statistics and other types of information into columns and rows for easy reference.

DIAGRAMS provide visual clues to the meaning of the information they contain. Venn diagrams are used for comparisons. Web diagrams are used to organize supporting information around a central topic. Illustrated diagrams or diagrams that combine different levels of information are sometimes called **INFOGRAPHICS**.

Understanding the Skill

STRATEGY: STUDY ALL THE ELEMENTS OF THE CHART. The infographic below conveys a great deal of information about the three estates, or classes, that existed in 18th-century France. The infographic visually combines a political cartoon, a bulleted chart, a pie graph, and a bar graph.

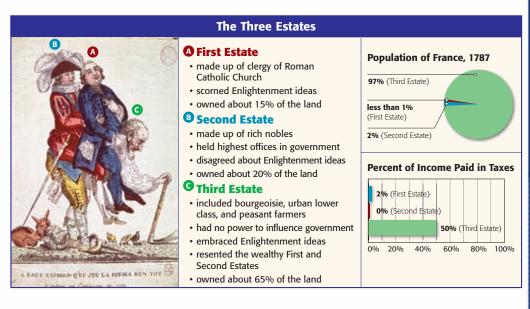
Read the title.

Identify the symbols and colors and what they represent.

Here, three colors are used consistently in the infographic to represent the three estates.

Study each of the elements of **the infographic.** The political cartoon visually represents the power of the First and Second Estates over the Third Estate. The bulleted chart gives details about the estates. The two graphs give statistics.

Look for the main idea. Make connections among the types of information presented. What was the relationship among the three estates?



Look for geographic patterns and distributions. Pose questions about the way land is distributed among the three estates. Include your answers in your summary paragraph.

STRATEGY: WRITE A SUMMARY.

Write a paragraph to summarize what you learned from the chart.

In 1787, French society was unevenly divided into three estates. Ninety-seven percent of the people belonged to the Third Estate. They had no political power, paid high taxes, and owned only 65 percent of the land. The First Estate, made up of the clergy, and the Second Estate, made up of rich nobles, held the power, the wealth, and more than their share of the land. Both opposed change and took advantage of the Third Estate.

Applying the Skill

WRITE YOUR OWN SUMMARY. Turn to Chapter 13, page 361, and look at the chart titled "Feudalism." Study the chart and write a paragraph in which you summarize what you learn from it.

3.6 Interpreting Graphs

GRAPHS show statistical information in a visual manner. Historians use graphs to show comparative amounts, ratios, economic trends, and changes over time.

LINE GRAPHS can show changes over time, or trends. Usually, the horizontal axis shows a unit of time, such as years, and the vertical axis shows quantities.

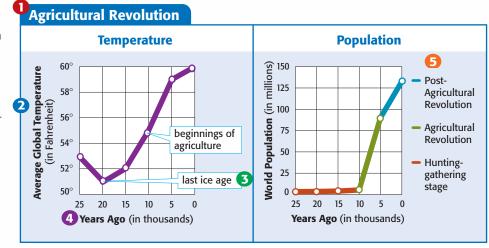
PIE GRAPHS are useful for showing relative proportions. The circle represents the whole, such as the entire population, and the slices represent the different groups that make up the whole.

BAR GRAPHS compare numbers or sets of numbers. The length of each bar indicates a quantity. With bar graphs, it is easy to see at a glance how different categories compare.

Understanding the Skill

STRATEGY: STUDY ALL THE ELEMENTS OF THE GRAPH. The line graphs below show average global temperatures and world population figures over a period of 25,000 years. Pose questions about geographic patterns and distributions shown on this graph; for example, when did worldwide temperature start to rise?

- Read the title to identify the main **idea of the graph.** When two subjects are shown, look for a relationship between them. This set of graphs shows that the agricultural revolution had links to both global temperature and population.
- **Read the vertical axis.** The temperature graph shows degrees Fahrenheit. The other shows population in millions, so that 125 indicates 125,000,000.
- 3 Note any information that is highlighted in a box.
- 4 Read the horizontal axis. Both graphs cover a period of time from 25,000 years ago to 0 (today).
- Look at the legend to understand what colors and certain marks stand for.



Summarize the information shown in each part of the graph. What trends or changes are shown in each line graph?

STRATEGY: WRITE A SUMMARY.

Use the answers to your questions about geographic patterns and distributions to write your summary paragraph.

Write a paragraph to summarize what you learned from the graphs.

Some 20,000 years ago, after the last Ice Age, temperatures started to rise worldwide. This steady rise in average temperature from 51° to 55° made possible the beginnings of agriculture. As a result of the agricultural revolution, world population grew from about 2 million to about 130 million over a period of 10,000 years.

Applying the Skill

WRITE YOUR OWN SUMMARY. Turn to Chapter 31, page 908, and look at the graph "World Trade, 1929–1933." Study the graph and write a paragraph in which you summarize what you learn from it.

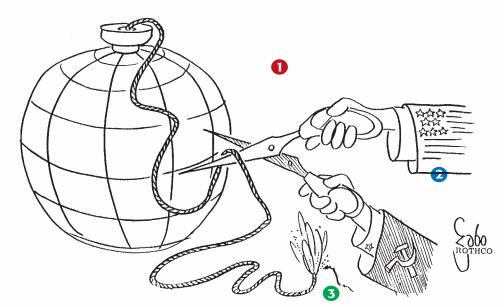
3.7 Analyzing Political Cartoons

POLITICAL CARTOONS are drawings that express the artist's point of view about a local, national, or international situation or event. They may criticize, show approval, or draw attention to a particular issue, and may be either serious or humorous. Political cartoonists often use symbols as well as other visual clues to communicate their message.

Understanding the Skill

STRATEGY: EXAMINE THE CARTOON CAREFULLY. The cartoon below was drawn during the period of détente—a lessening of Cold War tensions between the United States and the Soviet Union.

- Look at the cartoon as a whole to determine the subject.
- **2** Look for symbols, which are especially effective in communicating ideas visually. In this cartoon, Szabo uses symbols that stand for two nations. The stars and stripes stand for the United States. The hammer and sickle stand for the Soviet Union.
- Analyze the visual details, which help express the artist's point of view. The lit fuse suggests that the world is in immediate danger. The United States and the Soviet Union are cooperating to reduce the danger by cutting the fuse.



STRATEGY: MAKE A CHART.

Summarize your analysis in a chart. Look for details and analyze their significance. Then decide on the message of the cartoon.

Symbols and Visual Details	Significance	Message	
• Stars and stripes	• United States	The United States and the	
 Hammer and sickle 	• Soviet Union	Soviet Union are trying to	
• Lit fuse	• Danger	prevent their differences	
• Both nations hold the scissors	• Cooperation	from destroying the world.	

Applying the Skill

MAKE YOUR OWN CHART. Turn to the political cartoon in Chapter 23, page 652. Read the information provided in the chart and graphs to help you understand the basis for the cartoon. Note the clothing and apparent attitudes of the figures in the drawing, as well as how they relate to one another. Then make a chart like the one above.

4.1 Writing for Social Studies

WRITING FOR SOCIAL STUDIES requires you to describe an idea, a situation, or an event. Often, you will be asked to take a stand on a particular issue or to make a specific point. To successfully describe an event or make a point, your writing needs to be clear, concise, and accurate. When you write reports or term papers, you will also need to create a bibliography of your sources; and you need to evaluate how reliable those sources are.

Understanding the Skill

STRATEGY: ORGANIZE INFORMATION AND WRITE CLEARLY. The following passage describes the rise and fall of Napoleon Bonaparte. Notice how the strategies below helped the writer explain the historical importance of Napoleon's power.

- **1** Focus on your topic. Be sure that you clearly state the main idea of your piece so that your readers know what you intend to say.
- Collect and organize your facts. Collect accurate information about your topic to support the main idea you are trying to make. Use your information to build a logical case to prove your point

To express your ideas clearly,

use standard grammar, spelling, sentence structure, and

punctuation when writing for social studies. Proofread your work to make sure it is well organized and grammatically correct.

1 The Rise and Fall of Napoleon, 1799—1814

The power that Napoleon used to bring order to France after the Revolution ultimately proved to be his undoing. Under his command, the troops drove out members of the legislature in 1799 and helped Napoleon seize control of France. 2 As emperor of France, he stabilized the country's economy. He even created a code of laws. However, Napoleon wanted to control all of Europe. But he made mistakes that cost him his empire. He established a blockade in 1806 to prevent trade between Great Britain and other Europeans nations. But smugglers, aided by the British, managed to get cargo through. He angered Spain by replacing the country's king with his own brother. In 1812, Napoleon also invaded Russia by using many troops who were not French and who felt little loyalty to him. Eventually, all the main powers of Europe joined forces and defeated Napoleon in the spring of 1814.

STRATEGY: USE STANDARD FORMATS WHEN MAKING CITATIONS. Use standard

formats when citing books, magazines, newspapers, electronic media, and other sources. The following examples will help you to interpret and create bibliographies.

- Video
- Newspaper
- Magazine
- Online database

- Fire and Ice. Prod. HistoryAlive Videocassette. BBC Video, 1998.
- Gutierrez, Andrew R. "Memorial for Scott at Antarctic." Los Angeles Times 8 January 2001: 14A.
- 🕞 Hansen, Ron. "The Race for the South Pole." Smithsonian Institute 28 June 1999: 112.
- 6 "Scott's Run for the South Pole." Facts on File. Online. Internet. 28 February 2000.
- 🎧 Solomon, Susan. The Coldest March: Scott's Fatal Antarctic Expedition. New Haven, CT: Yale UP, 2001.

Applying the Skill

WRITE YOUR OWN RESPONSE. Turn to Chapter 23, Section 4, "Napoleon's Empire Collapses." Read the section and use the strategies above to write your answer to question 6 on page 671.

Find three or four different sources on the Internet or in the library relating to Napoleon's fall. Create a short bibliography and use standard formats for each type of source. Be sure to interpret, or evaluate, how reliable your sources are.

4.2 Creating a Map

CREATING A MAP can help you understand routes, regions, landforms, political boundaries, or other geographical information.

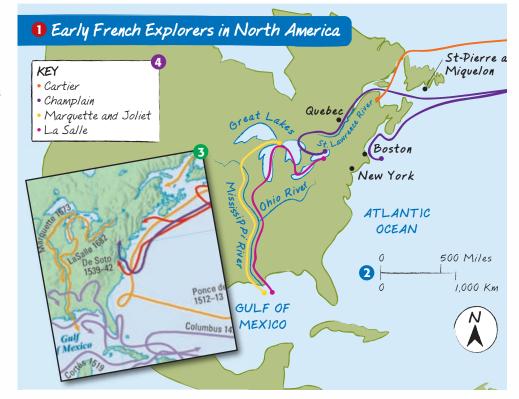
Understanding the Skill

STRATEGY: CREATE A MAP to clarify information and help you visualize what you read. Creating a map is similar to taking notes, except that you draw much of the information. After reading the passage below, a student sketched the map shown.

The French Explore North America

A number of Frenchmen were among the early explorers of North America. In 1534, Jacques Cartier sailed up a broad river that he named the St. Lawrence. When he came to a large island dominated by a mountain, he called the island Mont Real, which eventually became known as Montreal. In 1608, another French explorer, Samuel de Champlain, sailed further up the St. Lawrence and laid claim to a region he called Quebec. In 1673, Jacques Marquette and Louis Joliet explored the Great Lakes and the upper Mississippi River. Nearly 10 years later, Sieur de La Salle explored the lower Mississippi and claimed the entire river valley for France.

- Create a title that shows the purpose of the map.
- **2** Consider the purpose of the map as you decide which features to include. Because the main purpose of this sketch map is to show the routes of early explorers, it includes a scale of distance.
- **3** Find one or more maps to use **as a guide.** For this sketch map. the student consulted a historical map and a physical map.
- 4 Create a legend to explain any colors or symbols used.



Applying the Skill

MAKE YOUR OWN SKETCH MAP. Turn to Chapter 20, page 556, and read the first three paragraphs of the section "Spanish Conquests in Peru." Create a sketch map showing the cities where Pizarro conquered the Inca. Use either a modern map of Peru or an historic map of the Incan Empire as a guide. (The conquered cities of the empire also belong to the modern nation of Peru.) Include a scale of miles to show the distance traveled by the Spanish to make their conquests. Add a legend to indicate which conquest involved a battle and which did not.

4.3 Creating Charts and Graphs

CHARTS and **GRAPHS** are visual representations of information. (See Skillbuilders 3.5, Interpreting Charts, and 3.6, Interpreting Graphs.) Three types of graphs are BAR GRAPHS, LINE GRAPHS, and PIE GRAPHS. Use a line graph to show changes over time, or trends. Use a pie graph to show relative proportions. Use a bar graph to display and compare information about quantities. Use a **CHART** to organize, simplify, and summarize information.

Understanding the Skill

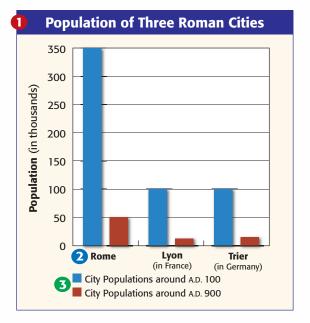
STRATEGY: CREATE A BAR GRAPH. Choose the information that you wish to compare. After reading the following paragraph, a student created the bar graph below to compare population shifts in three European cities.

Population Shifts

The decline of the Roman Empire led to major population shifts. As Roman centers of trade and government collapsed, nobles retreated to the rural areas. Roman cities were left without strong leadership. The population of Rome dropped from 350,000 in A.D. 100 to 50,000 in A.D. 900. During the same period, other cities in the empire experienced similar declines. For example, the population of Trier, Germany, dropped from 100,000 to around 13,000. The population of Lyon, France, experienced an even greater decline, dropping from 100,000 to approximately 12,000.

STRATEGY: ORGANIZE THE DATA. Be consistent in how you present similar kinds of information.

- Use a title that sums up the information.
- Clearly label vertical and horizontal axes. Use the vertical axis to show increasing quantities. Label the horizontal axis with what is being compared.
- Add a legend to indicate the meaning of any colors or symbols.



Applying the Skill

CREATE A BAR GRAPH. Turn to Chapter 23, page 670. Study the map "Napoleon's Russian Campaign, 1812." Use the information to create a bar graph showing the number of soldiers in Napoleon's army from June 1812 to December 6, 1812. Label the vertical axis Soldiers (in thousands) and show the grid in increments of 100, beginning with 0 and ending with 500. Provide a bar for each of the following dates: June 1812, September 7, 1812, November 1812, and December 6, 1812. Label each bar with the number of soldiers. Add a title. Be sure to read carefully the information in the boxes on the chart for each date you include in your graph.

4.4 Creating and Using a Database

A **DATABASE** is a collection of data, or information, that is organized so that you can find and retrieve information on a specific topic quickly and easily. Once a computerized database is set up, you can search it to find specific information without going through the entire database. The database will provide a list of all information in the database related to your topic. Learning how to use a database will help you learn how to create one.

Understanding the Skill

STRATEGY: CREATE THE DATABASE. First, identify the topic of the database. Both words in this title, "Five Empires," are important. These words were used to begin the research for this database.

- Determine the order of presentation of information. For example, will you list items from largest to smallest? from oldest to newest? The five empires are listed in order of date, from earliest empire to latest.
- Identify the entries included under each heading. Here, five empires from the text were chosen as topics for research.
- Ask yourself what kind of data to include. For example, what geographic patterns and distributions will be shown? Your choice of data will provide the column headings. The key words Dates, Greatest Territory, and Greatest Population were chosen to focus the research.

Five Empires					
	1 Dates	Greatest Territory*	Greatest Population**		
2 Persian	550 в.с.—330 в.с.	2.0	14.0		
Roman	27 B.C.—A.D. 476	3.4	54.8		
Byzantine	a.d. 395—a.d. 1453	1.4	30.0		
Mongol A.D. 1206—A.D. 1380		11.7	125.0		
Aztec	a.d. 1325—a.d. 1521	0.2	6.0		
	* Estimated in millions of square miles				

4 Add labels or footnotes as necessary to clarify the nature of the data presented. Are the figures shown in thousands? hundred of thousands? millions? Users of the database need to know what the figures represent.

STRATEGY: USE THE DATABASE. Use the database to help you find information quickly. For example, in this database you could search for "empires with populations of more than 10 million" and compile a list including the Persian, Roman, Byzantine, and Mongol empires.

Applying the Skill

CREATE A DATABASE for World War II that shows the dates and locations of important battles, estimated casualty figures, and the significance of the outcome for each battle. Use information presented in Chapter 32 to find the data. Follow a chart format similar to the one above for your database. Then use the database to list the three battles that resulted in the highest number of casualties.

4.5 Creating a Model

WHEN YOU CREATE A MODEL, you use information and ideas to show an event or a situation in a visual way. A model might be a poster or a diagram drawn to explain how something happened. Or, it might be a three-dimensional model, such as a diorama, that depicts an important scene or situation.

Understanding the Skill

STRATEGY: CREATE A MODEL. The poster below shows the hardships and dangers that children faced while working in the textile factories in the early 1800s. Use the strategies listed below to help you create your own model.

- Gather the information you need to understand the situation or event. In this case, you need to be able to show the hardships and dangers of child labor.
- Visualize and sketch an idea for vour model. Once you have created a picture in your mind, make an actual sketch to plan how it might look.
- **3** Think of symbols you may want to use. Since the model should give information in a visual way, think about ways you can use color, pictures, or other visuals to tell the story.

Gather the supplies you will need and create the model. For example, you may need crayons and markers.



Applying the Skill

CREATE YOUR OWN MODEL. Read the Interact with History feature on page 716. Create a poster that shows how working conditions might be made more fair in England during the Industrial Revolution.

4.6 Creating/Interpreting a **Research Outline**

When you CREATE A RESEARCH OUTLINE, you arrange information you have gathered into an organized format. When you INTERPRET A RESEARCH OUTLINE, you use the outline's structure to guide you in writing a research report or paper that is clear and focused.

Understanding the Skill

STRATEGY: DECIDE HOW IDEAS ARE CONNECTED, THEN CREATE AN OUTLINE. As

you research a topic, you are likely to gather names, dates, facts, and ideas. All of this information needs to be organized to show how the ideas connect to one another. To decide how the ideas connect, think about your purpose for writing the research report.

For example, suppose you are writing a report about Napoleon's retreat from Moscow. You might choose to create an outline using the sequence of events or using the causes and effects that led to the destruction of the Grand Army. Your outline would reflect your purpose.

- An outline begins with a statement of purpose.
- An outline is divided into two or more major sections, introduced by Roman numerals (I, II).
- **Each major section** is divided into two or more subsections introduced by capital letters (A, B).
- 4 The subsections may be divided into sub-subsections introduced by Arabic numerals (1, 2).

Chronological outline

- 1 Purpose: Describe the events that led to Napoleon's defeat in Russia.
- 2 I. Napoleon's defeat in Russia

A. June 1812

- 1. march into Russia
- 2. scorched-earth policy
- B. September 7, 1812
 - 1. Battle of Borodino
 - 2. narrow victory for the French
- C. September 14, 1812
 - 1. arrival in Moscow
 - 2. city in flames
- 2 II. Napoleon's defeat in Russia
 - A. mid-October 1812
 - 1. waiting for offer of peace
 - 2. too late to advance
 - 3. begins retreat from Moscow
 - B. early November 1812
 - 1. retreat in snow storm
 - 2. attack by Russians

Cause-and-effect outline

Purpose: Describe the reasons for Napoleon's defeat in Russia.

- I. Napoleon's mistakes
- 3 A. troops not loyal to Napoleon
 - B. waited too long to retreat
 - 4 1. starvation
 - 2. winter snows
- II. Russian tactics
 - A. scorched-earth policy
 - B. no offer of peace from the czar
 - C. attacks on the retreating army

STRATEGY: INTERPRET THE OUTLINE TO WRITE A RESEARCH REPORT.

Use the organization of the outline to choose signal words that match your purpose for writing.

Signal words to show time-order	Signal words to show cause and effect
dates: September 14, 1812	because
time frames: for five weeks	S0
order: first, next, then, last	as a result

Applying the Skill

CREATE YOUR OWN OUTLINE. Read Chapter 29, "The Great War, 1914–1918."

Create an outline that shows a sequence of events leading up to World War I or that shows the series of causes and effects that resulted in the war. Choose appropriate signal words to write a rough draft from your outline.

4.7 Creating Oral Presentations

When you **CREATE AN ORAL PRESENTATION**, you prepare a speech or a talk to give before an audience. The object of an oral presentation is to provide information about a particular topic or to persuade an audience to think or act in a particular way.

Understanding the Skill

STRATEGY: CHOOSE A TOPIC. The following is an excerpt from a student's speech in support of recycling.

- 1 State your theme or point of view.
- **Include facts or arguments** to support your theme.
- **Choose words and images** that reflect the theme. The comparison to Disneyland is a visual image that helps to communicate the amount of waste in the Fresh Kills Landfill.

1 To help preserve the earth's dwindling natural resources, Americans need to get serious about recycling. At the moment, our track record is not very good. 2 Although people in the United States account for less than 5% of the world's population, they use 40% of the world's resources, and generate a huge amount of waste. The Fresh Kills Landfill, which serves New York City, is a prime example. It contains so much garbage that Fresh Kills Landfill is 3 four times the size of Disneyland. And that's just New York's garbage.

With so many people throwing so much away, is there any point in trying to change things? The answer is yes! Recyling one glass bottle saves enough energy to light a 100-watt light bulb for four hours. Twenty-five million trees could be saved every year by recycling just 10% of our newspapers. Making new aluminum products from recycled aluminum, rather than from bauxite, uses 95% less energy. By increasing the recycling of our bottles, jars, cans, and paper, we could dramatically reduce our demand for trees, fossil fuels, and other precious resources.

STRATEGY: USE THESE TIPS FOR SUCCESSFUL ORAL PRESENTATIONS.

- Maintain eye contact with your audience.
- Use gestures and body language to emphasize main points.
- Pace yourself. Speak slowly and distinctly.
- Vary your tone to help bring out the message you wish to make.

STRATEGY: PRACTICE THE PRESENTATION in front of a mirror or ask a friend or family member to listen to your presentation and give you feedback.

Applying the Skill

CREATE YOUR OWN ORAL PRESENTATION. Turn to Chapter 22. Choose a topic from the "New" section of one of the "Changing Idea" boxes on pages 626, 629, 638, or 642. Create an oral presentation in which you explain how the idea was new and why it was important. Use information from the chapter to support your chosen idea.

4.8 Creating Written Presentations

CREATING A WRITTEN PRESENTATION means writing an in-depth report on a topic in history. Your objective may be to inform or to support a particular point of view. To succeed, your writing must be clear and well organized. For additional information on creating a historical research paper, see Skillbuilder 4.1, Writing for Social Studies.

Understanding the Skill

STRATEGY: CREATE AN OUTLINE such as the one below. Use it as a guide to write your presentation.

- **1** State the main idea.
- **2** Organize the information by category.
- **3** Add supporting facts and details.

The Inca created a large and highly developed empire. A. A Theocracy I. Members of only II families could rule 2. Rulers believed to be descendants of the sun god 3. Religion supported the state; worship of the sun god, Inti, amounted to worship of the king B. Expansion I. Rulers conquered new territories to acquire wealth 2. Pachacuti created the largest empire in the Americas 3. Size by 1500: 2,500 miles along western coast, 16 million people C. Unifying strategies 3. I. Rulers practiced diplomacy 2. Rulers imposed a single official language, Quechua 3. Schools taught conquered peoples the Incan ways 4. Extensive system of roads led to Cuzco, the capital D. Early socialism I. Supported aged and disabled 2. Rewarded citizens' labor with food and beer	The Incan Empire				
1. Members of only 11 families could rule 2. Rulers believed to be descendants of the sun god 3. Religion supported the state; worship of the sun god, Inti, amounted to worship of the king B. Expansion 1. Rulers conquered new territories to acquire wealth 2. Pachacuti created the largest empire in the Americas 3. Size by 1500: 2,500 miles along western coast, 16 million people C. Unifying strategies 3. I. Rulers practiced diplomacy 2. Rulers imposed a single official language, Quechua 3. Schools taught conquered peoples the Incan ways 4. Extensive system of roads led to Cuzco, the capital D. Early socialism 1. Supported aged and disabled	1. The Inca created a	large and highly developed empire.			
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3. Religion supported the state; worship of the sun god, Inti, amounted to worship of the king B. Expansion I. Rulers conquered new territories to acquire wealth 2. Pachacuti created the largest empire in the Americas 3. Size by 1500: 2,500 miles along western coast, 16 million people C. Unifying strategies 3. I. Rulers practiced diplomacy 2. Rulers imposed a single official language, Quechua 3. Schools taught conquered peoples the Incan ways 4. Extensive system of roads led to Cuzco, the capital D. Early socialism I. Supported aged and disabled	1. Members of on	ly 11 families could rule			
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3. Size by 1500: 2,500 miles along western coast, 16 million people C. Unifying strategies 3. I. Rulers practiced diplomacy 2. Rulers imposed a single official language, Quechua 3. Schools taught conquered peoples the Incan ways 4. Extensive system of roads led to Cuzco, the capital D. Early socialism 1. Supported aged and disabled	1. Rulers conquer	ed new territories to acquire wealth			
C. Unifying strategies 3. I. Rulers practiced diplomacy 2. Rulers imposed a single official language, Quechua 3. Schools taught conquered peoples the Incan ways 4. Extensive system of roads led to Cuzco, the capital D. Early socialism I. Supported aged and disabled					
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	D. Early socialism				
2 Rowarded citizens' labor with food and bear	1. Supported aged and disabled				
z. Newar ded Gripers rapor writh rood and beer	2. Rewarded citi	zens' labor with food and beer			
E. Culturally advanced	E. Culturally advan	ced			
1. Elaborate calendar system	I. Elaborate cale	ndar system			
2. Artisans created works in gold and silver	2. Artisans creat	ed works in gold and silver			

4.8 (Continued)

STRATEGY: EDIT AND REVISE YOUR PRESENTATION.

- Use punctuation marks for their correct purposes. A comma follows a prepositional phrase at the beginning of a sentence.
- Capitalize all proper nouns. Three lines under a letter means to capitalize.
- Check spelling with both an electronic spell checker and a dictionary.
- Use consistent verb tense. Use past tense for events in the past.
- Check for common agreement errors. Subjects and verbs must agree in person and number.
- **6** Use correct sentence structure. Every sentence must have a subject and a verb.

The Incan Empire

The Inca created the largest empire ever seen in the Americas. Despite its size 🕕 the Incan Empire was highly unified. Its government was diplomatic, bureaucratic, and socialist in nature, and its ruler was believed to be a god-king.

The Incan ruler was selected from one of 11 noble families, who were believed to have descended from 2 inti, the sun god. Religion therefore supported the state, for worship of the sun god amounted to worship of the king. Thus, the empire was a theocracy, which is a state believed to be ruled directly by divine guidance.

The empire's expansion was largely the result of an important tradition: dead rulers retained the wealth they 3 acumulated during their lives. To acquire wealth of their own, succeeding rulers often attempted to conquer new territories. One such ruler, Pachacuti, conquered all of Peru and many neighboring lands as well. By 1500, the Incan Empire extended 2,500 miles along the coast of western South America and included an estimated 16 million people.

Incan rulers used a number of strategies to achieve unification. They practiced diplomacy by allowing conquered peoples to retain their own customs as long as they were loyal to the state. The Inca imposed a single official language, Quechua, to be used throughout the empire. They founded schools to teach Incan ways. They 4 buil# 14,000 miles of roads and bridges, which connected cities in conquered areas with Cuzco, the Incan capital.

The government's concern for the welfare of its citizens suggests an early form of socialism. Citizens worked for the state and, in turn, were taken care of. At public feasts, food and beer 5 were distributed as a reward for labor. In addition, the aged and disabled often received state support.

Among the many cultural achievements of the Inca were the development of an elaborate calendar system and the creation of beautiful works in gold and silver. Surprisingly, 6 no system of writing. They preserved their history and literature by means of an oral tradition.

Applying the Skill

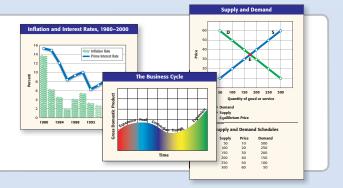
CREATE A TWO-PAGE WRITTEN PRESENTATION on a topic of historical importance that interests you.

Online References

Available @ hmhsocialstudies.com

Economics Handbook

The Economics Handbook is a glossary of economic terms. Graphs and charts in the handbook provide a better understanding of these terms.



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Glossary

The Glossary is an alphabetical listing of many of the key terms from the chapters, along with their meanings. The definitions listed in the Glossary are the ones that apply to the way the words are used in this textbook. The Glossary gives the part of speech of each word. The following abbreviations are used:

adj. adjective

n. noun

v. verb

Pronunciation Key

Some of the words in this book are followed by respellings that show how the words are pronounced. The following key will help you understand what sounds are represented by the letters used in the respellings.

Symbol	Examples	Symbol	Examples
a	apple [AP•uhl], catch [kach]	oh	road, [rohd], know [noh]
ah	barn [bahrn], pot [paht]	00	school [skool], glue [gloo]
air	bear [bair], dare [dair]	ow	out [owt], cow [kow]
aw	bought [bawt], horse [hawrs]	oy	coin [koyn], boys [boyz]
ay	ape [ayp], mail [mayl]	p	pig [pihg], top [tahp]
b	bell [behl], table [TAY•buhl]	r	rose [rohz], star [stahr]
ch	chain [chayn], ditch [dihch]	S	soap [sohp], icy [EYE•see]
d	dog [dawg], rained [raynd]	sh	share [shair], nation [NAY•shuhn]
ee	even [EE•vuhn], meal [meel]	t	tired [tyrd], boat [boht]
eh	egg [ehg], ten [tehn]	th	thin [thihn], mother [MUH•thuhr]
eye	iron [EYE•uhrn]	u	p u ll [pul], l oo k [luk]
f	fall [fawl], laugh [laf]	uh	bump [buhmp], awake [uh•WAYK],
g	gold [gohld], big [bihg]		happen [HAP•uhn], pencil [PEHN•suhl],
h	hot [haht], exhale [ehks•HAYL]		pilot [PY•luht]
hw	white [hwyt]	ur	earth [urth], bird [burd], worm [wurm]
ih	into [IHN•too], sick [sihk]	v	vase [vays], love [luhv]
j	j ar [jahr], ba dge [baj]	W	web [wehb], twin [twihn]
k	cat [kat], luck [luhk]	У	As a consonant: yard [yahrd], mule [myool]
1	load [lohd], ball [bawl]		As a vowel: ice [ys], tried [tryd], sigh [sy]
m	make [mayk], gem [jehm]	Z	zone [zohn], reason [REE•zuhn]
n	night [nyt], win [wihn]	zh	treasure [TREHZH•uhr], garage [guh•RAHZH]
ng	song [sawng], anger [ANG•guh	r]	

Syllables that are stressed when the words are spoken appear in CAPITAL LETTERS in the respellings. For example, the respelling of *patterns* (PAT•uhrnz) shows that the first syllable of the word is stressed.

Syllables that appear in SMALL CAPITAL LETTERS are also stressed, but not as strongly as those that appear in capital letters. For example, the respelling of *interaction* (IHN•tuhr•AK•shuhn) shows that the third syllable receives the main stress and the first syllable receives a secondary stress.

Abbasids [uh•BAS•IHDZ] *n*. a dynasty that ruled much of the Muslim Empire from A.D. 750 to 1258. (p. 271)

Aborigine [AB•uh•RIHJ•uh•nee] *n*. a member of any of the native peoples of Australia. (p. 752)

absolute monarch [MAHN•uhrk] *n*. a king or queen who has unlimited power and seeks to control all aspects of society. (p. 594)

acropolis [uh•KRAHP•uh•lihs] *n*. a fortified hilltop in an ancient Greek city. (p. 127)

Aksum [AHK•SOOM] *n*. an African kingdom, in what is now Ethiopia and Eritrea, that reached the height of its power in the fourth century A.D. (p. 225)

al-Andalus [al•AN•duh•LUS] *n.* a Muslim-ruled region in what is now Spain, established in the eighth century A.D. (p. 271)

Allah [AL•uh] *n*. God (an Arabic word, used mainly in Islam). (p. 264)

Allies [uh•LYZ] *n*. in World War I, the nations of Great Britain, France, and Russia, along with the other nations that fought on their side; also, the group of nations—including Great Britain, the Soviet Union, and the United States—that opposed the Axis Powers in World War II. (p. 845)

Almohads [AL•moh•HADZ] *n*. a group of Islamic reformers who overthrew the Almoravid dynasty and established an empire in North Africa and southern Spain in the 12th century A.D. (p. 412)

Almoravids [AL•muh•RAHV•uhdz] *n*. an Islamic religious brotherhood that established an empire in North Africa and southern Spain in the 11th century A.D. (p. 412)

Amritsar Massacre *n*. killing by British troops of nearly 400 Indians gathered at Amritsar to protest the Rowlatt Acts. (p. 888)

- **Anabaptist** [AN•uh•BAP•tihst] *n*. in the Reformation, a member of a Protestant group that believed in baptizing only those persons who were old enough to decide to be Christian and believed in the separation of church and state. (p. 496)
- **Anasazi** [AH•nuh•SAH•zee] *n*. an early Native American people who lived in the American Southwest. (p. 443)
- **Anatolia** [AN•uh•TOH•lee•uh] *n*. the Southwest Asian peninsula now occupied by the Asian part of Turkey—also called Asia Minor. (p. 62)
- **Angkor Wat** [ANG•kawr WAHT] *n.* a temple complex built in the Khmer Empire and dedicated to the Hindu god Vishnu. (p. 345)
- Anglican [ANG•glih•kuhn] adj. relating to the Church of England. (p. 494)
- **animism** [AN•uh•MIHZ•uhm] *n*. the belief that spirits are present in animals, plants, and other natural objects. (p. 216)
- **annexation** [AN•ihk•SAY•shuhn] *n*. the adding of a region to the territory of an existing political unit. (pp. 799, 813)
- **annul** [uh•NUHL] v. to cancel or set aside. (p. 492)
- **anti-Semitism** [AN•tee•SEHM•ih•TIHZ•uhm] *n*. prejudice against Jews. (p. 749)
- apartheid [uh•PAHRT•HYT] n. a South African policy of complete legal separation of the races, including the banning of all social contacts between blacks and whites. (p. 1043)
- **apostle** [uh•PAHS•uhl] *n*. one of the followers of Jesus who preached and spread his teachings. (p. 168)
- **appeasement** *n*. the making of concessions to an aggressor in order to avoid war. (p. 917)
- **aqueduct** [AK•wih•DUHKT] *n*. a pipeline or channel built to carry water to populated areas. (p. 181)
- **aristocracy** [AR•ih•STAHK•ruh•see] *n*. a government in which power is in the hands of a hereditary ruling class or nobility. (p. 127)
- **armistice** [AHR•mih•stihs] *n*. an agreement to stop fighting. (p. 855)
- **artifact** *n*. a human-made object, such as a tool, weapon, or piece of jewelry. (p. 5)
- artisan [AHR•tih•zuhn] n. a skilled worker, such as a weaver or a potter, who makes goods by hand. (p. 20)
- **Aryans** [AIR•ee•uhnz] *n*. **1.** an Indo-European people who, about 1500 B.C., began to migrate into the Indian subcontinent (p. 63). **2.** to the Nazis, the Germanic peoples who formed a "master race." (p. 936)
- **assembly line** *n*. in a factory, an arrangement in which a product is moved from worker to worker, with each person performing a single task in its manufacture. (p. 764)
- assimilation [uh•sihm•uh•LAY•shuhn] n. 1. the adoption of a conqueror's culture by a conquered people (p. 205).
 2. a policy in which a nation forces or encourages a subject people to adopt its institutions and customs. (p. 781)
- **Assyria** [uh•SEER•ee•uh] *n*. a Southwest Asian kingdom that controlled a large empire from about 850 to 612 B.C. (p. 95)
- **Atlantic Charter** *n*. a declaration of principles issued in August 1941 by British prime minister Winston Churchill and U.S. president Franklin Roosevelt, on which the Allied peace plan at the end of World War II was based. (p. 930)

- **Atlantic slave trade** *n*. the buying, transporting, and selling of Africans for work in the Americas. (p. 567)
- **autocracy** [aw•TAHK•ruh•see] *n*. a government in which the ruler has unlimited power and uses it in an arbitrary manner. (p. 109)
- **Axis Powers** *n*. in World War II, the nations of Germany, Italy, and Japan, which had formed an alliance in 1936. (p. 917)
- **ayllu** [EYE•loo] *n*. in Incan society, a small community or family group whose members worked together for the common good. (p. 460)
- **balance of power** *n*. a political situation in which no one nation is powerful enough to pose a threat to others. (p. 672)
- the Balkans [BAWL•kuhnz] n. the region of southeastern Europe now occupied by Greece, Albania, Bulgaria, Romania, the European part of Turkey, and the former republics of Yugoslavia. (p. 689)
- **Bantu-speaking peoples** *n*. the speakers of a related group of languages who, beginning about 2,000 years ago, migrated from West Africa into most of the southern half of Africa. (p. 222)
- **baroque** [buh•ROHK] *adj*. relating to a grand, ornate style that characterized European painting, music, and architecture in the 1600s and early 1700s. (p. 637)
- **barter** *n*. a form of trade in which people exchange goods and services without the use of money. (p. 23)
- **Battle of Britain** *n*. a series of battles between German and British air forces, fought over Britain in 1940–1941. (p. 928)
- **Battle of Guadalcanal** [GWAHD•uhl•kuh•NAL] *n*. a 1942–1943 battle of World War II, in which Allied troops drove Japanese forces from the Pacific island of Guadalcanal. (p. 935)
- **Battle of Midway** *n*. a 1942 sea and air battle of World War II, in which American forces defeated Japanese forces in the central Pacific. (p. 934)
- **Battle of Stalingrad** [STAH•lihn•GRAD] *n*. a 1942–1943 battle of World War II, in which German forces were defeated in their attempt to capture the city of Stalingrad in the Soviet Union. (p. 941)
- **Battle of the Bulge** *n.* a 1944–1945 battle in which Allied forces turned back the last major German offensive of World War II. (p. 944)
- **Battle of Trafalgar** [truh•FAL•guhr] *n*. an 1805 naval battle in which Napoleon's forces were defeated by a British fleet under the command of Horatio Nelson. (p. 667)
- **Benin** [buh•NIHN] *n*. a kingdom that arose near the Niger River delta in the 1300s and became a major West African state in the 1400s. (p. 419)
- **Beringia** [buh•RIHN•jee•uh] *n*. an ancient land bridge over which the earliest Americans are believed to have migrated from Asia into the Americas. (p. 235)
- **Berlin Conference** *n*. a meeting in 1884–1885 at which representatives of European nations agreed upon rules for the European colonization of Africa. (p. 776)
- **Bill of Rights** *n*. the first ten amendments to the U.S. Constitution, which protect citizens' basic rights and freedoms. (p. 645)

- **bishop** *n*. a high-ranking Christian official who supervises a number of local churches. (p. 171)
- **blitzkrieg** [BLIHTS•KREEG] *n*. "lightning war"—a form of warfare in which surprise attacks with fast-moving airplanes are followed by massive attacks with infantry forces. (p. 925)
- **blockade** [blah•KAYD] *n*. the use of troops or ships to prevent commercial traffic from entering or leaving a city or region. (p. 668)
- **Boer** [bohr] *n*. a Dutch colonist in South Africa. (p. 776)
- **Boer War** *n*. a conflict, lasting from 1899 to 1902, in which the Boers and the British fought for control of territory in South Africa. (p. 778)
- **Bolsheviks** [BOHL•shuh•VIHKS] *n.* a group of revolutionary Russian Marxists who took control of Russia's government in November 1917. (p. 868)
- **Boxer Rebellion** *n*. a 1900 revolt in China, aimed at ending foreign influence in the country. (p. 808)
- **boyar** [boh•YAHR] *n*. a landowning noble of Russia. (p. 608)
- **Brahma** [BRAH•muh] *n*. a Hindu god considered the creator of the world. (p. 194)
- **Brahmin** [BRAH•mihn] *n*. in Aryan society, a member of the social class made up of priests. (p. 63)
- **brinkmanship** *n*. a policy of threatening to go to war in response to any enemy aggression. (p. 970)
- **Bronze Age** *n*. a period in human history, beginning around 3000 B.C. in some areas, during which people began using bronze, rather than copper or stone, to fashion tools and weapons. (p. 21)
- **bubonic plague** [boo•BAHN•ihk PLAYG] *n*. a deadly disease that spread across Asia and Europe in the mid-14th century, killing millions of people. (p. 399)
- **bureaucracy** [byu•RAHK•ruh•see] *n*. a system of departments and agencies formed to carry out the work of government. (p. 105)
- **burgher** [BUR•guhr] *n*. a medieval merchant-class town dweller. (p. 391)
- **Bushido** [BUSH•ih•DOH] *n*. the strict code of behavior followed by samurai warriors in Japan. (p. 343)
- **cabinet** *n*. a group of advisers or ministers chosen by the head of a country to help make government decisions. (p. 617)
- **caliph** [KAY•lihf] *n*. a supreme political and religious leader in a Muslim government. (p. 269)
- **calligraphy** [kuh•LIHG•ruh•fee] *n*. the art of beautiful handwriting. (p. 276)
- **Calvinism** [KAL•vih•NIHZ•uhm] *n*. a body of religious teachings based on the ideas of the reformer John Calvin. (p. 495)
- **Camp David Accords** *n*. the first signed agreement between Israel and an Arab country, leading to a 1979 peace treaty, in which Egypt recognized Israel as a legitimate state and Israel agreed to return the Sinai Peninsula to Egypt. (p. 1020)
- **canon law** *n*. the body of laws governing the religious practices of a Christian church. (p. 371)

- **capitalism** *n*. an economic system based on private ownership and on the investment of money in business ventures in order to make a profit. (pp. 573, 734)
- **Carolingian** [KAR•uh•LIHN•juhn] **Dynasty** *n*. a dynasty of Frankish rulers, lasting from A.D. 751 to 987. (p. 356)
- **caste** [kast] *n*. one of the four classes of people in the social system of the Aryans who settled in India—priests, warriors, peasants or traders, and non-Aryan laborers or craftsmen. (p. 64)
- **Catholic Reformation** [REHF•uhr•MAY•shuhn] *n*. a 16th-century movement in which the Roman Catholic Church sought to make changes in response to the Protestant Reformation. (p. 498)
- **caudillo** [kaw•DEEL•yoh] *n*. a military dictator of a Latin American country. (p. 816)
- **centralized government** *n*. a government in which power is concentrated in a central authority to which local governments are subject. (p. 200)
- **Central Powers** *n*. in World War I, the nations of Germany and Austria-Hungary, along with the other nations that fought on their side. (p. 845)
- **Chaldeans** [kal•DEE•uhnz] *n*. a Southwest Asian people who helped to destroy the Assyrian Empire. (p. 97)
- **Chartist movement** *n*. in 19th-century Britain, members of the working class demanded reforms in Parliament and in elections, including suffrage for all men. (p. 748)
- **Chavín** [chah•VEEN] *n*. the first major South American civilization, which flourished in the highlands of what is now Peru from about 900 to 200 B.C. (p. 246)
- **checks and balances** *n*. measures designed to prevent any one branch of government from dominating the others. (p. 645)
- **chivalry** [SHIHV•uhl•ree] *n*. a code of behavior for knights in medieval Europe, stressing ideals such as courage, loyalty, and devotion. (p. 365)
- **CIS** *n*. the Commonwealth of Independent States—a loose association of former Soviet republics that was formed after the breakup of the Soviet Union. (p. 1049)
- **city-state** *n*. a city and its surrounding lands functioning as an independent political unit. (p. 31)
- **civil disobedience** *n*. a deliberate and public refusal to obey a law considered unjust. (p. 888)
- **civilization** *n*. a form of culture characterized by cities, specialized workers, complex institutions, record keeping, and advanced technology. (p. 20)
- **civil service** *n*. the administrative departments of a government—especially those in which employees are hired on the basis of their scores on examinations. (p. 203)
- **civil war** *n*. a conflict between two political groups within the same country. (p. 161)
- **clan** *n*. a group of people descended from a common ancestor. (p. 331)
- **classical art** *n*. the art of ancient Greece and Rome, in which harmony, order, and proportion were emphasized. (p. 136)
- **clergy** [KLUR•jee] *n*. a body of officials who perform religious services—such as priests, ministers, or rabbis. (p. 370)

- **cloning** [KLOH•nihng] *n*. the creation of plants or animals that are genetically identical to an existing plant or animal. (p. 1073)
- **coalition** [koH•uh•LIHSH•uhn] **government** *n*. a government controlled by a temporary alliance of several political parties. (p. 904)
- **codex** [KOH•DEHKS] *n*. a book with pages that can be turned, like the one you are reading now. (p. 448)
- **Cold War** *n*. the state of diplomatic hostility between the United States and the Soviet Union in the decades following World War II. (p. 969)
- **collective bargaining** *n*. negotiations between workers and their employers. (p. 738)
- **collective farm** *n*. a large government-controlled farm formed by combining many small farms. (p. 878)
- **colony** n. a land controlled by another nation. (p. 554)
- **Colossus of Rhodes** [kuh•LAHS•uhs uhv ROHDZ] *n*. an enormous Hellenistic statue that formerly stood near the harbor of Rhodes. (p. 149)
- **Columbian Exchange** *n*. the global transfer of plants, animals, and diseases that occurred during the European colonization of the Americas. (p. 571)
- **comedy** *n*. a humorous form of drama that often includes slapstick and satire. (p. 136)
- **command economy** *n*. an economic system in which the government makes all economic decisions. (p. 877)
- **Commercial Revolution** *n*. the expansion of trade and business that transformed European economies during the 16th and 17th centuries. (p. 389)
- **common law** *n*. a unified body of law formed from rulings of England's royal judges that serves as the basis for law in many English-speaking countries today, including the United States. (p. 394)
- **commune** [KAHM•YOON] *n*. in Communist China, a collective farm on which a great number of people work and live together. (p. 974)
- **Communist Party** *n*. a political party practicing the ideas of Karl Marx and V.I. Lenin; originally the Russian Bolshevik Party. (p. 873)
- **communism** *n*. an economic system in which all means of production—land, mines, factories, railroads, and businesses—are owned by the people, private property does not exist, and all goods and services are shared equally. (p. 737)
- **Concert** [KAHN•surt] **of Europe** *n*. a series of alliances among European nations in the 19th century, devised by Prince Klemens von Metternich to prevent the outbreak of revolutions. (p. 674)
- **concordat** [kuhn•KAWR•DAT] *n*. a formal agreement—especially one between the pope and a government, dealing with the control of Church affairs. (p. 664)
- **Congress of Vienna** [vee•EHN•uh] *n.* a series of meetings in 1814–1815, during which the European leaders sought to establish long-lasting peace and security after the defeat of Napoleon. (p. 672)
- **Congress Party** *n*. a major national political party in India—also known as the Indian National Congress. (p. 997)

- **conquistadors** [kahng•KEE•stuh•DAWRZ] *n*. the Spanish soldiers, explorers, and fortune hunters who took part in the conquest of the Americas in the 16th century. (p. 554)
- **conservative** *n*. in the first half of the 19th century, a European—usually a wealthy landowner or noble—who wanted to preserve the traditional monarchies of Europe. (p. 687)
- **constitutional monarchy** [MAHN•uhr•kee] *n.* a system of governing in which the ruler's power is limited by law. (p. 617)
- **consul** [KAHN•suhl] *n*. in the Roman republic, one of the two powerful officials elected each year to command the army and direct the government. (p. 157)
- **containment** *n*. a U.S. foreign policy adopted by President Harry Truman in the late 1940s, in which the United States tried to stop the spread of communism by creating alliances and helping weak countries to resist Soviet advances. (p. 967)
- **Continental System** *n*. Napoleon's policy of preventing trade between Great Britain and continental Europe, intended to destroy Great Britain's economy. (p. 668)
- **corporation** *n*. a business owned by stockholders who share in its profits but are not personally responsible for its debts. (p. 731)
- **Council of Trent** *n*. a meeting of Roman Catholic leaders, called by Pope Paul III to rule on doctrines criticized by the Protestant reformers. (p. 499)
- **coup d'état** [KOO day•TAH] *n*. a sudden seizure of political power in a nation. (p. 664)
- **covenant** [KUHV•uh•nuhnt] *n*. a mutual promise or agreement—such as the agreement between God and the Jewish people as recorded in the Hebrew Bible. (p. 78)
- **creole** [KREE•OHL] *n*. in Spanish colonial society, a colonist who was born in Latin America to Spanish parents. (p. 681)
- **Crimean** [kry•MEE•uhn] **War** *n*. a conflict, lasting from 1853 to 1856, in which the Ottoman Empire, with the aid of Britain and France, halted Russian expansion in the region of the Black Sea. (p. 787)
- **crop rotation** *n*. the system of growing a different crop in a field each year to preserve the fertility of the land. (p. 717)
- **Crusade** *n*. one of the expeditions in which medieval Christian warriors sought to recover control of the Holy Land from the Muslims. (p. 382)
- **cultural diffusion** *n*. the spreading of ideas or products from one culture to another. (p. 31)
- **Cultural Revolution** *n*. a 1966–1976 uprising in China led by the Red Guards, with the goal of establishing a society of peasants and workers in which all were equal. (p. 975)
- **culture** *n*. a people's unique way of life, as shown by its tools, customs, arts, and ideas. (p. 5)
- **cuneiform** [KYOO•nee•uh•FAWRM] *n*. a system of writing with wedge-shaped symbols, invented by the Sumerians around 3000 B.C. (p. 20)
- **cyberterrorism** *n*. politically motivated attacks on information systems. (p. 1088)
- **Cyrillic** [suh•RIHL•ihk] **alphabet** *n*. an alphabet for the writing of Slavic languages, devised in the ninth century A.D. by Saints Cyril and Methodius. (p. 306)

- **czar** [zahr] *n*. a Russian emperor (from the Roman title *Caesar*). (p. 311)
- **daimyo** [DY•mee•OH] *n.* a Japanese feudal lord who commanded a private army of samurai. (p. 542)
- **Daoism** [DOW•IHZ•uhm] *n*. a philosophy based on the ideas of the Chinese thinker Laozi, who taught that people should be guided by a universal force called the Dao (Way). (p. 106)
- **D-Day** *n*. June 6, 1944—the day on which the Allies began their invasion of the European mainland during World War II. (p. 944)
- **Declaration of Independence** *n*. a statement of the reasons for the American colonies' break with Britain, approved by the Second Continental Congress in 1776. (p. 641)
- **delta** *n*. a marshy region formed by deposits of silt at the mouth of a river. (p. 36)
- **demilitarization** [dee•MIHL•ih•tuhr•ih•ZAY•shuhn] *n*. a reduction in a country's ability to wage war, achieved by disbanding its armed forces and prohibiting it from acquiring weapons. (p. 950)
- **democracy** *n*. a government controlled by its citizens, either directly or through representatives. (p. 128)
- **democratization** n. the process of creating a government elected by the people. (p. 950)
- **Department of Homeland Security** *n*. U.S. federal agency created in 2002 to coordinate national efforts against terrorism. (p. 1091)
- **détente** [day•TAHNT] *n*. a policy of reducing Cold War tensions that was adopted by the United States during the presidency of Richard Nixon. (p. 990)
- **developed nation** *n*. a nation with all the facilities needed for the advanced production of manufactured goods. (p. 1075)
- **devshirme** [dehv•SHEER•meh] *n*. in the Ottoman Empire, the policy of taking boys from conquered Christian peoples to be trained as Muslim soldiers. (p. 510)
- **Diaspora** [dy•AS•puhr•uh] *n*. the dispersal of the Jews from their homeland in Judea—especially during the period of more than 1,800 years that followed the Romans' destruction of the Temple in Jerusalem in A.D. 70. (p. 170)
- **dictator** *n*. in ancient Rome, a political leader given absolute power to make laws and command the army for a limited time. (p. 157)
- **direct democracy** *n*. a government in which citizens rule directly rather than through representatives. (p. 135)
- **dissident** [DIHS•ih•duhnt] *n*. an opponent of a government's policies or actions. (p. 1042)
- **divine right** *n*. the idea that monarchs are God's representatives on earth and are therefore answerable only to God. (p. 594)
- **domestication** *n*. the taming of animals for human use. (p. 16)
- **dominion** *n*. in the British Empire, a nation (such as Canada) allowed to govern its own domestic affairs. (p. 752)

- **domino theory** *n*. the idea that if a nation falls under Communist control, nearby nations will also fall under Communist control. (p. 978)
- **Dorians** [DAWR•ee•uhnz] *n.* a Greek-speaking people that, according to tradition, migrated into mainland Greece after the destruction of the Mycenaean civilization. (p. 125)
- **Dreyfus** [DRY•fuhs] **affair** *n*. a controversy in France in the 1890s, centering on the trial and imprisonment of a Jewish army officer, Captain Alfred Dreyfus, who had been falsely accused of selling military secrets to Germany. (p. 749)
- **Dutch East India Company** *n*. a company founded by the Dutch in the early 17th century to establish and direct trade throughout Asia. (p. 534)
- **dynastic** [dy•NAS•tihk] **cycle** *n*. the historical pattern of the rise, decline, and replacement of dynasties. (p. 54)
- **dynasty** [DY•nuh•stee] *n*. a series of rulers from a single family. (p. 31)
- **Eastern Front** *n*. in World War I, the region along the German-Russian border where Russians and Serbs battled Germans, Austrians, and Turks. (p. 848)
- **Edict of Nantes** [EE•DIHKT uhv NAHNT] *n.* a 1598 declaration in which the French king Henry IV promised that Protestants could live in peace in France and could set up houses of worship in some French cities. (p. 596)
- **Emancipation Proclamation** [ih•MAN•suh•PAY•shuhn PRAHK•luh•MAY•shuhn] *n.* a declaration issued by U.S. president Abraham Lincoln in 1863, stating that all slaves in the Confederate states were free. (p. 760)
- **emerging nation** *n*. a nation in which the process of industrialization is not yet complete. (p. 1075)
- **émigré** [EHM•ih•GRAY] *n*. a person who leaves their native country for political reasons, like the nobles and others who fled France during the peasant uprisings of the French Revolution. (p. 658)
- **empire** *n*. a political unit in which a number of peoples or countries are controlled by a single ruler. (p. 33)
- **enclosure** *n*. one of the fenced-in or hedged-in fields created by wealthy British landowners on land that was formerly worked by village farmers. (p. 717)
- **encomienda** [ehng•kaw•MYEHN•dah] *n*. a grant of land made by Spain to a settler in the Americas, including the right to use Native Americans as laborers on it. (p. 557)
- **English Civil War** *n.* a conflict, lasting from 1642 to 1649, in which Puritan supporters of Parliament battled supporters of England's monarchy. (p. 615)
- **enlightened despot** [DEHS•puht] *n*. one of the 18th-century European monarchs who was inspired by Enlightenment ideas to rule justly and respect the rights of subjects. (p. 638)
- **enlightenment** [ehn•LYT•uhn•muhnt] *n*. in Buddhism, a state of perfect wisdom in which one understands basic truths about the universe. (p. 68)
- **Enlightenment** *n.* an 18th-century European movement in which thinkers attempted to apply the principles of reason and the scientific method to all aspects of society. (p. 629)

- **entrepreneur** [AHN•truh•pruh•NUR] *n*. a person who organizes, manages, and takes on the risks of a business. (p. 721)
- **epic** *n*. a long narrative poem celebrating the deeds of legendary or traditional heroes. (p. 125)
- estate [ih•STAYT] n. one of the three social classes in France before the French Revolution—the First Estate consisting of the clergy; the Second Estate, of the nobility; and the Third Estate, of the rest of the population. (p. 651)
- **Estates-General** [ih•STAYTS•JEHN•uhr•uhl] *n*. an assembly of representatives from all three of the estates, or social classes, in France. (pp. 397, 653)
- **ethnic cleansing** *n*. a policy of murder and other acts of brutality by which Serbs hoped to eliminate Bosnia's Muslim population after the breakup of Yugoslavia. (p. 1056)
- **excommunication** [EHKS•kuh•MYOO•nih•KAY•shuhn] *n*. the taking away of a person's right of membership in a Christian church. (p. 306)
- existentialism [EHG*zih*STEHN*shuh*LIHZ*uhm] n. a philosophy based on the idea that people give meaning to their lives through their choices and actions. (p. 899)
- **extraterritorial** [EHK•struh•TEHR•ih•TAWR•ee•uhl] **rights** *n*. an exemption of foreign residents from the laws of a country. (p. 806)
- **factors of production** *n*. the resources—including land, labor, and capital—that are needed to produce goods and services. (p. 718)
- **factory** *n*. a large building in which machinery is used to manufacture goods. (p. 720)
- **fascism** [FASH•IHZ•uhm] *n*. a political movement that promotes an extreme form of nationalism, a denial of individual rights, and a dictatorial one-party rule. (p. 910)
- **Fatimid** [FAT•uh•MIHD] *n*. a member of a Muslim dynasty that traced its ancestry to Muhammad's daughter Fatima and that built an empire in North Africa, Arabia, and Syria in the 10th–12th centuries. (p. 272)
- **favorable balance of trade** *n*. an economic situation in which a country sells more goods abroad than it buys from abroad. (p. 575)
- **federal system** *n.* a system of government in which power is divided between a central authority and a number of individual states. (pp. 645, 1041)
- **Fertile Crescent** [FUHR•tuhl KREHS•uhnt] *n.* an arc of rich farmland in Southwest Asia, between the Persian Gulf and the Mediterranean Sea. (p. 29)
- **feudalism** [FYOOD•uhl•IHZ•uhm] *n.* a political system in which nobles are granted the use of lands that legally belong to their king, in exchange for their loyalty, military service, and protection of the people who live on the land. (p. 54)
- **fief** [feef] *n*. an estate granted to a vassal by a lord under the feudal system in medieval Europe. (p. 360)
- **filial piety** [FIHL•ee•uhl PY•ih•tee] *n.* respect shown by children for their parents and elders. (p. 104)

- **"Final Solution"** *n*. Hitler's program of systematically killing the entire Jewish people. (p. 937)
- **Five-Year Plans** *n*. plans outlined by Joseph Stalin in 1928 for the development of the Soviet Union's economy. (p. 877)
- **Four Modernizations** *n*. a set of goals adopted by the Chinese leader Deng Xiaoping in the late 20th century, involving progress in agriculture, industry, defense, and science and technology. (p. 1060)
- **Fourteen Points** *n*. a series of proposals in which U.S. president Woodrow Wilson outlined a plan for achieving a lasting peace after World War I. (p. 858)
- **Franks** *n*. a Germanic people who settled in the Roman province of Gaul (roughly the area now occupied by France) and established a great empire during the Middle Ages. (p. 354)
- **free trade** *n.* commerce between nations without economic restrictions or barriers (such as tariffs). (p. 1076)
- **French and Indian War** *n*. a conflict between Britain and France for control of territory in North America, lasting from 1754 to 1763. (p. 564)
- **gender inequality** *n*. the difference between men and women in terms of wealth and status. (p. 1084)
- **genetic** [juh•NEHT•ihk] **engineering** *n*. the transferring of genes from one living thing to another in order to produce an organism with new traits. (p. 1073)
- **genocide** [JEHN•uh•SYD] *n*. the systematic killing of an entire people. (p. 937)
- **gentry** *n*. a class of powerful, well-to-do people who enjoy a high social status. (p. 327)
- **geocentric theory** *n*. in the Middle Ages, the earth-centered view of the universe in which scholars believed that the earth was an immovable object located at the center of the universe. (p. 623)
- **geopolitics** [JEE•oh•PAHL•ih•tihks] *n.* a foreign policy based on a consideration of the strategic locations or products of other lands. (p. 786)
- **Ghana** [GAH•nuh] *n*. a West African kingdom that grew rich from taxing and controlling trade and that established an empire in the 9th–11th centuries A.D. (p. 413)
- **ghazi** [GAH•zee] *n.* a warrior for Islam. (p. 507)
- **ghettos** [GEHT•ohz] *n.* city neighborhoods in which European Jews were forced to live. (p. 937)
- **glasnost** [GLAHS•nuhst] *n.* a Soviet policy of openness to the free flow of ideas and information, introduced in 1985 by Mikhail Gorbachev. (p. 1046)
- **global economy** *n*. all the financial interactions—involving people, businesses, and governments—that cross international boundaries. (p. 1076)
- **Glorious Revolution** *n*. the bloodless overthrow of the English king James II and his replacement by William and Mary. (p. 616)
- **glyph** [glihf] *n*. a symbolic picture—especially one used as part of a writing system for carving messages in stone. (p. 448)

- **Gothic** [GAHTH•ihk] *adj*. relating to a style of church architecture that developed in medieval Europe, featuring ribbed vaults, stained glass windows, flying buttresses, pointed arches, and tall spires. (p. 380)
- **Great Depression** *n*. the severe economic slump that followed the collapse of the U.S. stock market in 1929. (p. 907)
- **Great Fear** *n*. a wave of senseless panic that spread through the French countryside after the storming of the Bastille in 1789. (p. 655)
- **Great Purge** *n.* a campaign of terror in the Soviet Union during the 1930s, in which Joseph Stalin sought to eliminate all Communist Party members and other citizens who threatened his power. (p. 876)
- **Great Schism** [SIHZ•uhm] *n.* a division in the medieval Roman Catholic Church, during which rival popes were established in Avignon and in Rome. (p. 399)
- **Greco-Roman culture** *n.* an ancient culture that developed from a blending of Greek, Hellenistic, and Roman cultures. (p. 178)
- **green revolution** *n*. a 20th-century attempt to increase food resources worldwide, involving the use of fertilizers and pesticides and the development of disease-resistant crops. (p. 1074)
- **griot** [gree•OH] *n.* a West African storyteller. (p. 216)
- **guerrilla** [guh•RIHL•uh] *n*. a member of a loosely organized fighting force that makes surprise attacks on enemy troops occupying his or her country. (p. 669)
- **guild** [gihld] *n*. a medieval association of people working at the same occupation, which controlled its members' wages and prices. (p. 388)
- **guillotine** [GIHL•uh•TEEN] *n.* a machine for beheading people, used as a means of execution during the French Revolution. (p. 660)
- **Gupta** [GUP•tuh] **Empire** *n*. the second empire in India, founded by Chandra Gupta I in A.D. 320. (p. 191)
- **habeas corpus** [HAY•bee•uhs KAWR•puhs] *n.* a document requiring that a prisoner be brought before a court or judge so that it can be decided whether his or her imprisonment is legal. (p. 616)
- **Hagia Sophia** [HAY•ee•uh soh•FEE•uh] *n*. the Cathedral of Holy Wisdom in Constantinople, built by order of the Byzantine emperor Justinian. (p. 303)
- haiku [HY•koo] n. a Japanese form of poetry, consisting of three unrhymed lines of five, seven, and five syllables. (p. 545)
- **hajj** [haj] *n*. a pilgrimage to Mecca, performed as a duty by Muslims. (p. 267)
- **Han** [hahn] **Dynasty** *n*. a Chinese dynasty that ruled from 202 B.C. to A.D. 9 and again from A.D. 23 to 220. (p. 200)
- **Harappan civilization** *n*. another name for the Indus Valley civilization that arose along the Indus River, possibly as early as 7000 B.C.; characterized by sophisticated city planning. (p. 46)
- **Hausa** [HOW•suh] *n*. a West African people who lived in several city-states in what is now northern Nigeria. (p. 417)

- **heliocentric** [HEE•lee•oh•SEHN•trihk] **theory** *n*. the idea that the earth and the other planets revolve around the sun. (p. 624)
- Hellenistic [HEHL•uh•NIHS•tihk] *adj*. relating to the civilization, language, art, science, and literature of the Greek world from the reign of Alexander the Great to the late second century B.C. (p. 146)
- **helot** [HEHL•uht] *n*. in the society of ancient Sparta, a peasant bound to the land. (p. 129)
- hieroglyphics [HY•uhr•uh•GLIHF•ihks] *n.* an ancient Egyptian writing system in which pictures were used to represent ideas and sounds. (p. 40)
- **Hijrah** [HIHJ•ruh] *n.* Muhammad's migration from Mecca to Yathrib (Medina) in A.D. 622. (p. 265)
- **Hittites** [HIHT•YTS] *n*. an Indo-European people who settled in Anatolia around 2000 B.C. (p. 62)
- **Holocaust** [HAHL•uh•KAWST] *n.* a mass slaughter of Jews and other civilians, carried out by the Nazi government of Germany before and during World War II. (p. 936)
- **Holy Alliance** *n*. a league of European nations formed by the leaders of Russia, Austria, and Prussia after the Congress of Vienna. (p. 674)
- **Holy Roman Empire** *n*. an empire established in Europe in the 10th century A.D., originally consisting mainly of lands in what is now Germany and Italy. (p. 371)
- **home rule** *n*. a control over internal matters granted to the residents of a region by a ruling government. (p. 754)
- **hominid** [HAHM•uh•nihd] *n*. a member of a biological group including human beings and related species that walk upright. (p. 7)
- **Homo sapiens** [HOH•moh SAY•pee•uhnz] *n.* the biological species to which modern human beings belong. (p. 8)
- **House of Wisdom** *n*. a center of learning established in Baghdad in the 800s. (p. 276)
- humanism [HYOO•muh•NIHZ•uhm] n. a Renaissance intellectual movement in which thinkers studied classical texts and focused on human potential and achievements. (p. 472)
- **Hundred Days** *n*. the brief period during 1815 when Napoleon made his last bid for power, deposing the French king and again becoming emperor of France. (p. 671)
- **Hundred Years' War** *n*. a conflict in which England and France battled on French soil on and off from 1337 to 1453. (p. 401)
- **hunter-gatherer** *n*. a member of a nomadic group whose food supply depends on hunting animals and collecting plant foods. (p. 14)
- **Hyksos** [HIHK•sohs] *n.* a group of nomadic invaders from Southwest Asia who ruled Egypt from 1640 to 1570 B.C. (p. 89)
- **Ice Age** *n.* a cold period in which huge ice sheets spread outward from the polar regions, the last one of which lasted from about 1,900,000 to 10,000 B.C. (p. 235)
- **I Ching** [ee jihng] *n.* a Chinese book of oracles, consulted to answer ethical and practical problems. (p. 107)
- icon [EYE•KAHN] *n*. a religious image used by eastern Christians. (p. 306)

- **imperialism** [ihm•PEER•ee•uh•LIHZ•uhm] *n.* a policy in which a strong nation seeks to dominate other countries politically, economically, or socially. (p. 773)
- **impressionism** [ihm•PREHSH•uh•NIHZ•uhm] *n*. a movement in 19th-century painting, in which artists reacted against realism by seeking to convey their impressions of subjects or moments in time. (p. 701)
- **Indo-Europeans** [IHN•doh•YUR•uh•PEE•uhnz] *n.* a group of seminomadic peoples who, about 1700 B.C., began to migrate from what is now southern Russia to the Indian subcontinent, Europe, and Southwest Asia. (p. 61)
- **indulgence** [ihn•DUHL•juhns] *n.* a pardon releasing a person from punishments due for a sin. (p. 489)
- **industrialization** [ihn•DUHS•tree•uh•lih•ZAY•shuhn] *n*. the development of industries for the machine production of goods. (p. 718)
- **Industrial Revolution** *n*. the shift, beginning in England during the 18th century, from making goods by hand to making them by machine. (p. 717)
- **inflation** *n*. a decline in the value of money, accompanied by a rise in the prices of goods and services. (p. 173)
- **Inquisition** [IHN•kwih•ZIHSH•uhn] *n*. a Roman Catholic tribunal for investigating and prosecuting charges of heresy—especially the one active in Spain during the 1400s. (p. 384)
- **institution** *n*. a long-lasting pattern of organization in a community. (p. 20)
- **intendant** [ihn•TEHN•duhnt] *n*. a French government official appointed by the monarch to collect taxes and administer justice. (p. 598)
- **International Space Station** *n*. cooperative venture sponsored by the United States, Russia, and 14 other nations to establish and maintain a working laboratory for scientific experimentation in space. (p. 1071)
- **Internet** *n*. a linkage of computer networks that enables people around the world to exchange information and communicate with one another. (p. 1073)
- intifada n. literally, "shaking off"; Palestinian campaigns of violence and non-violent resistance against Israel.
 Violence during the 1980s intifada targeted the Israeli army; violence during the 2000s intifada targeted Israeli civilians. (p. 1021)
- **Irish Republican Army (IRA)** *n*. an unofficial nationalist military force seeking independence for Ireland from Great Britain. (p. 755)
- **iron curtain** *n*. during the Cold War, the boundary separating the Communist nations of Eastern Europe from the mostly democratic nations of Western Europe. (p. 967)
- **Iroquois** [IHR•uh•kwoy] *n.* a group of Native American peoples who spoke related languages, lived in the eastern Great Lakes region of North America, and formed an alliance in the late 1500s. (p. 444)
- **Islam** [ihs•LAHM] *n.* a monotheistic religion that developed in Arabia in the seventh century A.D. (p. 265)
- **isolationism** *n*. a policy of avoiding political or military involvement with other countries. (p. 918)
- **Israel** [IHZ•ree•uhl] *n*. a kingdom of the united Israelites lasting from about 1020 to 922 B.C.; later, the northernmost of the two Israelite kingdoms; now, the Jewish nation that was established in the ancient homeland in 1948. (p. 81)

- **Jainism** [JY•NIHZ•uhm] *n.* a religion founded in India in the sixth century B.C., whose members believe that everything in the universe has a soul and therefore should not be harmed. (p. 67)
 - **janissary** [JAN•ih•sehr•ee] *n*. a member of an elite force of soldiers in the Ottoman Empire. (p. 510)
 - **jazz** *n*. a 20th-century style of popular music developed mainly by African-American musicians. (p. 899)
 - **Jesuits** [JEHZH•oo•ihts] *n*. members of the Society of Jesus, a Roman Catholic religious order founded by Ignatius of Loyola. (p. 499)
 - **"jewel in the crown"** *n.* the British colony of India—so called because of its importance in the British Empire, both as a supplier of raw materials and as a market for British trade goods. (p. 791)
 - **joint-stock company** *n*. a business in which investors pool their wealth for a common purpose, then share the profits. (p. 573)
 - **Judah** [JOO•duh] *n.* an Israelite kingdom in Canaan, established around 922 B.C. (p. 81)
 - **Justinian** [juh•STIHN•ee•uhn] **Code** *n*. the body of Roman civil law collected and organized by order of the Byzantine emperor Justinian around A.D. 534. (p. 302)
 - **kabuki** [kuh•BOO•kee] *n*. a type of Japanese drama in which music, dance, and mime are used to present stories. (p. 545)
 - **kaiser** [KY•zuhr] *n.* a German emperor (from the Roman title *Caesar*). (p. 697)
 - **kamikaze** [KAH•mih•KAH•zee] *n.* during World War II, Japanese suicide pilots trained to sink Allied ships by crashing bomb-filled planes into them. (p. 945)
 - **karma** [KAHR•muh] *n*. in Hinduism and Buddhism, the totality of the good and bad deeds performed by a person, which is believed to determine his or her fate after rebirth. (p. 67)
 - **Khmer** [kmair] **Empire** *n*. a Southeast Asian empire, centered in what is now Cambodia, that reached its peak of power around A.D. 1200. (p. 345)
 - **Khmer Rouge** [roozh] *n.* a group of Communist rebels who seized power in Cambodia in 1975. (p. 981)
 - **knight** *n*. in medieval Europe, an armored warrior who fought on horseback. (p. 360)
 - **Koryu** [KAWR•yoo] **Dynasty** *n*. a dynasty that ruled Korea from A.D. 935 to 1392. (p. 347)
 - Kristallnacht [krih•STAHL•NAHKT] n. "Night of Broken Glass"—the night of November 9, 1938, on which Nazi storm troopers attacked Jewish homes, businesses, and synagogues throughout Germany. (p. 936)
 - **Kuomintang** [KWOH•mihn•TANG] *n.* the Chinese Nationalist Party, formed in 1912. (p. 882)
 - **Kush** [kuhsh] *n*. an ancient Nubian kingdom whose rulers controlled Egypt between 2000 and 1000 B.C. (p. 92)

- **laissez faire** [LEHS•ay FAIR] *n*. the idea that government should not interfere with or regulate industries and businesses. (p. 734)
- **land reform** *n*. a redistribution of farmland by breaking up large estates and giving the resulting smaller farms to peasants. (p. 1034)
- **La Reforma** [lah reh•FAWR•mah] *n*. a liberal reform movement in 19th-century Mexico, led by Benito Juárez. (p. 824)
- **lay investiture** [ihn•VEHS•tuh•chur] *n*. the appointment of religious officials by kings or nobles. (p. 372)
- **League of Nations** *n*. an international association formed after World War I with the goal of keeping peace among nations. (p. 859)
- **lebensraum** [LAY•buhns•ROWM] n. "living space"—the additional territory that, according to Adolf Hitler, Germany needed because it was overcrowded. (p. 912)
- **Legalism** *n*. a Chinese political philosophy based on the idea that a highly efficient and powerful government is the key to social order. (p. 106)
- **legion** *n*. a military unit of the ancient Roman army, made up of about 5,000 foot soldiers and a group of soldiers on horseback. (p. 157)
- **Legislative** [LEHJ•ih•SLAY•tihv] **Assembly** *n*. a French congress with the power to create laws and approve declarations of war, established by the Constitution of 1791. (p. 657)
- **legitimacy** [luh•JIHT•uh•muh•see] *n*. the hereditary right of a monarch to rule. (p. 673)
- **liberal** *n*. in the first half of the 19th century, a European—usually a middle-class business leader or merchant—who wanted to give more political power to elected parliaments. (p. 687)
- **lineage** [LIHN•ee•ihj] *n*. the people who are descended from a common ancestor. (p. 410)
- **loess** [LOH•uhs] *n.* a fertile deposit of windblown soil. (p. 50)
- **Long March** *n.* a 6,000-mile journey made in 1934–1935 by Chinese Communists fleeing from Jiang Jieshi's Nationalist forces. (p. 886)
- **lord** *n*. in feudal Europe, a person who controlled land and could therefore grant estates to vassals. (p. 360)
- **Lutheran** [LOO•thuhr•uhn] *n*. a member of a Protestant church founded on the teachings of Martin Luther. (p. 490)
- **lycée** [lee•SAY] *n*. a government-run public school in France. (p. 664)
- **Macedonia** [MAS•ih•DOH•nee•uh] *n*. an ancient kingdom north of Greece, whose ruler Philip II conquered Greece in 338 B.C. (p. 142)
- Maghrib [MUHG•ruhb] n. a region of western North Africa, consisting of the Mediterranean coastlands of what is now Morocco, Tunisia, and Algeria. (p. 410)

- Magna Carta [MAG•nuh KAHR•tuh] *n.* "Great Charter"—a document guaranteeing basic political rights in England, drawn up by nobles and approved by King John in A.D. 1215. (p. 394)
- **Mahabharata** [muh•huh•BAH•ruh•tuh] *n.* a great Indian epic poem, reflecting the struggles of the Aryans as they moved south into India. (p. 64)
- Mahayana [MAH•huh•YAH•nuh] n. a sect of Buddhism that offers salvation to all and allows popular worship. (p. 193)
- maize [mayz] n. a cultivated cereal grain that bears its kernels on large ears—usually called corn in the United States. (p. 238)
- Mali [MAH•lee] *n.* a West African empire that flourished from 1235 to the 1400s and grew rich from trade. (p. 415)
- **Manchus** [MAN•chooz] *n.* a people, native to Manchuria, who ruled China during the Qing Dynasty (1644–1912). (p. 539)
- **Mandate of Heaven** *n*. in Chinese history, the divine approval thought to be the basis of royal authority. (p. 54)
- manifest destiny n. the idea, popular among mid-19th-century Americans, that it was the right and the duty of the United States to rule North America from the Atlantic Ocean to the Pacific Ocean. (p. 758)
- **manor** *n*. a lord's estate in feudal Europe. (p. 360)
- **Maori** [MOW•ree] *n.* a member of a Polynesian people who settled in New Zealand around A.D. 800. (p. 752)
- **Marshall Plan** *n*. a U.S. program of economic aid to European countries to help them rebuild after World War II. (p. 968)
- **martial** [MAHR•shuhl] **law** *n*. a temporary rule by military authorities over a civilian population, usually imposed in times of war or civil unrest. (p. 1041)
- **mass culture** *n*. the production of works of art and entertainment designed to appeal to a large audience. (p. 766)
- **materialism** *n*. a placing of high value on acquiring material possessions. (p. 1096)
- matriarchal [MAY•tree•AHR•kuhl] *adj*. relating to a social system in which the mother is head of the family. (p. 192)
- **matrilineal** [MAT•ruh•LIHN•ee•uhl] adj. relating to a social system in which family descent and inheritance rights are traced through the mother. (p. 410)
- **Mauryan** [MAH•ur•yuhn] **Empire** *n*. the first empire in India, founded by Chandragupta Maurya in 321 B.C. (p. 189)
- **May Fourth Movement** *n*. a national protest in China in 1919, in which people demonstrated against the Treaty of Versailles and foreign interference. (p. 883)
- **Medes** [meedz] *n.* a Southwest Asian people who helped to destroy the Assyrian Empire. (p. 97)
- Meiji [MAY•JEE] era *n*. the period of Japanese history from 1867 to 1912, during which the country was ruled by Emperor Mutsuhito. (p. 811)
- **Mein Kampf** [MYN KAHMPF] n. "My Struggle"—a book written by Adolf Hitler during his imprisonment in 1923–1924, in which he set forth his beliefs and his goals for Germany. (p. 912)

- mercantilism [MUR•kuhn•tee•LIHZ•uhm] *n*. an economic policy under which nations sought to increase their wealth and power by obtaining large amounts of gold and silver and by selling more goods than they bought. (p. 574)
- **mercenary** [MUR•suh•NEHR•ee] *n.* a soldier who is paid to fight in a foreign army. (p. 173)
- Meroë [MEHR•oh•EE] *n.* center of the Kush dynasty from about 250 B.C. to A.D. 150; known for its manufacture of iron weapons and tools. (p. 94)
- **Mesoamerica** [MEHZ•oh•uh•MEHR•ih•kuh] *n*. an area extending from central Mexico to Honduras, where several of the ancient complex societies of the Americas developed. (p. 240)
- **mestizo** [mehs•TEE•zoh] *n.* a person of mixed Spanish and Native American ancestry. (p. 557)
- **Middle Ages** *n*. the era in European history that followed the fall of the Roman Empire, lasting from about 500 to 1500—also called the medieval period. (p. 353)
- **middle class** *n*. a social class made up of skilled workers, professionals, businesspeople, and wealthy farmers. (p. 725)
- **middle passage** *n*. the voyage that brought captured Africans to the West Indies, and later to North and South America, to be sold as slaves—so called because it was considered the middle leg of the triangular trade. (p. 569)
- **migration** *n*. the act of moving from one place to settle in another. (pp. 62, 220)
- militarism [MIHL•ih•tuh•RIHZ•uhm] *n*. a policy of glorifying military power and keeping a standing army always prepared for war. (p. 842)
- **Ming Dynasty** *n.* a Chinese dynasty that ruled from 1368 to 1644. (p. 536)
- **Minoans** [mih•NOH•uhnz] *n.* a seafaring and trading people that lived on the island of Crete from about 2000 to 1400 B.C. (p. 72)
- **Mississippian** [Mihs•ih•SIHP•ee•uhn] *adj.* relating to a Mound Builder culture that flourished in North America between A.D. 800 and 1500. (p. 443)
- **mita** [MEE•tuh] *n*. in the Inca Empire, the requirement that all able-bodied subjects work for the state a certain number of days each year. (p. 461)
- **Moche** [MOH•chay] *n*. a civilization that flourished on what is now the northern coast of Peru from about A.D. 100 to 700. (p. 247)
- **monarchy** [MAHN•uhr•kee] *n.* a government in which power is in the hands of a single person. (p. 127)
- monastery [MAHN•uh•stehr•ee] *n.* a religious community of men (called monks) who have given up their possessions to devote themselves to a life of prayer and worship. (p. 354)
- **monopoly** [muh•NAHP•uh•lee] *n*. a group's exclusive control over the production and distribution of certain goods. (p. 204)
- **monotheism** [MAHN•uh•thee•IHZ•uhm] *n*. a belief in a single god. (p. 78)
- **Monroe Doctrine** *n.* a U.S. policy of opposition to European interference in Latin America, announced by President James Monroe in 1823. (p. 818)
- **monsoon** [mahn•SOON] *n*. a wind that shifts in direction at certain times of each year. (p. 45)

- **mosque** [mahsk] *n*. an Islamic place of worship. (p. 267)
- **movable type** *n*. blocks of metal or wood, each bearing a single character, that can be arranged to make up a page for printing. (p. 325)
- **Mughal** [MOO•guhl] *n*. one of the nomads who invaded the Indian subcontinent in the 16th century and established a powerful empire there. (p. 516)
- **mujahideen** [moo•JAH•heh•DEEN] *n*. in Afghanistan, holy warriors who banded together to fight the Soviet-supported government in the late 1970s. (p. 1026)
- **mulattos** [mu•LAT•ohz] *n*. persons of mixed European and African ancestry. (p. 682)
- **mummification** [MUHM•uh•fih•KAY•shuhn] *n.* a process of embalming and drying corpses to prevent them from decaying. (p. 38)
- Munich [MYOO•nihk] Conference n. a 1938 meeting of representatives from Britain, France, Italy, and Germany, at which Britain and France agreed to allow Nazi Germany to annex part of Czechoslovakia in return for Adolf Hitler's pledge to respect Czechoslovakia's new borders. (p. 919)
- **Muslim** [MUHZ•luhm] *n.* a follower of Islam. (p. 265)
- **Muslim League** *n*. an organization formed in 1906 to protect the interests of India's Muslims, which later proposed that India be divided into separate Muslim and Hindu nations. (p. 997)
- **Mutapa** [moo•TAHP•uh] *adj*. relating to a southern African empire established by Mutota in the 15th century A.D. (p. 427)
- **Mycenaean** [MY•suh•NEE•uhn] *n*. an Indo-European person who settled on the Greek mainland around 2000 B.C. (p. 124)
- **myth** *n*. a traditional story about gods, ancestors, or heroes, told to explain the natural world or the customs and beliefs of a society. (p. 126)
- **Napoleonic** [nuh•POH•lee•AHN•ihk] **Code** *n*. a comprehensive and uniform system of laws established for France by Napoleon. (p. 664)
- **National Assembly** *n*. a French congress established by representatives of the Third Estate on June 17, 1789, to enact laws and reforms in the name of the French people. (p. 654)
- **nationalism** *n*. the belief that people should be loyal mainly to their nation—that is, to the people with whom they share a culture and history—rather than to a king or empire. (p. 687)
- **nation-state** *n*. an independent geopolitical unit of people having a common culture and identity. (p. 687)
- NATO [NAY•toh] *n*. the North Atlantic Treaty Organization—a defensive military alliance formed in 1949 by ten Western European nations, the United States, and Canada. (p. 969)
- Nazca [NAHS•kah] *n*. a civilization that flourished on what is now the southern coast of Peru from about 200 B.C. to A.D. 600. (p. 247)
- Nazism [NAHT*SIHZ*uhm] *n*. the fascist policies of the National Socialist German Workers' party, based on totalitarianism, a belief in racial superiority, and state control of industry. (p. 912)

- **Negritude** [NEE•grih•TOOD] **movement** *n*. a movement in which French-speaking Africans and West Indians celebrated their heritage of traditional African culture and values. (p. 1012)
- **neoclassical** [NEE•oh•KLAS•ih•kuhl] *adj.* relating to a simple, elegant style (based on ideas and themes from ancient Greece and Rome) that characterized the arts in Europe during the late 1700s. (p. 637)
- Neolithic [NEE*uh*LIHTH*ihk] Age n. a prehistoric period that began about 8000 B.C. and in some areas ended as early as 3000 B.C., during which people learned to polish stone tools, make pottery, grow crops, and raise animals—also called the New Stone Age. (p. 7)
- **Neolithic Revolution** *n*. the major change in human life caused by the beginnings of farming—that is, by people's shift from food gathering to food producing. (p. 15)
- **New Deal** *n.* U.S. president Franklin Roosevelt's economic reform program designed to solve the problems created by the Great Depression. (p. 909)
- **New Kingdom** *n*. the period of ancient Egyptian history that followed the overthrow of the Hyksos rulers, lasting from about 1570 to 1075 B.C. (p. 90)
- **nirvana** [neer•VAH•nuh] *n*. in Buddhism, the release from pain and suffering achieved after enlightenment. (p. 69)
- **Nok** [nahk] *n*. an African people who lived in what is now Nigeria between 500 B.C. and A.D. 200. (p. 217)
- **nomad** *n*. a member of a group that has no permanent home, wandering from place to place in search of food and water. (p. 14)
- **nonaggression** [NAHN•uh•GRESHS•uhn] **pact** *n*. an agreement in which nations promise not to attack one another. (p. 925)
- **nonaligned nations** *n*. the independent countries that remained neutral in the Cold War competition between the United States and the Soviet Union. (p. 982)
- Nuremberg [NUR•uhm•BURG] **Trials** *n.* a series of court proceedings held in Nuremberg, Germany, after World War II, in which Nazi leaders were tried for aggression, violations of the rules of war, and crimes against humanity. (p. 950)
- **obsidian** [ahb•SIHD•ee•uhn] *n*. a hard, glassy volcanic rock used by early peoples to make sharp weapons. (p. 453)
- **Old Regime** [ray•ZHEEM] *n*. the political and social system that existed in France before the French Revolution. (p. 651)
- **oligarchy** [AHL•ih•GAHR•kee] *n.* a government in which power is in the hands of a few people—especially one in which rule is based upon wealth. (p. 127)
- **Olmec** [AHL•mehk] *n.* the earliest-known Mesoamerican civilization, which flourished around 1200 B.C. and influenced later societies throughout the region. (p. 240)
- **Open Door Policy** *n.* a policy, proposed by the United States in 1899, under which all nations would have equal opportunities to trade in China. (p. 808)
- **Opium War** *n*. a conflict between Britain and China, lasting from 1839 to 1842, over Britain's opium trade in China. (p. 806)

- **oracle bone** *n*. one of the animal bones or tortoise shells used by ancient Chinese priests to communicate with the gods. (p. 53)
- **Oslo Peace Accords** *n*. an agreement in 1993 in which Israeli prime minister Rabin granted Palestinian self-rule in the Gaza Strip and the West Bank. (p. 1021)
- **ozone layer** *n*. a layer of Earth's upper atmosphere, which protects living things from the sun's damaging ultraviolet rays. (p. 1079)
- **Pacific Rim** *n*. the lands that border the Pacific Ocean—especially those in Asia. (p. 796)
- Paleolithic [PAY•lee•uh•LIHTH•ihk] **Age** *n*. a prehistoric period that lasted from about 2,500,000 to 8000 B.C., during which people made use of crude stone tools and weapons—also called the Old Stone Age. (p. 7)
- **Panama Canal** *n.* a human-made waterway connecting the Atlantic and Pacific oceans, built in Panama by the United States and opened in 1914. (p. 821)
- **papyrus** [puh•PY•ruhs] *n.* a tall reed that grows in the Nile delta, used by the ancient Egyptians to make a paperlike material for writing on. (p. 40)
- **parliament** [PAHR•luh•muhnt] *n.* a body of representatives that makes laws for a nation. (p. 395)
- **partition** *n*. a division into parts, like the 1947 division of the British colony of India into the two nations of India and Pakistan. (p. 998)
- **pastoralist** [PAS•tuhr•uh•lihst] *n*. a member of a nomadic group that herds domesticated animals. (p. 330)
- paternalism [puh•TUR•nuh•LIHZ•uhm] n. a policy of treating subject people as if they were children, providing for their needs but not giving them rights. (p. 781)
- **patriarch** [PAY•tree•AHRK] *n.* a principal bishop in the eastern branch of Christianity. (p. 306)
- **patriarchal** [PAY•tree•AHR•kuhl] *adj*. relating to a social system in which the father is head of the family. (p. 192)
- **patrician** [puh•TRIHSH•uhn] *n*. in ancient Rome, a member of the wealthy, privileged upper class. (p. 156)
- **patrilineal** [PAT•ruh•LIHN•ee•uhl] *adj*. relating to a social system in which family descent and inheritance rights are traced through the father. (p. 410)
- **patron** [PAY•truhn] *n*. a person who supports artists, especially financially. (p. 472)
- Pax Mongolica [paks mahng•GAHL•ih-kuh] *n.* the "Mongol Peace"—the period from the mid-1200s to the mid-1300s when the Mongols imposed stability and law and order across much of Eurasia. (p. 333)
- **Pax Romana** [PAHKS roh•MAH•nah] *n.* a period of peace and prosperity throughout the Roman Empire, lasting from 27 B.C. to A.D. 180. (p. 162)
- Peace of Augsburg [AWGZ•BURG] n. a 1555 agreement declaring that the religion of each German state would be decided by its ruler. (p. 492)
- Peloponnesian [PEHL*uh*puh*NEE*zhuhn] War n. a war, lasting from 431 to 404 B.C., in which Athens and its allies were defeated by Sparta and its allies. (p. 137)
- **penal** [PEE•nuhl] **colony** *n*. a colony to which convicts are sent as an alternative to prison. (p. 752)

- **peninsulares** [peh•neen•soo•LAH•rehs] *n*. in Spanish colonial society, colonists who were born in Spain. (p. 681)
- **Peninsular** [puh•NIHN•syuh•luhr] **War** *n*. a conflict, lasting from 1808 to 1813, in which Spanish rebels, with the aid of British forces, fought to drive Napoleon's French troops out of Spain. (p. 669)
- **perestroika** [PEHR•ih•STROY•kuh] *n*. a restructuring of the Soviet economy to permit more local decision making, begun by Mikhail Gorbachev in 1985. (p. 1047)
- **Persian Gulf War** *n*. a 1991 conflict in which UN forces defeated Iraqi forces that had invaded Kuwait and threatened to invade Saudi Arabia. (p. 1079)
- **Persian Wars** *n*. a series of wars in the fifth century B.C., in which Greek city-states battled the Persian Empire. (p. 131)
- **perspective** [puhr•SPEHK•tihv] *n*. an artistic technique that creates the appearance of three dimensions on a flat surface. (p. 474)
- **phalanx** [FAY•LANGKS] n. a military formation of foot soldiers armed with spears and shields. (p. 131)
- pharaoh [FAIR•oh] n. a king of ancient Egypt, considered a god as well as a political and military leader. (p. 37)
- **philosophe** [FIHL•uh•SAHF] *n*. one of a group of social thinkers in France during the Enlightenment. (p. 630)
- **philosopher** n. a thinker who uses logic and reason to investigate the nature of the universe, human society, and morality. (p. 138)
- **Phoenicians** [fih•NIHSH•uhnz] *n*. a seafaring people of Southwest Asia, who around 1100 B.C. began to trade and established colonies throughout the Mediterranean region. (p. 73)
- **Pilgrims** *n*. a group of people who, in 1620, founded the colony of Plymouth in Massachusetts to escape religious persecution in England. (p. 562)
- **plebeian** [plih*BEE*uhn] *n*. in ancient Rome, one of the common farmers, artisans, and merchants who made up most of the population. (p. 156)
- **plebiscite** [PLEHB•ih•SYT] *n*. a direct vote in which a country's people have the opportunity to approve or reject a proposal. (p. 664)
- **PLO** *n*. the Palestine Liberation Organization—dedicated to the establishment of an independent state for Palestinian Arabs and the elimination of Israel. (p. 1019)
- **polis** [POH•lihs] n. a Greek city-state—the fundamental political unit of ancient Greece after about 750 B.C. (p. 127)
- **Politburo** [PAHL•iht•BYOOR•oh] *n.* the ruling committee of the Communist Party in the Soviet Union. (p. 1046)
- **political dissent** *n*. the difference of opinion over political issues. (p. 1084)
- **polytheism** [PAHL•ee•thee•IHZ•uhm] *n.* a belief in many gods. (p. 31)
- **pope** *n*. the bishop of Rome, head of the Roman Catholic Church. (p. 171)
- **Popol Vuh** [POH•pohl VOO] *n.* a book containing a version of the Mayan story of creation. (p. 448)
- **popular culture** *n*. the cultural elements—sports, music, movies, clothing, and so forth—that reflect a group's common background and changing interests. (p. 1093)

- **potlatch** [PAHT•LACH] *n.* a ceremonial feast used to display rank and prosperity in some Northwest Coast tribes of Native Americans. (p. 441)
- **predestination** [pree•DEHS•tuh•NAY•shuhn] *n*. the doctrine that God has decided all things beforehand, including which people will be eternally saved. (p. 495)
- Presbyterian [PREHZ*bih*TEER*ee*uhn] n. a member of a Protestant church governed by presbyters (elders) and founded on the teachings of John Knox. (p. 496)
- **PRI** *n*. the Institutional Revolutionary Party—the main political party of Mexico. (p. 1037)
- **proletariat** [PROH•lih•TAIR•ee•iht] *n*. in Marxist theory, the group of workers who would overthrow the czar and come to rule Russia. (p. 868)
- **proliferation** [pruh*LIHF*uh*RAY*shuhn] n. a growth or spread—especially the spread of nuclear weapons to nations that do not currently have them. (p. 1083)
- **propaganda** [PRAHP•uh•GAN•duh] *n*. information or material spread to advance a cause or to damage an opponent's cause. (p. 854)
- **Protestant** [PRAHT•ih•stuhnt] *n*. a member of a Christian church founded on the principles of the Reformation. (p. 490)
- **provisional government** *n*. a temporary government. (p. 870)
- **psychology** [sy•KAHL•uh•jee] *n.* the study of the human mind and human behavior. (p. 766)
- **pueblo** [PWEHB•loh] *n*. a village of large apartment-like buildings made of clay and stone, built by the Anasazi and later peoples of the American Southwest. (p. 443)
- **Punic Wars** *n*. a series of three wars between Rome and Carthage (264–146 B.C.); resulted in the destruction of Carthage and Rome's dominance over the western Mediterranean. (p. 158)
- **Puritans** *n*. a group of people who sought freedom from religious persecution in England by founding a colony at Massachusetts Bay in the early 1600s. (p. 562)
- **push-pull factors** *n*. conditions that draw people to another location (pull factors) or cause people to leave their homelands and migrate to another region (push factors). (p. 220)
- **pyramid** [PIHR•uh•mihd] *n*. a massive structure with a rectangular base and four triangular sides, like those that were built in Egypt as burial places for Old Kingdom pharaohs. (p. 37)
- **Qin** [chihn] **Dynasty** *n*. a short-lived Chinese dynasty that replaced the Zhou Dynasty in the third century B.C. (p. 107)
- **Qing** [chihng] **Dynasty** *n*. China's last dynasty, which ruled from 1644 to 1912. (p. 539)
- Quetzalcoatl [keht•SAHL•koh•AHT•uhl] n. "the Feathered Serpent"—a god of the Toltecs and other Mesoamerican peoples. (p. 453)
- **quipu** [KEE•poo] *n.* an arrangement of knotted strings on a cord, used by the Inca to record numerical information. (p. 461)
- **Qur'an** [kuh•RAN] *n*. the holy book of Islam. (p. 267)

- racism [RAY•SIHZ•uhm] *n*. the belief that one race is superior to others. (p. 775)
- **radical** *n*. in the first half of the 19th century, a European who favored drastic change to extend democracy to all people. (p. 687)
- **radioactivity** *n*. a form of energy released as atoms decay. (p. 765)
- **Raj** [rahj] *n*. the British-controlled portions of India in the years 1757–1947. (p. 794)
- **rationing** [RASH•uh•nihng] *n*. the limiting of the amounts of goods people can buy—often imposed by governments during wartime, when goods are in short supply. (p. 854)
- **realism** *n*. a 19th-century artistic movement in which writers and painters sought to show life as it is rather than life as it should be. (p. 700)
- **realpolitik** [ray•AHL•POH•lih•TEEK] *n*. "the politics of reality"—the practice of tough power politics without room for idealism. (p. 695)
- **recession** *n*. a slowdown in a nation's economy. (p. 1034)
- **Reconquista** [reh•kawn•KEES•tah] *n*. the effort by Christian leaders to drive the Muslims out of Spain, lasting from the 1100s until 1492. (p. 384)
- **Red Guards** *n*. militia units formed by young Chinese people in 1966 in response to Mao Zedong's call for a social and cultural revolution. (p. 975)
- **Reformation** [REHF•uhr•MAY•shuhn] *n*. a 16th-century movement for religious reform, leading to the founding of Christian churches that rejected the pope's authority. (p. 489)
- **refugee** *n*. a person who leaves his or her country to move to another to find safety. (p. 1086)
- **Reign** [rayn] **of Terror** *n*. the period, from mid-1793 to mid-1794, when Maximilien Robespierre ruled France nearly as a dictator and thousands of political figures and ordinary citizens were executed. (p. 660)
- **reincarnation** [REE•ihn•kahr•NAY•shuhn] *n*. in Hinduism and Buddhism, the process by which a soul is reborn continuously until it achieves perfect understanding. (p. 67)
- **religious toleration** *n*. a recognition of people's right to hold differing religious beliefs. (p. 190)
- **Renaissance** [REHN•ih•SAHNS] *n.* a period of European history, lasting from about 1300 to 1600, during which renewed interest in classical culture led to far-reaching changes in art, learning, and views of the world. (p. 471)
- **republic** *n*. a form of government in which power is in the hands of representatives and leaders are elected by citizens who have the right to vote. (p. 156)
- **Restoration** [REHS•tuh•RAY•shuhn] *n*. the period of Charles II's rule over England, after the collapse of Oliver Cromwell's government. (p. 616)
- **reunification** [ree•Yoo•nuh•fih•KAY•shuhn] *n.* a bringing together again of things that have been separated, like the reuniting of East Germany and West Germany in 1990. (p. 1054)
- **romanticism** [roh•MAN•tih•siHz•uhm] *n.* an early-19th-century movement in art and thought, which focused on emotion and nature rather than reason and society. (p. 698)

- **Roosevelt Corollary** [ROH•zuh•VEHLT KAWR•uh•lehr•ee] *n.* President Theodore Roosevelt's 1904 extension of the Monroe Doctrine, in which he declared that the United States had the right to exercise "police power" throughout the Western Hemisphere. (p. 821)
- **Rowlatt Acts** *n*. laws passed in 1919 that allowed the British government in India to jail anti-British protesters without trial for as long as two years. (p. 887)
- **Royal Road** *n*. a road in the Persian Empire, stretching over 1,600 miles from Susa in Persia to Sardis in Anatolia. (p. 101)
- **Russification** [RUHS•uh•fih•KAY•shuhn] *n.* the process of forcing Russian culture on all ethnic groups in the Russian Empire. (p. 693)
- **Russo-Japanese War** *n.* a 1904–1905 conflict between Russia and Japan, sparked by the two countries' efforts to dominate Manchuria and Korea. (p. 812)
- **sacrament** [SAK•ruh•muhnt] *n*. one of the Christian ceremonies in which God's grace is transmitted to people. (p. 371)
 - **Safavid** [suh•FAH•VIHD] *n*. a member of a Shi'a Muslim dynasty that built an empire in Persia in the 16th–18th centuries. (p. 512)
 - **Sahel** [suh•HAYL] *n*. the African region along the southern border of the Sahara. (p. 213)
 - **salon** [suh•LAHN] *n*. a social gathering of intellectuals and artists, like those held in the homes of wealthy women in Paris and other European cities during the Enlightenment. (p. 636)
 - **SALT** *n*. the Strategic Arms Limitation Talks—a series of meetings in the 1970s, in which leaders of the United States and the Soviet Union agreed to limit their nations' stocks of nuclear weapons. (p. 989)
 - **Salt March** *n*. a peaceful protest against the Salt Acts in 1930 in India in which Mohandas Gandhi led his followers on a 240-mile walk to the sea, where they made their own salt from evaporated seawater. (p. 991)
 - **samurai** [SAM•uh•RY] *n*. one of the professional warriors who served Japanese feudal lords. (p. 343)
 - **sans-culottes** [SANS•kyoo•LAHTS] *n*. in the French Revolution, a radical group made up of Parisian wage-earners and small shopkeepers who wanted a greater voice in government, lower prices, and an end to food shortages. (p. 658)
 - **satrap** [SAY•TRAP] *n*. a governor of a province in the Persian Empire. (p. 101)
 - **savanna** [suh•VAN•uh] *n.* a flat, grassy plain. (p. 215)
 - **Schlieffen** [SHLEE•fuhn] **Plan** *n*. Germany's military plan at the outbreak of World War I, according to which German troops would rapidly defeat France and then move east to attack Russia. (p. 846)
 - **scholastics** [skuh•LAS•tihks] *n.* scholars who gathered and taught at medieval European universities. (p. 392)
 - **scientific method** *n*. a logical procedure for gathering information about the natural world, in which experimentation and observation are used to test hypotheses. (p. 625)

- **Scientific Revolution** *n*. a major change in European thought, starting in the mid-1500s, in which the study of the natural world began to be characterized by careful observation and the questioning of accepted beliefs. (p. 623)
- **scorched-earth policy** *n*. the practice of burning crops and killing livestock during wartime so that the enemy cannot live off the land. (p. 669)
- **scribe** *n*. one of the professional record keepers in early civilizations. (p. 20)
- **secede** [sih•SEED] *v*. to withdraw formally from an association or alliance. (p. 760)
- **secular** [SEHK•yuh•luhr] *adj*. concerned with worldly rather than spiritual matters. (pp. 355, 472)
- **segregation** [SEHG•rih•GAY•shuhn] *n.* the legal or social separation of people of different races. (p. 761)
- **self-determination** [SEHLF•dih•TUR•muh•NAY•shuhn] *n*. the freedom of a people to decide under what form of government they wish to live. (p. 858)
- **Seljuks** [SEHL•JOOKS] *n*. a Turkish group who migrated into the Abbasid Empire in the 10th century and established their own empire in the 11th century. (p. 315)
- **senate** *n*. in ancient Rome, the supreme governing body, originally made up only of aristocrats. (p. 157)
- **sepoy** [SEE•POY] *n.* an Indian soldier serving under British command. (p. 791)
- **Sepoy Mutiny** [MYOOT•uh•nee] *n*. an 1857 rebellion of Hindu and Muslim soldiers against the British in India. (p. 793)
- **serf** *n*. a medieval peasant legally bound to live on a lord's estate. (p. 360)
- **Seven Years' War** *n.* a conflict in Europe, North America, and India, lasting from 1756 to 1763, in which the forces of Britain and Prussia battled those of Austria, France, Russia, and other countries. (p. 607)
- **shah** [shah] *n*. hereditary monarch of Iran. (p. 514)
- **shari'a** [shah•REE•ah] *n*. a body of law governing the lives of Muslims. (p. 268)
- **Shi'a** [SHEE•uh] *n*. the branch of Islam whose members acknowledge Ali and his descendants as the rightful successors of Muhammad. (p. 271)
- **Shinto** [SHIHN•toh] *n.* the native religion of Japan. (p. 339)
- **Shiva** [SHEE•vuh] *n.* a Hindu god considered the destroyer of the world. (p. 194)
- "shock therapy" n. an economic program implemented in Russia by Boris Yeltsin in the 1990s, involving an abrupt shift from a command economy to a free-market economy. (p. 1050)
- **shogun** [SHOH•guhn] *n*. in feudal Japan, a supreme military commander who ruled in the name of the emperor. (p. 343)
- **Sikh** [seek] *n*. a member of a nonviolent religious group whose beliefs blend elements of Buddhism, Hinduism, and Sufism. (p. 519)
- **Silk Roads** *n.* a system of ancient caravan routes across Central Asia, along which traders carried silk and other trade goods. (p. 196)
- **simony** [SY•muh•nee] *n*. the selling or buying of a position in a Christian church. (p. 379)

- **skepticism** [SKEHP•tih•siHz•uhm] *n.* a philosophy based on the idea that nothing can be known for certain. (p. 597)
- **slash-and-burn farming** *n*. a farming method in which people clear fields by cutting and burning trees and grasses, the ashes of which serve to fertilize the soil. (p. 15)
- **Slavs** [slahvz] *n*. a people from the forests north of the Black Sea, ancestors of many peoples in Eastern Europe today. (p. 307)
- **social contract** *n*. the agreement by which people define and limit their individual rights, thus creating an organized society or government. (p. 629)
- **Social Darwinism** [DAHR•wih•NIHZ•uhm] *n*. the application of Charles Darwin's ideas about evolution and "survival of the fittest" to human societies—particularly as justification for imperialist expansion. (p. 775)
- **socialism** *n*. an economic system in which the factors of production are owned by the public and operate for the welfare of all. (p. 736)
- **Solidarity** [SAHL•ih•DAR•ih•tee] *n.* a Polish labor union that during the 1980s became the main force of opposition to Communist rule in Poland. (p. 1052)
- **Songhai** [SAWNG•HY] *n.* a West African empire that conquered Mali and controlled trade from the 1400s to 1591. (p. 417)
- **soviet** [SOH•vee•EHT] *n*. one of the local representative councils formed in Russia after the downfall of Czar Nicholas II. (p. 870)
- **Spanish-American War** *n*. an 1898 conflict between the United States and Spain, in which the United States supported Cubans' fight for independence. (p. 818)
- **specialization** *n*. the development of skills in a particular kind of work, such as trading or record keeping. (p. 20)
- **sphere of influence** *n*. a foreign region in which a nation has control over trade and other economic activities. (p. 807)
- **standard of living** *n*. the quality of life of a person or a population, as indicated by the goods, services, and luxuries available to the person or people. (p. 1034)
- **stateless societies** *n.* cultural groups in which authority is shared by lineages of equal power instead of being exercised by a central government. (p. 410)
- **steppes** [stehps] *n*. dry, grass-covered plains. (p. 61)
- **strike** *v*. to refuse to work in order to force an employer to meet certain demands. (p. 738)
- **stupa** [STOO-puh] *n.* mounded stone structures built over Buddhist holy relics. (p. 193)
- **subcontinent** *n*. a large landmass that forms a distinct part of a continent. (p. 44)
- Suez [soo•EHZ] Canal n. a human-made waterway, which was opened in 1869, connecting the Red Sea and the Mediterranean Sea. (p. 788)
- **suffrage** [SUHF•rihj] *n*. the right to vote. (p. 747)
- **Sufi** [SOO•fee] *n*. a Muslim who seeks to achieve direct contact with God through mystical means. (p. 271)
- **sultan** *n*. "overlord," or "one with power"; title for Ottoman rulers during the rise of the Ottoman Empire. (p. 507)
- **Sunna** [SOON•uh] *n*. an Islamic model for living, based on the life and teachings of Muhammad. (p. 268)

- **Sunni** [SOON•ee] *n*. the branch of Islam whose members acknowledge the first four caliphs as the rightful successors of Muhammad. (p. 271)
- **surrealism** [suh•REE•uh•LIHZ•uhm] *n.* a 20th-century artistic movement that focuses on the workings of the unconscious mind. (p. 899)
- **sustainable growth** *n*. economic development that meets people's needs but preserves the environment and conserves resources for future generations. (p. 1080)
- **Swahili** [swah•HEE•lee] *n.* an Arabic-influenced Bantu language that is spoken widely in eastern and central Africa. (p. 422)
- **Taiping** [ty•pihng] **Rebellion** *n*. a mid-19th century rebellion against the Qing Dynasty in China, led by Hong Xiuquan. (p. 807)
- **Taj Mahal** [TAHZH muh•HAHL] *n.* a beautiful tomb in Agra, India, built by the Mughal emperor Shah Jahan for his wife Mumtaz Mahal. (p. 519)
- **Taliban** *n*. conservative Islamic group that took control of Afghanistan after the Soviet Union withdrew its troops; driven from power by U.S. forces in December, 2001, because of its harboring of suspected terrorists. (p. 1026)
- **Tamil** [TAM•uhl] *n.* a language of southern India; also, the people who speak that language. (p. 191)
- **technology** *n*. the ways in which people apply knowledge, tools, and inventions to meet their needs. (p. 8)
- **Tennis Court Oath** *n*. a pledge made by the members of France's National Assembly in 1789, in which they vowed to continue meeting until they had drawn up a new constitution. (p. 654)
- **terraces** *n.* a new form of agriculture in Aksum, in which stepped ridges constructed on mountain slopes help retain water and reduce erosion. (p. 228)
- **terrorism** *n*. the use of force or threats to frighten people or governments to change their policies. (p. 1087)
- **theocracy** [thee•AHK•ruh•see] *n.* **1.** a government in which the ruler is viewed as a divine figure. (p. 37) **2.** a government controlled by religious leaders. (p. 496)
- **theory of evolution** *n*. the idea, proposed by Charles Darwin in 1859, that species of plants and animals arise by means of a process of natural selection. (p. 765)
- theory of relativity [REHL•uh•TIHV•ih•tee] n. Albert Einstein's ideas about the interrelationships between time and space and between energy and matter. (p. 897)
- **Theravada** [THEHR•uh•VAH•duh] *n*. a sect of Buddhism focusing on the strict spiritual discipline originally advocated by the Buddha. (p. 193)
- **Third Reich** [ryk] *n*. the Third German Empire, established by Adolf Hitler in the 1930s. (p. 918)
- **Third Republic** *n*. the republic that was established in France after the downfall of Napoleon III and ended with the German occupation of France during World War II. (p. 749)
- **Third World** *n*. during the Cold War, the developing nations not allied with either the United States or the Soviet Union. (p. 982)

- **Thirty Years' War** *n.* a European conflict over religion and territory and for power among ruling families, lasting from 1618 to 1648. (p. 603)
- **three-field system** *n*. a system of farming developed in medieval Europe, in which farmland was divided into three fields of equal size and each of these was successively planted with a winter crop, planted with a spring crop, and left unplanted. (p. 387)
- **Tiananmen** [tyahn•ahn•mehn] **Square** *n*. a huge public space in Beijing, China; in 1989, the site of a student uprising in support of democratic reforms. (p. 1061)
- **tithe** [tyth] *n*. a family's payment of one-tenth of its income to a church. (p. 363)
- **Tokugawa Shogunate** [TOH•koo•GAH•wah SHOH•guh•niht] *n*. a dynasty of shoguns that ruled a unified Japan from 1603 to 1867. (p. 544)
- **Torah** [TAWR•uh] *n*. the first five books of the Hebrew Bible—the most sacred writings in the Jewish tradition. (p. 77)
- **totalitarianism** [toh•TAL•ih•TAIR•ee•uh•NIHZ•uhm] *n*. government control over every aspect of public and private life. (p. 874)
- **total war** *n*. a conflict in which the participating countries devote all their resources to the war effort. (p. 853)
- **totem** [TOH•tuhm] *n*. an animal or other natural object that serves as a symbol of the unity of clans or other groups of people. (p. 445)
- **tournament** *n*. a mock battle between groups of knights. (p. 367)
- **tragedy** *n*. a serious form of drama dealing with the downfall of a heroic or noble character. (p. 136)
- **Treaty of Kanagawa** [kah•NAH•gah•wah] *n.* an 1854 agreement between the United States and Japan, which opened two Japanese ports to U.S. ships and allowed the United States to set up an embassy in Japan. (p. 810)
- **Treaty of Tordesillas** [TAWR•day•SEEL•yahs] *n.* a 1494 agreement between Portugal and Spain, declaring that newly discovered lands to the west of an imaginary line in the Atlantic Ocean would belong to Spain and newly discovered lands to the east of the line would belong to Portugal. (p. 533)
- **Treaty of Versailles** [vuhr•SY] *n*. the peace treaty signed by Germany and the Allied powers after World War I. (p. 858)
- **trench warfare** *n*. a form of warfare in which opposing armies fight each other from trenches dug in the battle-field. (p. 847)
- **triangular trade** *n*. the transatlantic trading network along which slaves and other goods were carried between Africa, England, Europe, the West Indies, and the colonies in the Americas. (p. 568)
- **tribune** [TRIHB•YOON] *n*. in ancient Rome, an official elected by the plebeians to protect their rights. (p. 156)
- **tribute** *n*. a payment made by a weaker power to a stronger power to obtain an assurance of peace and security. (p. 82)
- **Triple Alliance** *n.* **1.** an association of the city-states of Tenochtitlán, Texcoco, and Tlacopan, which led to the formation of the Aztec Empire (p. 454). **2.** a military alliance between Germany, Austria-Hungary, and Italy in the years preceding World War I. (p. 842)

- **Triple Entente** [ahn•TAHNT] *n*. a military alliance between Great Britain, France, and Russia in the years preceding World War I. (p. 843)
- **triumvirate** [try•UHM•vuhr•iht] *n*. in ancient Rome, a group of three leaders sharing control of the government. (p. 161)
- **Trojan War** *n*. a war, fought around 1200 B.C., in which an army led by Mycenaean kings attacked the independent trading city of Troy in Anatolia. (p. 125)
- **troubadour** [TROO•buh•DAWR] *n.* a medieval poet and musician who traveled from place to place, entertaining people with songs of courtly love. (p. 367)
- **Truman Doctrine** *n.* announced by President Harry Truman in 1947, a U.S. policy of giving economic and military aid to free nations threatened by internal or external opponents. (p. 968)
- **tyrant** [TY•ruhnt] *n*. in ancient Greece, a powerful individual who gained control of a city-state's government by appealing to the poor for support. (p. 127)
- Umayyads [oo•MY•adz] *n*. a dynasty that ruled the Muslim Empire from A.D. 661 to 750 and later established a kingdom in al-Andalus. (p. 271)
- **union** *n*. an association of workers, formed to bargain for better working conditions and higher wages. (p. 738)
- **United Nations** *n*. an international peacekeeping organization founded in 1945 to provide security to the nations of the world. (p. 966)
- **Universal Declaration of Human Rights** *n.* a 1948 statement in which the United Nations declared that all human beings have rights to life, liberty, and security. (p. 1084)
- **unrestricted submarine warfare** *n*. the use of submarines to sink without warning any ship (including neutral ships and unarmed passenger liners) found in an enemy's waters. (p. 852)
- **urbanization** [UR•buh•nih•ZAY•shuhn] *n*. the growth of cities and the migration of people into them. (p. 723)
- **U.S.A. Patriot Act** *n*. an antiterrorism bill of 2001 that strengthened governmental rights to detain foreigners suspected of terrorism and prosecute terrorist crimes. (p. 1092)
- **U.S. Civil War** *n*. a conflict between Northern and Southern states of the United States over the issue of slavery, lasting from 1861 to 1865. (p. 760)
- **utilitarianism** [yoo•TIHL•ih•TAIR•ee•uh•NIHZ•uhm] *n*. the theory, proposed by Jeremy Bentham in the late 1700s, that government actions are useful only if they promote the greatest good for the greatest number of people. (p. 735)
- **utopia** [yoo•TOH•pee•uh] *n*. an imaginary land described by Thomas More in his book *Utopia*—hence, an ideal place. (p. 482)
- **vassal** [VAS•uhl] *n*. in feudal Europe, a person who received a grant of land from a lord in exchange for a pledge of loyalty and services. (p. 360)
- **Vedas** [VAY•duhz] *n*. four collections of sacred writings produced by the Aryans during an early stage of their settlement in India. (p. 63)

- **vernacular** [vuhr•NAK•yuh•luhr] *n*. the everyday language of people in a region or country. (pp. 391, 475)
- Vietcong [vee*EHT*KAHNG] n. a group of Communist guerrillas who, with the help of North Vietnam, fought against the South Vietnamese government in the Vietnam War. (p. 980)
- **Vietnamization** [vee*EHT*nuh*mih*ZAY*shuhn] *n*. President Richard Nixon's strategy for ending U.S. involvement in the Vietnam War, involving a gradual withdrawal of American troops and replacement of them with South Vietnamese forces. (p. 980)
- **Vishnu** [VIHSH•noo] *n.* a Hindu god considered the preserver of the world. (p. 194)
- vizier [vih•ZEER] n. a prime minister in a Muslim kingdom or empire. (p. 315)
- War of the Spanish Succession *n*. a conflict, lasting from 1701 to 1713, in which a number of European states fought to prevent the Bourbon family from controlling Spain as well as France. (p. 601)
- **Warsaw Pact** *n*. a military alliance formed in 1955 by the Soviet Union and seven Eastern European countries. (p. 969)
- **Weimar** [WY•MAHR] **Republic** *n*. the republic that was established in Germany in 1919 and ended in 1933. (p. 905)
- **Western Front** *n*. in World War I, the region of northern France where the forces of the Allies and the Central Powers battled each other. (p. 846)
- **westernization** *n*. an adoption of the social, political, or economic institutions of Western—especially European or American—countries. (p. 610)
- **yin and yang** *n*. in Chinese thought, the two powers that govern the natural rhythms of life. (p. 107)
- **Yoruba** [YAWR•uh•buh] *n.* a West African people who formed several kingdoms in what is now Benin and southern Nigeria. (p. 418)
- **Zapotec** [ZAH•puh•TEHK] *n*. an early Mesoamerican civilization that was centered in the Oaxaca Valley of what is now Mexico. (p. 242)
- **ziggurat** [ZIHG•uh•RAT] *n*. a tiered, pyramid-shaped structure that formed part of a Sumerian temple. (p. 23)
- **Zionism** [ZY•uh•NIHZ•uhm] *n*. a movement founded in the 1890s to promote Jewish self-determination and the establishment of a Jewish state in the ancient Jewish homeland. (p. 750)

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- Abbasids [abasidas] s. dinastía que gobernó gran parte del imperio musulmán entre 750 y 1258 d.C. (pág. 271)
- **Aborigine** [aborigen] s. miembro de cualquiera de los pueblos nativos de Australia. (pág. 752)
- absolute monarch [monarca absoluto] s. rey o reina que tiene poder ilimitado y que procura controlar todos los aspectos de la sociedad. (pág. 594)
- **acropolis** [acrópolis] s. cima fortificada de las antiguas ciudades griegas. (pág. 127)
- **Aksum** s. reino africano en lo que hoy es Etiopía y Eritrea, que alcanzó su mayor auge en el siglo 4. (pág. 225)
- **al-Andalus** s. región gobernada por los musulmanes en lo que hoy es España, establecida en el siglo 8 d.C. (pág. 271)
- **Allah** [Alah] s. Dios (palabra árabe usada en el islamismo). (pág. 264)
- **Allies** [Aliados] s. durante la I Guerra Mundial, las naciones de Gran Bretaña, Francia y Rusia, junto con otras que lucharon a su lado; también, el grupo de naciones ellas Gran Bretaña, la Unión Soviética y Estados Unidos— opuestas a las Potencias del Éje en la II Guerra Mundial. (pág. 845)
- **Almohads** [almohades] s. grupo de reformadores islámicos que tumbaron la dinastía de los almorávides y que establecieron un imperio en el norte de África y en el sur de España en el siglo 12 d.C. (pág. 412)
- **Almoravids** [almorávides] s. hermandad religiosa islámica que estableció un imperio en el norte de África y en el sur de España en el siglo 11 d.C. (pág. 412)
- **Amritsar Massacre** [Masacre de Amritsar] s. matanza por tropas británicas de casi 400 indios, reunidos en Amritsar para protestar contra las Leyes Rowlatt. (pág. 888)
- **Anabaptist** [anabaptista] s. en la Reforma, miembro de un grupo protestante que enseñaba que sólo los adultos podían ser bautizados, y que la Iglesia y el Estado debían estar separados. (pág. 496)
- **Anasazi** [anasazi] s. grupo amerindio que se estableció en el Suroeste de Norteamérica. (pág. 443)
- **Anatolia** s. península del suroeste de Asia actualmente ocupada por la parte asiática de Turquía; también llamada Asia Menor. (pág. 62)
- **Angkor Wat** s. templo construido en el imperio Khmer y dedicado al dios hindú Visnú. (pág. 345)
- **Anglican** [anglicano] *adj.* relacionado con la Iglesia de Inglaterra. (pág. 494)
- **animism** [animismo] s. creencia de que en los animales, las plantas y otros objetos naturales habitan espíritus. (pág. 216)
- **annexation** [anexión] s. añadir una región al territorio de una unidad política existente. (págs. 799, 813)
- **annul** [anular] v. cancelar o suspender. (pág. 492)
- **anti-Semitism** [antisemitismo] s.prejuicio contra los judíos. (pág. 749)
- **apartheid** s. política de Sudáfrica de separación total y legalizada de las razas; prohibía todo contacto social entre negros y blancos. (pág. 1043)
- **apostle** [apóstol] s. uno de los seguidores de Jesús que predicaba y difundía sus enseñanzas. (pág. 168)
- **appeasement** [apaciguamiento] s. otorgar concesiones a un agresor a fin de evitar la guerra. (pág. 917)

- **aqueduct** [acueducto] s. tubería o canal para llevar agua a zonas pobladas. (pág. 181)
- aristocracy [aristocracia] s. gobierno en que el poder está en manos de una clase dominante hereditaria o nobleza. (pág. 127)
- **armistice** [armisticio] s. acuerdo de suspender combates. (pág. 855)
- **artifact** [artefacto] s. objeto hecho por el ser humano, como herramientas, armas o joyas. (pág. 5)
- **artisan** [artesano] s. trabajador especializado, como hilandero o ceramista, que hace productos a mano. (pág. 20)
- **Aryans** [arios] s. **1.** pueblo indoeuropeo que, hacia 1500 a.C., comenzó a emigrar al subcontinente de India. (pág. 63). **2.** para los nazis, los pueblos germanos que formaban una "raza maestra". (pág. 936)
- **assembly line** [línea de montaje] s. en una fábrica, correa que lleva un producto de un trabajador a otro, cada uno de los cuales desempeña una sola tarea. (pág. 764)
- **assimilation** [asimilación] s. 1. adopción de la cultura del conquistador por un pueblo conquistado. (pág. 205). **2.** política de una nación de obligar o alentar a un pueblo subyugado a adoptar sus instituciones y costumbres. (pág. 781)
- **Assyria** [Asiria] s. reino del suroeste de Asia que controló un gran imperio de aproximadamente 850 a 612 a.C. (pág. 95)
- **Atlantic Charter** [Carta del Atlántico] s. declaración de principios emitida en agosto de 1941 por el primer ministro británico Winston Churchill y el presidente de E.U.A. Franklin Roosevelt, en la cual se basó el plan de paz de los Aliados al final de la II Guerra Mundial. (pág. 930)
- **Atlantic slave trade** [trata de esclavos del Atlántico] s. compra, transporte y venta de africanos para trabajar en las Américas. (pág. 567)
- autocracy [autocracia] s. gobierno en el cual el gobernante tiene poder ilimitado y lo usa de forma arbitraria. (pág. 109)
- **Axis Powers** [Potencias del Eje] s. en la II Guerra Mundial, las naciones de Alemania, Italia y Japón, que formaron una alianza en 1936. (pág. 917)
- **ayllu** s. en la sociedad inca, pequeña comunidad o clan cuyos miembros trabajaban conjuntamente para el bien común. (pág. 460)
- **balance of power** [equilibrio de poder] s. situación política en que ninguna nación tiene suficiente poder para ser una amenaza para las demás. (pág. 672)
- **the Balkans** [Balcanes] s. región del sureste de Europa ocupada actualmente por Grecia, Albania, Bulgaria, Rumania, la parte eureopea de Turquía y las antiguas repúblicas de Yugoslavia. (pág. 689)
- **Bantu-speaking peoples** [pueblos de habla bantú] s. hablantes de un grupo de lenguas relacionadas, que hace aproximadamente 2,000 años emigraron de África occidental a casi toda la mitad sur del continente. (pág. 222)
- **baroque** [barroco] s. estilo grandioso y ornamentado del arte, la música y la arquitectura a fines del siglo 17 y principios del 18. (pág. 637)
- **barter** [trueque] s. forma de comercio en la cual se intercambian productos y servicios sin dinero. (pág. 23)

- **Battle of Britain** [Batalla Británica] s. batallas entre las fuerzas aéreas de Alemania y Gran Bretaña que se libraron sobre el territorio británico entre 1940–1941. (pág. 928)
- **Battle of Guadalcanal** [Batalla de Guadalcanal] s. batalla de la II Guerra Mundial ocurrida en 1942-1943 en que las fuerzas aliadas expulsaron a las fuerzas japonesas de la isla de Guadalcanal en el Pacífico. (pág. 935)
- **Battle of Midway** [Batalla del Midway] s. batalla aérea y naval de la II Guerra Mundial librada en 1941 en que las fuerzas estadounidenses derrotaron a las japonesas en el Pacífico central. (pág. 934)
- **Battle of Stalingrad** [Batalla de Stalingrado] s. batalla de la II Guerra Mundial ocurrida en 1942–1943 en que las fuerzas alemanas perdieron y no lograron capturar la ciudad de Stalingrado en la Unión Soviética. (pág. 941)
- **Battle of the Bulge** [Batalla del Bolsón] s. batalla de 1944–45 en que las fuerzas aliadas repulsaron la última ofensiva alemana de envergadura en la II Guerra Mundial. (pág. 944)
- **Battle of Trafalgar** [Batalla de Trafalgar] s. batalla naval de 1805 en que las fuerzas de Napoleón fueron derrotadas por una flota inglesa al mando de Horacio Nelson. (pág. 667)
- **Benin** s. reino que surgió en el siglo 14 cerca del delta del río Níger y llegó a ser un gran Estado de África occidental en el siglo 15. (pág. 419)
- **Beringia** s. antiguo puente terrestre por el que se cree que los primeros habitantes de América migraron de Asia. (pág. 235)
- **Berlin Conference** [Conferencia de Berlín] de 1884 s. reunión de 1884–1885 en la cual representantes de las naciones europeas acordaron reglas para la colonización europea de Africa. (pág. 776)
- Bill of Rights [Carta de Derechos] s. primeras diez enmiendas a la Constitución de E.U.A., que protegen los derechos y libertades básicos de los ciudadanos. (pág. 645)
- **bishop** [obispo] s. autoridad eclesiástica cristiana que supervisa varias iglesias. (pág. 171)
- **blitzkrieg** s. "guerra relámpago"; táctica bélica de ataque sorpresa con aviones rápidos, seguidos de numerosas fuerzas de infantería. (pág. 925)
- **blockade** [bloqueo] s. desplazamiento de tropas o barcos para impedir para evitar la entrada o salida de todo tráfico comercial a una ciudad o región. (pág. 668)
- **Boer** [bóer] s. colono holandés que se estableció en Sudáfrica. (pág. 776)
- **Boer War** [Guerra de los Bóers] s. conflicto de 1899 a 1902 entre los bóers y los británicos por el control de territorio en Sudáfrica. (pág. 778)
- **Bolsheviks** [bolcheviques] s. grupo de marxistas revolucionarios rusos que tomó el control del gobierno ruso en noviembre de 1917. (pág. 868)
- **Boxer Rebellion** [Rebelión de los Bóxers] s. rebelión de 1900 en China contra la influencia extranjera en el país. (pág. 808)
- **boyar** [boyard] s. el noble terrateniente de Rusia. (pág. 608)
- **Brahma** s. dios hindú considerado creador del mundo. (pág. 194)
- **Brahmin** [brahamán] s. en la sociedad aria, miembro de la clase social formada por los sacerdotes. (pág. 63)

- **brinkmanship** [política arriesgada] s. política de amenazar con lanzarse a la guerra en respuesta a una agresión enemiga. (pág. 970)
- **Bronze Age** [Edad del Bronce] s. período de la historia humana, que comenzó aproximadamente en 3000 a.C. en algunas partes, en el cual se comenzó a usar el bronce, en vez del cobre o la piedra, para elaborar herramientas y armas. (pág. 21)
- **bubonic plague** [peste bubónica] s. enfermedad mortal que se extendió por Asia y Europa a mediados del siglo 14 y que cobró millones de víctimas. (pág. 399)
- **bureaucracy** [burocracia] s. sistema de departamentos y dependencias formado para realizar las labores del gobierno. (pág. 105)
- **burgher** [burgués] s. habitante de un pueblo medieval. (pág. 391)
- **Bushido** s. estricto código de conducta de los guerreros samurai en Japón. (pág. 343)
- **cabinet** [gabinete] s. grupo de asesores o ministros escogidos por el jefe de gobierno de un país para que participen en la toma de decisiones del gobierno. (pág. 617)
- **caliph** [califa] s. líder político y religioso supremo de un gobierno musulmán. (pág. 269)
- **calligraphy** [caligrafía] s. arte de escritura manuscrita.
- **Calvinism** [calvinismo] s. conjunto de enseñanzas religiosas basadas en las ideas del reformador Juan Calvino. (pág. 495)
- **Camp David Accords** [Acuerdos de Camp David] s. primer acuerdo firmado entre Israel y un país árabe, que luego derivó en el tratado de paz de 1979, en el que Egipto reconoció a Israel como un estado legítimo, e Israel acordó devolver la Península del Sinaí a Egipto. (pág. 1020)
- **canon law** [derecho canónico] s. conjunto de leyes que gobierna una iglesia cristiana. (pág. 371)
- **capitalism** [capitalismo] s. sistema económico basado en la propiedad privada y en la inversión de dinero en empresas comerciales con el objetivo de obtener ganancias. (págs. 573, 734)
- **Carolingian Dynasty** [dinastía carolingia] s. dinastía de los reyes francos que abarcó del 751 al 887 d.C. (pág.
- **caste** [casta] s. una de las cuatro clases del sistema social de los arios que se establecieron en India: sacerdotes, guerreros, campesinos o comerciantes, y trabajadores o artesanos no arios. (pág. 64)
- **Catholic Reformation** [Contrarreforma] s. movimiento del siglo 16 en el que la Iglesia Católica intentó reformarse en respuesta a la Reforma protestante. (pág. 498)
- **caudillo** s. dictador militar de un país latinoamericano. (pág. 816)
- **centralized government** [gobierno centralizado] s. gobierno en que el poder se concentra en una autoridad central a la cual se someten los gobiernos locales. (pág. 200)
- **Central Powers** [Potencias Centrales] s. en la I Guerra Mundial, las naciones de Alemania y Austro-Hungría, y las demás que lucharon a su lado. (pág. 845)
- **Chaldeans** [caldeos] s. pueblo del suroeste asiático que contribuyó a destruir el imperio asirio. (pág. 97)

- **Chartist movement** [movimiento cartista] s. movimiento de reforma inglés del siglo 19 en que miembros de la clase trabajadora pidieron reformas en el Parlamento y en las elecciones, como el voto para todos los hombres. (pág. 748)
- **Chavín** s. primera de las grandes civilizaciones de Suramérica, que floreció en las montañas de lo que hoy es Perú, aproximadamente de 900 a 200 a.C. (pág. 246)
- **checks and balances** [control y compensación de poderes] s. medidas para evitar que una rama del gobierno domine sobre las otras. (pág. 645)
- **chivalry** [caballería] s. código de conducta de los caballeros de la Europa medieval que exaltaba ideales como el valor, la lealtad y la dedicación. (pág. 365)
- **CIS** [CEI] s. Comunidad de Estados Independientes: asociación de los antiguos territorios soviéticos formada cuando la Unión Soviética se desmembró. (pág. 1049)
- **city-state** [ciudad Estado] s. ciudad y tierras de los alrededores que funcionaba como una unidad política independiente. (pág. 31)
- civil disobedience [desobediencia civil] s. negativa pública y deliberada a obedecer una ley considerada injusta. (pág. 888)
- **civilization** [civilización] s. forma de cultura que se caracteriza por tener ciudades, trabajadores especializados, instituciones complejas, un sistema de registro y tecnología avanzada. (pág. 20)
- **civil service** [servicio público] s. departamentos administrativos del gobierno, especialmente los que requieren a los candidatos a empleo pasar ciertos exámenes. (pág. 203)
- **civil war** [guerra civil] s. conflicto entre dos grupos políticos dentro de un mismo país. (pág. 161)
- **clan** s. grupo de descendientes de un antepasado común. (pág. 331)
- **classical art** [arte clásico] s. arte común de la antigua Grecia y Roma, que subraya la armonía, el orden y el equilibrio. (pág. 136)
- **clergy** [clero] s. conjunto de eclesiásticos que celebran servicios religiosos, como sacerdotes, ministros o rabinos. (pág. 370)
- **cloning** [clonación] s. creación de plantas o animales genéticamente idénticos a plantas o animales existentes. (pág. 1073)
- coalition government [gobierno de coalición] s. gobierno controlado por una alianza temporal de varios partidos políticos. (pág. 904)
- **codex** [códice] s. libro de páginas que se pueden pasar, como éste. (pág. 448)
- **Cold War** [Guerra Fría] s. estado de hostilidad diplomática entre Estados Unidos y la Unión Soviética en las décadas siguientes a la II Guerra Mundial. (pág. 969)
- **collective bargaining** [contrato colectivo] s. negociaciones entre trabajadores y patrones. (pág. 738)
- **collective farm** [granja colectiva] s. granja controlada por el gobierno, formada mediante la unión de muchas pequeñas granjas. (pág. 878)
- **colony** [colonia] s. tierra controlada por una nación distante. (pág. 554)
- **Colossus of Rhodes** [Coloso de Rodas] s. enorme estatua helénica que se ubicaba cerca del puerto de Rodas. (pág. 149)

- **Columbian Exchange** [trasferencia colombina] s. transferencia mundial de plantas, animales y enfermedades durante la colonización europea de América. (pág. 571)
- **comedy** [comedia] s. forma humorística de drama con payasadas y sátira. (pág. 136)
- **command economy** [economía de mando] s. sistema económico en el que el gobierno toma todas las decisiones económicas. (pág. 877)
- **Commercial Revolution** [Revolución Comercial] s. expansión del comercio y los negocios que transformó las economías europeas en los siglos 16 y 17. (pág. 389)
- **common law** [derecho consuetudinario] s. sistema de leyes desarrollado en Inglaterra, basado en costumbres y decisiones jurídicas anteriores. (pág. 394)
- **commune** [comuna] s. en la China comunista, granja colectiva en la que mucha gente trabaja y vive junta. (pág. 974)
- **communism** [comunismo] s. sistema económico en el que todos los medios de producción —tierras, minas, fábricas, ferrocarriles y negocios— son propiedad del pueblo, en que no existe la propiedad privada, y en que todos los productos y servicios se comparten por igual. (pág. 737)
- **Communist Party** [Partido Comunista] s. partido político basado en las ideas de Karl Marx y V. I. Lenin; originalmente el Partido Bolchevique ruso. (pág. 873)
- **Concert of Europe** [Concierto de Europa] s. serie de alianzas entre naciones europeas en el siglo 19, ideadas por el príncipe Klemens von Metternich para impedir revoluciones. (pág. 674)
- **concordat** [concordato] s. acuerdo firmado entre Napoleón y el Papa para establecer una nueva relación entre la Íglesia y el Estado. (pág. 664)
- **Congress of Vienna** [Congreso de Viena] s. serie de reuniones en 1814 y 1815 en las cuales los dirigentes europeos trataron de establecer una paz y seguridad duraderas tras la derrota de Napoleón. (pág. 672)
- **Congress Party** [Partido del Congreso] s. importante partido político nacional de India; también se llama Congreso Nacional de India. (pág. 997)
- **conquistadors** [conquistadores] s. soldados, exploradores y aventureros españoles que participaron en la conquista de América en el siglo 16. (pág. 554)
- **conservative** [conservadore] s. en la primera mitad del siglo 19, el europeo—principalmente los terratenientes y nobles acaudalados—que querían preservar las monarquías tradicionales. (pág. 687)
- **constitutional monarchy** [monarquía constitucional] s. monarquía en que el poder del gobernante está limitado por la ley. (pág. 617)
- **consul** [cónsul] s. en la república romana, uno de los dos poderosos funcionarios elegidos cada año para comandar el ejército y dirigir el gobierno. (pág. 157)
- **containment** [contención] s. política exterior estadounidense adoptada por el presidente Harry Truman a fines de la década de 1940 para impedir la expansión del comunismo creando alianzas con países débiles y ayudándolos a contener los avances soviéticos. (pág. 967)
- **Continental System** [Sistema Continental] s. política de Napoleón de impedir el comercio de Gran Bretaña con la Europa continental para destruir la economía británica.
- **corporation** [corporación] s. empresa de accionistas que comparten las ganancias pero que no son personalmente responsables de sus deudas. (pág. 731)

- **Council of Trent** [Concilio de Trento] s. reunión de líderes de la Iglesia Católica Romana, convocada por el papa Pablo III, para fallar sobre varias doctrinas criticadas por los reformadores protestantes. (pág. 499)
- **coup d'état** [golpe de Estado] s. toma repentina del poder político de una nación. (pág. 664)
- covenant [pacto] s. promesa o acuerdo mutuo, especialmente un acuerdo entre Dios y el pueblo hebreo, como los que registra la Biblia. (pág. 78)
- **creole** [criollo] s. en la sociedad española colonial, el colono nacido en Latinoamérica de padres españoles. (pág. 681)
- **Crimean War** [Guerra de Crimea] s. conflicto de 1853 a 1856, en el cual el imperio otomano, con ayuda de Gran Bretaña y Francia, frenó la expansión rusa en la región del mar Negro. (pág. 787)
- **crop rotation** [rotación de cultivos] s. sistema que cultiva distintos productos en un campo cada año para conservar la fertilidad de la tierra. (pág. 717)
- **Crusade** [cruzada] s. una de las expediciones de guerreros cristianos medievales para quitarle Jerusalén y la Tierra Santa a los musulmanes. (pág. 382)
- **cultural diffusion** [difusión cultural] s. proceso de difusión de ideas o productos de una cultura a otra. (pág. 31)
- **Cultural Revolution** [Revolución Cultural] s. levantamiento de 1966-1976 en China, encabezado por los Guardias Rojos de Mao Tsetung, con el propósito de establecer una sociedad de campesinos y trabajadores donde todos fue-ran iguales. (pág. 975)
- **culture** [cultura] s. forma distintiva de la vida de un pueblo, representada en sus herramientas, costumbres, artes y pensamiento. (pág. 5)
- **cuneiform** [cuneiforme] s. sistema de escritura que usa símbolos en forma de cuña inventado por los sumerios hacia 3000 a.C. (pág. 20)
- **cyberterrorism** [terrorismo cibernético] s. ataques por motivos políticos contra sistemas de tecnología informática. (pág. 1088)
- **Cyrillic alphabet** [alfabeto cirílico] s. alfabeto inventado en el siglo 9 por los santos Cirilo y Metodio para la escritura de los idiomas eslavos. (pág. 306)
- **czar** [zar] s. emperador ruso (de la palabra latina *Caesar*). (pág. 311)
- **daimyo** s. señor feudal de Japón que comandaba un ejército privado de samurais. (pág. 542)
- **Daoism** [taoísmo] s. filosofía basada en las ideas del pensador chino Laozi, quien enseñó a guiarse por una fuerza universal llamada Tao. (pág. 106)
- **D-Day** [Día D] s. 6 de junio de 1944; día elegido para la invasión aliada de Europa continental durante la II Guerra Mundial. (pág. 944)
- **Declaration of Independence** [Declaración de Independencia] s. declaración de las razones de la ruptura de las colonias americanas con Gran Bretaña, aprobada por el Segundo Congreso Continental. (pág. 641)
- **delta** s. zona pantanosa que se forma con los depósitos de légamo en la desembocadura de un río. (pág. 36)
- **demilitarization** [desmilitarización] s. reducción de la capacidad bélica de un país que se logra desbandando sus fuerzas armadas y prohibiéndole que adquiera armas. (pág. 950)

- **democracy** [democracia] s. gobierno controlado por sus ciudadanos, bien sea directa o indirectamente, por medio de sus representantes. (pág. 128)
- democratization [democratización] s. proceso de crear un gobierno elegido por el pueblo. (pág. 950)
- **Department of Homeland Security** [Departmento de la Seguridad del Territorio Nacional] s. agencia federal estadounidense creada en 2002 para coordinar una estrategia nacional integral contra el terrorismo. (pág. 1091)
- **détente** s. política de reducir las tensiones de la Guerra Fría, adoptada por Estados Unidos durante la presidencia de Richard Nixon. (pág. 990)
- **developed nation** [país desarrollado] s. nación con las instalaciones necesarias para la producción avanzada de productos manufacturados. (pág. 1075)
- **devshirme** s. en el imperio otomano, política de llevarse a los niños de los pueblos cristianos conquistados para entrenarlos como soldados musulmanes. (pág. 510)
- **Diaspora** [diáspora] s. dispersión de los judíos fuera de Palestina, especialmente en los más de 1800 años que siguieron a la destrucción romana del Templo de Jerusalén en 70 d.C. (pág. 170)
- **dictator** [dictador] s. en la antigua Roma, líder político con poder absoluto para decretar leyes y dirigir el ejército por un tiempo limitado. (pág. 157)
- direct democracy [democracia directa] s. gobierno en el cual los ciudadanos gobiernan directamente, no a través de sus representantes. (pág. 135)
- **dissident** [disidente] s. opositor a la política oficial de un gobierno. (pág. 1042)
- **divine right** [derecho divino] s. noción de que los monarcas son representantes de Dios en la Tierra y, por lo tanto, sólo le deben responder a él. (pág. 594)
- **domestication** [domesticación] s. entrenamiento de animales para beneficio humano. (pág. 16)
- **dominion** [dominio] s. en el imperio británico, una nación (como Canadá) a la que se permitía gobernar sus asuntos internos. (pág. 752)
- **domino theory** [teoría del dominó] s. noción de que si una nación cae bajo control comunista, los países vecinos también lo harán. (pág. 978)
- **Dorians** [dorios] s. grupo de lengua griega que, según la tradición, emigró a Grecia después de la destrucción de la civilización micénica. (pág. 125)
- **Dreyfus affair** [caso Dreyfus] s. controversia surgida en Francia en la década de 1890 por el juicio y encarcelamiento del capitán Alfred Dreyfus, oficial judío falsamente acusado de vender secretos militares a Alemania. (pág. 749)
- **Dutch East India Company** [Compañía Holandesa de las Indias Orientales] s. empresa fundada por holandeses a principios del siglo 17 para establecer y dirigir comercio por todo Asia. (pág. 534)
- **dynastic cycle** [ciclo dinástico] s. patrón histórico del surgimiento, caída y sustitución de dinastías. (pág. 54)
- **dynasty** [dinastía] s. serie de gobernantes de una sola familia. (pág. 31)
- **Eastern Front** [Frente Oriental] s. en la I Guerra Mundial, región a lo largo de la frontera ruso-alemana donde rusos y servios pelearon contra alemanes, austriacos y turcos. (pág. 848)

- **Edict of Nantes** [Edicto de Nantes] s. declaración en que el rey francés Enrique IV prometió que los protestantes podían vivir en paz en Francia y tener centros de veneración en algunas ciudades. (pág. 596)
- **Emancipation Proclamation** [Proclama de Emancipación] s. declaración emitida por el presidente Abraham Lincoln en 1862, asentando la libertad de todos los esclavos de los estados confederados. (pág. 760)
- **emerging nation** [nación emergente] s. nación en proceso de industrialización cuyo desarrollo no ha terminado todavía. (pág. 1075)
- **émigré** s. quien abandona su país de origen por razones políticas, como los nobles y otros que huyeron de Francia durante los levantamientos campesinos de la Revolución Francesa. (pág. 658)
- **empire** [imperio] s. unidad política en que un solo gobernante controla varios pueblos o países. (pág. 33)
- **enclosure** [cercado] s. uno de los campos rodeados de cercas o de arbustos que crearon terratenientes británicos ricos en tierras que antes trabajaban los campesinos. (pág. 717)
- encomienda s. tierras otorgadas por España a un colonizador de América, con el derecho de hacer trabajar a los amerindios que vivían en ellas. (pág. 557)
- **English Civil War** [Guerra Civil Inglesa] s. conflicto de 1642 a 1649 en que los seguidores puritanos del Parlamento lucharon contra los defensores de la monarquía de Inglaterra. (pág. 615)
- **enlightened despot** [déspota ilustrado] s. uno de los monarcas europeos del siglo 18 inspirados por las ideas de la Ilustración a gobernar con justicia y respeto a los derechos de sus súbditos. (pág. 638)
- **enlightenment** [iluminación] s. en budismo, estado de perfecta sabiduría en que se entienden las verdades básicas del universo. (pág. 68)
- **Enlightenment** [Ilustración] s. movimiento del siglo 18 en Europa que trató de aplicar los principios de la razón y el método científico a todos los aspectos de la sociedad. (pág. 629)
- entrepreneur [empresario] s. persona que organiza, administra y asume los riesgos de un negocio. (pág. 721)
- **epic** [epopeya] s. la poema narrativo extenso que celebran las hazañas de héroes tradicionales o legendarios. (pág. 125)
- **estate** [estado] s. una de las tres clases sociales existentes en Francia antes de la Revolución Francesa; el primer estado era el de la clerecía; el segundo era el de la nobleza; y el tercero era del resto de la población. (pág. 651)
- **Estates-General** [Estados Generales] s. asamblea de representantes de los tres estados, o clases sociales, de Francia. (págs. 397, 653)
- **ethnic cleansing** [limpia étnica] s. política de asesinatos y otros actos de brutalidad con que los servios quisieron eliminar la población musulmana de Bosnia después de la división de Yugoslavia. (pág. 1056)
- **excommunication** [excomunión] s. expulsión de una iglesia cristiana. (pág. 306)
- **existentialism** [existencialismo] s. filosofía basada en la idea de que el ser humano da significado a su vida con sus decisiones y acciones. (pág. 899)
- **extraterritorial rights** [derechos extraterritoriales] s. exención a los extranjeros de las leyes de un país. (pág. 806)

- **factors of production** [factores de producción] s. recursos —como tierra, mano de obra y capital— necesarios para producir bienes y servicios. (pág. 718)
- **factory** [fábrica] s. construcción amplia en que se manufacturan productos con maquinaria. (pág. 720)
- **fascism** [fascismo] s. movimiento político que postula una forma extrema de nacionalismo, la supresión de los derechos individuales y un régimen dictatorial de un solo partido. (pág. 910)
- **Fatimid** [fatimitas] s. dinastía musulmana cuyos orígenes se remontan a Fátima, hija de Mahoma, y que construyó un imperio en África del Norte, Arabia y Siria en los siglos 9 a 12. (pág. 272)
- favorable balance of trade [balanza comercial favorable] s. situación económica en la cual un país exporta más de lo que importa, es decir, que vende más productos de los que compra en el extranjero. (pág. 575)
- **federal system** [sistema federal] s. sistema de gobierno en el que el poder se divide entre una autoridad central y varios estados. (págs. 645, 1041)
- **Fertile Crescent** [Media Luna Fértil] s. arco de ricos terrenos de cultivo en el suroeste de Asia, entre el golfo Pérsico y el mar Mediterráneo. (pág. 29)
- **feudalism** [feudalismo] s. sistema político en el cual a los nobles se les otorga el uso de tierras de propiedad del rey, a cambio de lealtad, servicio militar y protección de sus habitantes. (pág. 54)
- **fief** [feudo] s. dominio concedido a un vasallo por un señor, conforme al sistema feudal de la Europa medieval. (pág. 360)
- **filial piety** [amor filial] s. respeto de los hijos a los padres y a sus mayores. (pág. 104)
- "Final Solution" [solución final] s. programa de Hitler de asesinar sistemáticamente a todo el pueblo judío. (pág. 937)
- **Five-Year Plans** [Planes de Cinco Años] s. planes delineados por José Stalin en 1928 para desarrollar la economía de la Unión Soviética. (pág. 877)
- **Four Modernizations** [cuatro modernizaciones] s. serie de objetivos adoptados por el líder chino Deng Xiaoping a finales del siglo 20 con miras al progreso en agricultura, industria, defensa, y ciencia y tecnología. (pág. 1060)
- **Fourteen Points** [los catorce puntos] s. serie de propuestas en que el presidente estadounidense Woodrow Wilson esbozó un plan para alcanzar una paz duradera después de la I Guerra Mundial. (pág. 858)
- **Franks** [francos] s. pueblo germano que se asentó en la provincia romana de Galia (a grandes rasgos, donde está hoy Francia) y que formó un gran imperio durante la Edad Media. (pág. 354)
- **free trade** [libre comercio] s. comercio entre naciones sin restricciones o barreras económicas (tales como aranceles). (pág. 1076)
- French and Indian War [Guerra contra Franceses e Indígenas] s. conflicto entre Gran Bretaña y Francia por control de territorio en Norteamérica, de 1754 a 1763. (pág. 564)
- **gender inequality** [desigualdad de género] s. diferencia entre hombres y mujeres con respecto a riqueza y posición social. (pág. 1084)

- **genetic engineering** [ingeniería genética] s. transferencia de genes de un organismo a otro para producir un organismo con nuevos rasgos. (pág. 1073)
- **genocide** [genocidio] s .matanza sistemática de todo un pueblo. (pág. 937)
- **gentry** [pequeña nobleza] s. clase de ricos y poderosos que gozan de alto nivel social. (pág. 327)
- **geocentric theory** [teoría geocéntrica] s. teoría de la Edad Media en la que los eruditos creían que la Tierra era objeto fijo, localizado en el centro del universo.
- **geopolitics** [geopolítica] s .política exterior basada en una consideración de la ubicación estratégica o de los productos de otras tierras. (pág. 786)
- **Ghana** s. reino de África occidental que se enriqueció debido a recaudación de impuestos y al control del comercio, y que estableció un imperio en los siglos 9 a 11. (pág. 413)
- **ghazi** s. guerrero del islam. (pág. 507)
- **ghettos** s. barrios en que tenían que vivir los judíos europeos. (pág. 937)
- glasnost s. política soviética de "apertura" a la libre circulación de ideas e información introducida en 1985 por Mijail Gorbachev. (pág 1046)
- **global economy** [economía global] s. todas las interacciones financieras —entre individuos, empresas y gobiernos— que rebasan fronteras internacionales. (pág. 1076)
- **Glorious Revolution** [Revolución Gloriosa] s. derrocamiento incruento del rey Jacobo II de Inglaterra, quien fue reemplazado por Guillermo y María. (pág. 616)
- **glyph** [glifo] s. dibujo simbólico, especialmente el usado como parte de un sistema de escritura para tallar mensajes en piedra. (pág. 448)
- **Gothic** [gótico] *adj.* relacionado con un nuevo estilo de arquitectura religiosa surgido en la Europa medieval, caracterizado por bóvedas de nervadura, vitrales emplomados, contrafuertes volantes, arcos ojivales y altas agujas. (pág. 380)
- **Great Depression** [Gran Depresión] s. crisis económica aguda que siguió a la caída del mercado de valores en 1929. (pág. 907)
- **Great Fear** [Gran Miedo] s. ola de temor insensato que se extendió por las provincias francesas después de la toma de la Bastilla en 1789. (pág. 655)
- **Great Purge** [Gran Purga] s. campaña de terror en la Unión Soviética durante la década de 1930, en la cual José Stalin trató de eliminar a todos los miembros del Partido Comunista y ciudadanos que amenazaban su poder. (pág. 876)
- **Great Schism** [Gran Cisma] s. división de la Iglesia Católica Romana medieval, durante la cual había dos Papas rivales, uno en Avignon y el otro en Roma. (pág. 399)
- **Greco-Roman culture** [cultura greco-romana] s. antigua cultura producto de la mezcla de la cultura griega, helénica y romana. (pág. 178)
- **green revolution** [revolución verde] s. esfuerzo en el siglo 20 de aumentar los alimentos en el mundo entero, a través del uso de fertilizantes y pesticidas, y de la creación de cultivos resistentes a enfermedades. (pág. 1074)
- **griot** s. narrador de África occidental. (pág. 216)

- **guerrilla** [guerrillero] s. miembro de una unidad de combate informal que ataca por sorpresa las tropas enemigas que ocupan su país. (pág. 669)
- **guild** [gremio] s. asociación medieval de personas que laboraban en lo mismo; controlaba salarios y precios. (pág. 388)
- **guillotine** [guillotina] s. máquina para decapitar con que se hicieron ejecuciones durante la Revolución Francesa. (pág. 660)
- **Gupta Empire** [imperio gupta] s. el segundo imperio en India, fundado por Chandra Gupta I en el 320 d.C. (pág. 191)
- **habeas corpus** s. documento que requiere que un detenido comparezca ante un tribunal o juez para que se determine si su detención es legal. (pág. 616)
- **Hagia Sophia** [Santa Sofía] s. catedral de la Santa Sabiduría en Constantinopla, construida por orden del emperador bizantino Justiniano. (pág. 303)
- **haiku** s. poema japonés que tiene tres versos no rimados de cinco, siete y cinco sílabas. (pág. 545)
- haji s. peregrinación a la Meca realizada como deber por los musulmanes. (pág. 267)
- **Han Dynasty** [dinastía Han] s. dinastía china que gobernó del 202 a.C. al 9 d.C. y nuevamente del 23 al 220 d.C.
- **Harappan civilization** [civilización harappa] s. nombre alternativo de la civilización del valle del Indo que surgió a lo largo del río Indo, posiblemente hacia 7000 a.C; caracterizada por planificación urbana avanzada. (pág. 46)
- **Hausa** [hausa] s. pueblo de África occidental que vivía en varias ciudades Estado en el actual norte de Nigeria. (pág. 417)
- **heliocentric theory** [teoría heliocéntrica] s. idea de que la Tierra y los otros planetas giran en torno al Sol. (pág. 624)
- Hellenistic [helénico] adj. relacionado con la civilización, el idioma, el arte, la ciencia y la literatura del mundo griego a partir del reino de Alejandro el Magno hasta el siglo 2 a.C. (pág. 146)
- **helot** [ilota] s. en la antigua Esparta, campesino atado a la tierra. (pág. 129)
- **hieroglyphics** [jeroglíficos] s. antiguo sistema de escritura egipcia en el cual se usan imágenes para representar ideas y sonidos. (pág. 40)
- **Hijrah** s. migración de Mahoma de la Meca a Yathrib (Medina) en el 622 d.C. (pág. 265)
- **Hittites** [hititas] s. pueblo indoeuropeo que se estableció en Anatolia hacia 2000 a.C. (pág. 62)
- **Holocaust** [Holocausto] s. matanza en masa de judíos y otros civiles, ejecutada por el gobierno de la Alemania nazi, antes y durante la II Guerra Mundial. (pág. 936)
- **Holy Alliance** [Alianza Sagrada] s. liga de naciones europeas formada por los dirigentes de Rusia, Austria y Prusia después del Congreso de Viena. (pág. 674)
- **Holy Roman Empire** [Sacro Imperio Romano] s. imperio establecido en Europa en el siglo 10, que inicialmente se formó con tierras de lo que hoy es Alemania e Italia. (pág. 371)
- **home rule** [autogobierno] s. control sobre asuntos internos que da el gobierno a los residentes de una región. (pág. 754)

- **hominid** [homínido] s. miembro del grupo biológico que abarca a los seres humanos y especies relacionadas que caminan erguidas. (pág. 7)
- **Homo sapiens** s. especie biológica de los seres humanos modernos. (pág. 8)
- House of Wisdom [Casa de la Sabiduría] s. centro de enseñanza en Bagdad en el siglo 9. (pág. 276)
- **humanism** [humanismo] s. movimiento intelectual del Renacimiento que estudió los textos clásicos y se enfocó en el potencial y los logros humanos. (pág. 472)
- **Hundred Days** [Cien Días] s. corto período de 1815 en que Napoleón hizo su último intento de recuperar el poder, depuso al rey francés y de nuevo se proclamó emperador de Francia. (pág. 671)
- **Hundred Years' War** [Guerra de los Cien Años] s. conflicto en el cual Inglaterra y Francia lucharon en territorio francés de 1337 a 1453, con interrupciones. (pág. 401)
- **hunter-gatherer** [cazador-recolector] s. miembro de un grupo nómada que se alimenta de la caza de animales y la recolección de frutos. (pág. 14)
- **Hyksos** [hicsos] s. grupo nómada de invasores del suroeste de Asia que gobernó Egipto de 1640 a 1570 a.C. (pág. 89)
- **Ice Age** [Edad de Hielo] s. período de fríos en que enormes capas de hielo se desplazan de las regiones polares; la última fue de aproximadamente 1,900,000 a 10,000 a.C. (pág. 235)
- *I Ching s.* libro chino de oráculos consultado para solucionar problemas éticos y prácticos. (pág. 107)
- icon [icono] s. imagen religiosa usada por los cristianos de Oriente. (pág. 306)
- **imperialism** [imperialismo] s. política en que una nación fuerte buscar dominar la vida política, económica y social de otros países. (pág. 773)
- **impressionism** [impresionismo] s. movimiento de la pintura del siglo 19 en reacción al realismo, que buscaba dar impresiones personales de sujetos o momentos. (pág. 701)
- **Indo-Europeans** [indoeuropeos] s. grupo de pueblos seminómadas que, hacia 1700 a.C., comenzaron a emigrar de lo que es hoy el sur de Rusia al subcontinente hindú, Europa y el suroeste de Asia. (pág. 61)
- **indulgence** [indulgencia] s. perdón que libera al pecador de la penitencia por un pecado. (pág. 489)
- **industrialization** [industrialización] s. desarrollo de industrias para la producción con máquinas. (pág. 718)
- **Industrial Revolution** [Revolución Industrial] s. cambio. que comenzó en Inglaterra durante el siglo 18, de la producción manual a la producción con máquinas. (pág. 717)
- inflation [inflación] s. baja del valor de la moneda, acompañada de un alza de precios de bienes y servicios. (pág. 173)
- **Inquisition** [Inquisición] s. tribunal de la Iglesia Católica para investigar y juzgar a los acusados de herejía, especialmente el establecido en España durante el siglo 15. (pág. 384)
- **institution** [institución] s. patrón duradero de organización en una comunidad. (pág. 20)
- **intendant** [intendente] s. funcionario del gobierno francés nombrado por el monarca para recaudar impuestos e impartir justicia. (pág. 598)

- **International Space Station** [Estación Espacial Internacional] s. colaboración patrocinada por Estados Unidos, Rusia y otras 14 naciones para establecer y mantener un laboratorio activo para realizar experimentos científicos en el espacio. (pág. 1071)
- **Internet** s. vinculación de redes de computadora que permite a gente de todo el mundo comunicarse e intercambiar información. (pág. 1073)
- intifada [intifada] s. literalmente, "quitarse de encima"; campañas palestinas de resistencia violenta y no violenta contra Israel. La violencia durante la intifada de la década de 1980 estuvo dirigida a la armada israelí; la violencia durante la intifada de la década de 2000 estuvo dirigida a los civiles israelíes. (pág. 1021)
- Irish Republican Army (IRA) [Ejército Republicano Irlandés (el IRA)] s. fuerza paramilitar nacionalista que lucha porque Gran Bretaña dé la independencia la Irlanda del Norte. (pág. 755)
- **iron curtain** [cortina de hierro] s. durante la Guerra Fría, división que separaba las naciones comunistas de Europa oriental de las naciones democráticas de Europa occidental. (pág. 967)
- **Iroquois** [iroqueses] s. grupo de pueblos amerindios que hablaban lenguas relacionadas, vivían en la parte este de la región de los Grandes Lagos en Norteamérica y formaron una alianza a fines del siglo 16. (pág. 444)
- **Islam** [islam] s. religión monoteísta que se desarrolló en Arabia en el siglo 7 d.C. (pág. 265)
- **isolationism** [aislacionismo] s. política de evitar lazos políticos o militares con otros países. (pág. 918)
- **Israel** s. reino de los hebreos unidos en Palestina, de aproximadamente 1020 a 922 a.C.; después, el reino norte de los dos reinos hebreos; actualmente, la nación judía establecida en Palestina en 1948. (pág. 81)
- **Jainism** [jainismo] s. religión fundada en India durante el siglo 6, cuyos miembros creen que todo en el universo tiene alma y por lo tanto no debe ser lastimado. (pág. 67)
- **janissary** [janísero] s. miembro de una fuerza élite de soldados del imperio otomano. (pág. 510)
- **azz** s. estilo de música popular del siglo 20 concebido principalmente por músicos afroamericanos. (pág. 899)
- **Jesuits** [jesuitas] s. miembros de la Sociedad de Jesús, orden católica romana fundada por Ignacio de Loyola. (pág. 499)
- "jewel in the crown" ["joya de la corona"] s. colonia británica de India, así llamada por su importancia para el imperio británico, tanto como proveedor de materia prima como mercado para sus productos. (pág. 791)
- **joint-stock company** [sociedad de capitales] s. negocio en el que los inversionistas reúnen capital para un propósito común y después comparten las ganancias. (pág. 573)
- **Judah** [Judea] s. reino hebreo establecido en Palestina alrededor del 922 a.C. (pág. 81)
- **Justinian Code** [Código Justiniano] s. cuerpo del derecho civil romano recopilado y organizado por órdenes del emperador bizantino Justiniano hacia el 534 d.C. (pág. 293)
- kabuki s. forma de teatro japonés en que se representa una historia con música, danza y mímica. (pág. 545)

- **kaiser** s. emperador alemán (del título romano Caesar). (pág. 697)
- kamikaze s. durante la II Guerra Mundial, pilotos suicidas japoneses entrenados para hundir barcos de los Aliados lanzándose sobre ellos con aviones llenos de bombas. (pág. 945)
- **karma** s. en hinduismo y budismo, la totalidad de actos buenos y malos que comete una persona, que determinan su destino al renacer. (pág. 67)
- **Khmer Empire** [imperio Khmer] s. imperio del sureste asiático, centrado en la actual Camboya, que alcanzó su mayor auge hacia 1200 d.C. (pág. 345)
- Khmer Rouge s. grupo de rebeldes comunistas que tomaron el poder en Camboya en 1975. (pág. 981)
- **knight** [caballero] s. en Europa medieval, guerrero con armadura y cabalgadura. (pág. 360)
- **Koryu Dynasty** [dinastía koryu] s. dinastía coreana del 935 a 1392 d.C. (pág. 347)
- **Kristallnacht** s. "Noche de cristales rotos": noche del 9 de noviembre de 1938, en que milicianos nazis atacaron hogares, negocios y sinagogas judíos en toda Alemania. (pág. 936)
- **Kuomintang** s. Partido Nacionalista de China, formado en 1912. (pág. 882)
- Kush s. antiguo reino nubio cuyos reyes gobernaron a Egipto del 751 a 671 a.C. (pág. 92)
- **laissez faire** s. idea de que el gobierno no debe regular ni interferir en las industrias y empresas. (pág. 734)
- **land reform** [reforma agraria] s. redistribución de tierras agrícolas con división de grandes latifundios y reparto de fincas a campesinos. (pág. 1034)
- **La Reforma** s. movimiento de reforma liberal en el siglo 19 en México fundado por Benito Juárez. (pág. 824)
- **lay investiture** [investidura seglar] s. nombramiento de funcionarios de la Iglesia por reyes y nobles. (pág. 372)
- **League of Nations** [Liga de las Naciones] s. organización internacional formada después de la I Guerra Mundial cuyo propósito era mantener la paz entre las naciones. (pág. 859)
- **lebensraum** s. "espacio vital": territorio adicional que, según Adolfo Hitler, Alemania necesitaba porque estaba sobrepoblada. (pág. 912)
- **Legalism** [legalismo] s. filosofía política china basada en la idea de que un gobierno altamente eficiente y poderoso es la clave del orden social. (pág. 106)
- **legion** [legión] s. unidad militar del ejército de la antigua Roma formada por aproximadamente 5,000 soldados de infantería y grupos de soldados de caballería. (pág. 157)
- **Legislative Assembly** [Asamblea Legislativa] s. congreso creado por la Constitución francesa de 1791, con poder para emitir leyes y aprobar declaraciones de guerra. (pág. 657)
- **legitimacy** [legitimidad] s. derecho hereditario de un monarca a gobernar. (pág. 673)
- **liberal** [liberale] s. en la primera mitad del siglo 19, europeo—principalmente empresarios y comerciantes de clase media— que deseaba darle más poder político a los parlamentos elegidos. (pág. 687)
- lineage [linaje] s. individuos que descienden de un antepasado común. (pág. 410)

- **loess** [loes] s. depósito fértil de tierra traída por el viento. (pág. 50)
- **Long March** [Larga Marcha] s. viaje de 6,000 millas que realizaron en 1934-35 las fuerzas comunistas de China para escapar de las fuerzas nacionalistas de Jiang Jieshi. (pág. 886)
- **lord** [señor] s. en la Europa feudal, persona que controlaba tierras y por lo tanto podía dar feudos a vasallos. (pág. 360)
- **Lutheran** [luterano] s. miembro de una iglesia protestante basada en las enseñanzas de Martín Lutero. (pág. 490)
- **lycée** [liceo] s. escuela pública en Francia. (pág. 664)
- Macedonia s. antiguo reino del norte de Grecia, cuyo rey Felipe II conquistó a Grecia en 338 a.C. (pág. 142)
- **Maghrib** [Maghreb] s. región del norte de África que abarca la costa del Mediterráneo de lo que en la actualidad es Marruecos, Túnez y Argelia. (pág. 410)
- Magna Carta [Carta Magna] s. "Gran Carta": documento de Inglaterra que garantiza derechos políticos elementales, elaborado por nobles ingleses y aprobado por el rey Juan en 1215 d.C. (pág. 394)
- **Mahabharata** s. gran poema épico de India que relata las luchas arias durante su migración al sur de India. (pág. 64)
- **Mahayana** s. secta del budismo que ofrece la salvación a todos y permite la veneración popular. (pág. 193)
- maize [maíz] s. cereal cultivado cuyos granos se encuentran en grandes espigas, o mazorcas. (pág. 238)
- Mali s. imperio de África occidental que floreció entre 1235 y el siglo 15, y se enriqueció con el comercio. (pág. 415)
- Manchus [manchú] s. pueblo originario de Manchuria que gobernó en China durante la dinastía Qing (1644–1912). (pág. 539)
- **Mandate of Heaven** [Mandato del Cielo] s. en China, creencia de que la autoridad real era producto de la aprobación divina. (pág. 54)
- manifest destiny [destino manifiesto] s. idea popular en el siglo 19 en Estados Unidos de que era su derecho y obligación regir Norteamérica, desde el oceáno Atlántico hasta el Pacífico. (pág. 758)
- manor [señorío] s. dominios de un señor en la Europa feudal. (pág. 360)
- Maori [maori] s. miembro de un pueblo polinesio establecido en Nueva Zelanda hacia 800 d.C. (pág. 752)
- Marshall Plan [Plan Marshall] programa estadounidense de ayuda económica a países europeos para su reconstrucción después de la II Guerra Mundial. (pág. 968)
- **martial law** [ley marcial] s. gobierno militar temporal impuesto a la población civil, normalmente en época de guerra o de trastornos civiles. (pág. 1041)
- mass culture [cultura de masas] s. producción de obras de arte y diversión concebidas con el fin de atraer a un amplio público. (pág. 766)
- **materialism** [materialismo] s. alto interés en la adquisición de posesiones materiales. (pág. 1096)
- matriarchal [matriarcal] adj. relacionado con un sistema social en el que la madre es jefa de la familia. (pág. 192)
- **matrilineal** adj. relacionado con un sistema social en el que la descendencia familiar y los derechos de herencia se trasmiten a través de la madre. (pág. 410)

- **Mauryan Empire** [imperio maurio] s. primer imperio de India, fundado por Chandragupta Mauria en 321 a.C. (pág. 189)
- **May Fourth Movement** [Movimiento del 4 de Mayo] s. protesta nacional china en 1919 con manifestaciones contra el Tratado de Versalles y la interferencia extranjera.
- Medes [medos] s. pueblo del suroeste asiático que contribuyó a derrotar al imperio asirio. (pág. 97)
- **Meiji era** [era Meiji] s. período de la historia japonesa entre 1867 y 1912, cuando gobernó el emperador Mutshito. (pág. 811)
- **Mein Kampf** [Mi lucha] s. libro escrito por Adolfo Hitler en prisión (1923-1924), en el cual expone sus creencias y sus ideales para Alemania. (pág. 912)
- **mercantilism** [mercantilismo] s. política económica de aumentar la riqueza y poder de una nación obteniendo grandes cantidades de oro y plata, y vendiendo más bienes de los que se compran. (pág. 574)
- **mercenary** [mercenario] s. soldado que recibe sueldo por pelear en un ejército extranjero. (pág. 173)
- **Meroë** [Meroe] s. centro de la dinastía Kush de aproximadamente 250 a.C. a 150 d.C.; conocido por su manufactura de armas de hierro y herramientas. (pág. 94)
- **Mesoamerica** [Mesoamérica] s. región que se extiende desde el centro de México hasta Honduras, donde se desarrollaron varias de las antiguas sociedades complejas de América. (pág. 240)
- **mestizo** s. mezcla de español y amerindio. (pág. 557)
- **Middle Ages** [Edad Media] s. era en la historia europea posterior a la caída del imperio romano, que abarca aproximadamente desde el 500 hasta 1500, también llamada época medieval. (pág. 353)
- **middle class** [clase media] s. clase social formada por trabajadores especializados, profesionales, comerciantes y granjeros acaudalados. (pág. 725)
- **middle passage** [travesía intermedia] s. viaje que trajo a africanos capturados al Caribe y, posteriormente, a América del Norte y del Sur, para venderlos como esclavos; recibió este nombre porque era considerada la porción media del triángulo comercial trasatlántico. (pág. 569)
- migration [migración] s. acto de trasladarse de un lugar para establecerse en otro. (págs. 62, 220)
- **militarism** [militarismo] s. política de glorificar el poder militar y de mantener un ejército permanente, siempre preparado para luchar. (pág. 842)
- Ming Dynasty [dinastía Ming] s. dinastía que reinó en China desde 1368 hasta 1644. (pág. 536)
- **Minoans** [minoicos] s. pueblo de navegantes y comerciantes que vivió en la isla de Creta de aproximadamente 2000 a 1400 a.C. (pág. 72)
- Mississippian [misisipiense] adj. relacionado con una cultura constructora de túmulos que floreció en Norteamérica entre el 800 y 1500 d.C. (pág. 443)
- **mita** s. en el imperio inca, obligación de todo súbdito de trabajar ciertos días al año para el Estado. (pág. 461)
- **Moche** [moche] s. civilización que floreció en la actual costa norte de Perú de aproximadamente 100 a 700 d.C. (pág. 247)
- **monarchy** [monarquía] s. gobierno en que el poder está en manos de una sola persona. (pág. 127)

- **monastery** [monasterio] s. comunidad religiosa de hombres, llamados monjes, que ceden todas sus posesiones y se dedican a la oración y veneración. (pág. 354)
- **monopoly** [monopolio] s. control exclusivo sobre la producción y distribución de ciertos bienes. (pág. 204)
- **monotheism** [monoteísmo] s. creencia en un solo dios. (pág. 78)
- **Monroe Doctrine** [doctrina Monroe] s. política estadounidense de oposición a la interferencia europea en Latinoamérica, anunciada por el presidente James Monroe en 1823. (pág. 818)
- **monsoon** [monzón] s. viento que cambia de dirección en ciertas épocas del año. (pág. 45)
- **mosque** [mezquita] s. lugar de veneración islámica. (pág. 267)
- **movable type** [tipo móvil] s. bloques de metal o de madera, cada uno con caracteres individuales, que pueden distribuirse para formar una página de impresión. (pág. 325)
- **Mughal** [mogol] s. uno de los nómadas que invadieron el subcontinente de India en el siglo 16 y establecieron un poderoso imperio. (pág. 516)
- **mujahideen** [muyahidin] s. guerreros religiosos afganos que se unieron para luchar contra el gobierno apoyado por los soviéticos a fines de la década de 1970. (pág. 1026)
- **mulattos** [mulatos] s. personas de ascendencia europea y africana. (pág. 682)
- mummification [momificación] s. proceso de embalsamamiento y secado de cadáveres para evitar su descomposición. (pág. 38)
- **Munich Conference** [Conferencia de Munich] s. reunión en 1938 de Inglaterra, Francia, Italia y Alemania, en la cual Gran Bretaña y Francia aceptaron que la Alemania nazi anexara parte de Checoslovaquia, a cambio de la promesa de Adolfo Hitler de respetar las nuevas fronteras checas. (pág. 919)
- **Muslim** [musulmán] s. devoto del islam. (pág. 265)
- Muslim League [Liga Musulmana] s. organización formada en 1906 para proteger los intereses de los musulmanes de India; después propuso la división del país en dos naciones: una musulmana y una hindú. (pág. 997)
- **Mutapa** [mutapa] *adj.* con un imperio de África del sur establecido por Mutota en el siglo 15 a.D. (pág. 427)
- **Mycenaean** [micénicos] s. el indoeuropeo que se estableció en Grecia hacia 2000 a.C. (pág. 124)
- myth [mito] s. la narracion tradicional sobre dioses, antepasados o héroes, que explican el mundo natural o las costumbres y creencias de una sociedad. (pág. 126)
- Napoleonic Code [código napoleónico] s. sistema extenso y uniforme de leyes establecido para Francia por Napoleón. (pág. 664)
- National Assembly [Asamblea Nacional] s. congreso francés establecido el 17 de junio de 1789 por representantes del Tercer Estado para promulgar leyes y reformas en nombre del pueblo. (pág. 654)
- **nationalism** [nacionalismo] s. creencia de que la principal lealtad del pueblo debe ser a su nación —es decir, a la gente con quien comparte historia y cultura— y no al rey o al imperio. (pág. 687)

- **nation-state** [nación Estado] s. nación independiente de gente que tiene una cultura e identidad común. (pág. 687)
- **NATO** [OTAN] s. Organización del Tratado del Atlántico Norte: alianza militar defensiva formada en 1949 por diez naciones de Europa occidental, Estados Unidos y Canadá. (pág. 969)
- **Nazca** [nazca] s. civilización que floreció en la actual costa sur de Perú de 200 a.C. a 600 d.C. (pág. 247)
- **Nazism** [nazismo] s. políticas fascistas del Partido Nacional socialista de los Trabajadores de Alemania, basadas en el totalitarismo, la creencia en superioridad racial y el control estatal de la industria. (pág. 912)
- **Negritude movement** [movimiento de negritud] s. movimiento de africanos de lengua francesa que celebra el legado de la cultura tradicional africana y sus valores. (pág. 1012)
- **neoclassical** [neoclásico] *adj.* relacionado con un estilo sencillo y elegante (inspirado en ideas y temas de la antigua Grecia y Roma) que caracterizó las artes en Europa a fines del siglo 18. (pág. 637)
- **Neolithic Age** [Neolítico] s. período prehistórico que comenzó aproximadamente en 8000 a.C. y en algunas partes acabó desde 3000 a.C., durante el cual los grupos humanos aprendieron a pulir herramientas de piedra, hacer cerámica, cultivar alimentos y criar animales; también se llama Nueva Edad de Piedra. (pág. 7)
- **Neolithic Revolution** [Revolución Neolítica] s. gran cambio en la vida humana causada por los comienzos de la agricultura; es decir, el cambio de recolectar a producir alimentos. (pág. 15)
- **New Deal** s. programa de reformas económicas del presidente Franklin D. Roosevelt ideado para solucionar los problemas creados por la Gran Depresión. (pág. 909)
- **New Kingdom** [Reino Nuevo] s. período de la historia del antiguo Egipto tras la caída de los gobernantes hicsos, desde 1570 hasta 1075 a.C. (pág. 90)
- **nirvana** s. en budismo, la liberación del dolor y el sufrimiento alcanzada después de la iluminación. (pág. 69)
- **Nok** [nok] s. pueblo africano que vivió en lo que es hoy Nigeria entre 500 a.C. y 200 d.C. (pág. 217)
- **nomad** [nómada] s. miembro de un grupo que no tiene hogar permanente y que va de un lugar a otro en busca de agua y alimento. (pág. 14)
- **nonaggression pact** [pacto de no agresión] s. acuerdo en que dos o más naciones prometen no atacarse. (pág. 925)
- **nonaligned nations** [países no alineados] s. naciones independientes que permanecieron neutrales durante la Guerra Fría entre Estados Unidos y la Unión Soviética. (pág. 982)
- **Nuremberg Trials** [juicios de Nuremberg] s. serie de juicios realizados en Nuremberg, Alemania, tras la II Guerra Mundial a líderes nazis por agresión, violación a las leyes de guerra y crímenes contra la humanidad. (pág. 950)
- **obsidian** [obsidiana] s. roca volcánica dura y vítrea con que los primeros seres humanos elaboraban herramientas de piedra. (pág. 453)
- **Old Regime** [antiguo régimen] s. sistema político y social que existía en Francia antes de la Revolución Francesa. (pág. 651)
- **oligarchy** [oligarquía] s. gobierno en que el poder está en manos de pocas personas, particularmente un gobierno que se basa en la riqueza. (pág. 127)

- **Olmec** [olmeca] s. civilización mesoamericana más antigua que se conoce, que floreció hacia 1200 a.C. e influyó sobre las posteriores sociedades de la región. (pág. 240)
- **Open Door Policy** [política de puertas abiertas] s. política propuesta por E.U.A. en 1899, que postulaba que todas las naciones tuvieran las mismas oportunidades de comerciar con China. (pág. 808)
- Opium War [Guerra del Opio] s. conflicto entre Inglaterra y China, de 1839 a 1842, por el comercio inglés de opio en China. (pág. 806)
- **oracle bone** [hueso de oráculo] s. hueso de animal o caparazón de tortuga que usaban los antiguos sacerdotes chinos para comunicarse con los dioses. (pág. 53)
- Oslo Peace Accords [Acuerdos de Paz de Oslo] s. acuerdos de 1993 cuando el primer ministro israelí, Rabin, otorgó autonomía a Palestina en la Franja de Gaza y Cisjordania. (pág. 1021)
- **ozone layer** [capa de ozono] s. capa de la atmósfera superior de la Tierra que protege a los seres vivos de los rayos ultravioleta de la luz solar. (pág. 1079)
- Pacific Rim [Cuenca del Pacífico] s. tierras que bordean el océano Pacífico, especialmente las de Asia. (pág. 796)
- **Paleolítico** s. período prehistórico que abarcó aproximadamente desde 2.5 millones hasta 8000 a.C., durante el cual los seres humanos hicieron rudimentarias herramientas y armas de piedra; también se llama Antigua Edad de Piedra. (pág. 7)
- Panama Canal [canal de Panamá] s. vía marítima que une al océano Atlántico con el Pacífico, construida en Panamá por Estados Unidos y terminada en 1914. (pág. 821)
- **papyrus** [papiro] s. carrizo alto que crece en el delta del Nilo, usado por los antiguos egipcios para hacer hojas de escribir similares al papel. (pág. 40)
- **parliament** [parlamento] s. cuerpo de representantes que promulga las leyes de una nación. (pág. 395)
- **partition** [partición] s. división en partes, como la división en 1947 de la colonia británica de India en dos naciones: India y Paquistán. (pág. 998)
- pastoralist [pastor] s. miembro de un grupo nómada que pastorea rebaños de animales domesticados. (pág. 330)
- **paternalism** [paternalismo] s. política de tratar a los gobernados como si fueran niños, atendiendo a sus necesidades pero sin darles derechos. (pág. 781)
- **patriarch** [patriarca] s. obispo principal de la rama oriental de la cristiandad. (pág. 306)
- **patriarchal** [patriarcal] adj. relacionado con un sistema social en el que el padre es jefe de la familia. (pág. 192)
- patrician [patricio] s. en la antigua Roma, miembro de la clase alta, privilegiada y rica. (pág. 156)
- **patrilineal** [patrilineal] *adj.* relacionado con un sistema social en el que la descendencia y los derechos de herencia se trasmiten a través del padre. (pág. 410)
- **patron** [mecenas] s. persona que apoya a los artistas, especialmente, en el aspecto financiero. (pág. 472)
- Pax Mongolica [Paz Mongólica] s. período de mediados de 1200 a mediados de 1300 d.C., cuando los mongoles impusieron estabilidad y orden público en casi toda Eurasia. (pág. 333)
- Pax Romana s. período de paz y prosperidad por todo el imperio romano, de 27 a.C. a 180 d.C. (pág. 162)

- **Peace of Augsburg** [Paz de Augsburgo] s. acuerdo realizado en 1555 que declaró que la religión de cada Estado alemán sería decidida por su gobernante. (pág. 492)
- **Peloponnesian War** [Guerra del Peloponeso] s. guerra de 431 a 404 a.C., en la cual Atenas y sus aliados resultaron derrotados por Esparta y sus aliados. (pág. 137)
- **penal colony** [colonia penal] s. colonia a donde se mandan convictos como alternativa a una prisión. (pág. 752)
- **peninsulares** s. en la sociedad española colonial, colonos nacidos en España. (pág. 681)
- **Peninsular War** [Guerra Peninsular] s. conflicto de 1808–1813 en que los rebeldes españoles lucharon con la ayuda de Gran Bretaña para expulsar de España las tropas de Napoleón. (pág. 669)
- **perestroika** s. reestructuración de la economía soviética para permitir mayor poder de decisión local, iniciada por Mijail Gorbachev en 1985. (pág. 1047)
- Persian Gulf War [Guerra del Golfo Pérsico] s. conflicto de 1991 en el que las fuerzas de la ONU derrotaron a fuerzas iraquíes que invadieron a Kuwait y amenazaban con invadir a Arabia Saudita. (pág. 1079)
- **Persian Wars** [Guerras Pérsicas] s. guerras del siglo 5 a.C. entre las ciudades Estado de Grecia y el imperio persa. (pág. 131)
- **perspective** [perspectiva] s. técnica artística que crea la apariencia de tres dimensiones en una superficie plana. (pág. 474)
- **phalanx** [falange] s. formación militar de soldados de infantería armados con lanzas y escudos. (pág. 131)
- **pharaoh** [faraón] s. rey del antiguo Egipto, considerado dios, así como líder político y militar. (pág. 37)
- **philosophe** s. miembro de un grupo de pensadores sociales de la Îlustración en Francia. (pág. 630)
- **philosophers** [filósofos] s. pensadores que investigan la naturaleza del universo, la sociedad humana y la moral a través de la lógica y la razón. (pág. 138)
- **Phoenicians** [fenicios] s. pueblo de navegantes del suroeste de Asia, que aproximadamente en 1100 a.C. comenzó a comerciar y a fundar colonias en la región mediterránea. (pág. 73)
- **Pilgrims** [peregrinos] s. grupo que en 1620 fundó la colonia de Plymouth en Massachusetts para escapar de persecución religiosa en Inglaterra. (pág. 562)
- **plebeian** [plebeyo] s. en la antigua Roma, uno de los agricultores, artesanos o comerciantes comunes que conformaban la mayoría de la población. (pág. 156)
- **plebiscite** [plebiscito] s. voto directo mediante el cual la población de un país tiene la oportunidad de aceptar o rechazar una propuesta. (pág. 664)
- PLO [OLP] s. Organización de Liberación Palestina, dedicada a establecer un estado independiente para los árabes palestinos y a la eliminación de Israel. (pág. 1019)
- **polis** s. ciudad Estado de Grecia; unidad política fundamental de la antigua Grecia a partir de 750 a.C. (pág. 127)
- **Politburo** [Politburó] s. comité dirigente del Partido Comunista en la Unión Soviética. (pág. 1046)
- **political dissent** [disidencia política] s. diferencia de opiniones sobre asuntos políticos. (pág. 1084)
- **polytheism** [politeísmo] s. creencia en muchos dioses.
- **pope** [Papa] s. obispo de Roma y dirigente de la Iglesia Católica Romana. (pág. 171)

- **Popol Vuh** s. libro que narra una versión de la historia maya de la creación. (pág. 448)
- **popular culture** [cultura popular] s. elementos culturales—deportes, música, cine, ropa, etc.—que muestran los antecedentes comunes de un grupo y sus intereses cambiantes. (pág. 1093)
- **potlatch** s. fiesta ceremonial celebrada para mostrar rango y prosperidad en varias tribus del Noroeste de Norteamérica. (pág. 441)
- **predestination** [predestinación] s. doctrina que postula que Dios ha decidido todo de antemano, incluso quiénes obtendrán la salvación eterna. (pág. 495)
- **Presbyterian** [presbiteriano] s. miembro de una iglesia protestante gobernada por presbíteros conforme a las enseñanzas de John Knox. (pág. 496)
- **PRI** s. Partido Revolucionario Institucional: principal partido político en México. (pág. 1037)
- proletariat [proletariado] s. según la teoría marxista, el grupo de trabajadores que derrocaría al zar y gobernaría a Rusia. (pág. 868)
- **proliferation** [proliferación] s. crecimiento o expansión, especialmente la expansión de armas nucleares a naciones que actualmente no las tienen. (pág. 1083)
- **propaganda** s. información o material distribuido para apoyar una causa o socavar una causa opuesta. (pág. 854)
- **Protestant** [protestante] s. miembro de una iglesia cristiana fundada de acuerdo a los principios de la Reforma. (pág. 490)
- provisional government [gobierno provisional] s. gobierno temporal. (pág. 870)
- **psychology** [psicología] s. estudio de la mente y la conducta humanas. (pág. 766)
- **pueblos** s. aldeas similares a complejos departamentales hechos de adobe, construidas por los anasazi y pueblos posteriores en el Suroeste de lo que hoy es Estados Unidos. (pág. 443)
- **Punic Wars** [Guerras Púnicas] s. serie de tres guerras entre Roma y Cartago (264–146 a.C.); el resultado fue la destrucción de Cartago y la dominación romana de toda la región mediterránea occidental. (pág. 158)
- **Puritans** [puritanos] s. grupo que, para liberarse de la persecución religiosa en Inglaterra, fundó una colonia en la bahía de Massachusetts a principios del siglo 17. (pág. 562)
- **push-pull factors** [factores de empuje y de atracción] s. factores que hacen que la gente abandone sus hogares y emigre a otra región (factores de empuje); o factores que atraen a la gente a otros lugares (factores de atracción). (pág. 220)
- **pyramid** [pirámide] s. enorme estructura de base rectangular y cuatro lados triangulares, como las que servían de tumba de los faraones del Reino Antiguo de Egipto. (pág. 37)
- Qin dynasty [dinastía Qin] s. dinastía china que reinó brevemente y sustituyó a la dinastía Zhou en el siglo 3 a.C. (pág. 107)
- Qing dynasty [dinastía Qing] s. última dinastía china; reinó de 1644 a 1912. (pág. 539)
- **Quetzalcoatl** [Quetzalcóatl] s. serpiente emplumada: dios de los toltecas y otros pueblos de Mesoamérica. (pág. 453)

- **quipu** s. cuerda con nudos usadas para registrar información numérica por los incas. (pág. 461)
- **Qur'an** [Corán] s. libro sagrado del islam. (pág. 267)
- racism [racismo] s. creencia de que una raza es superior a otras. (pág. 775)
- **radical** [radicale] s. en la primera mitad del siglo 19, el europeo a favor de cambios drásticos para extender la democracia a toda la población. (pág. 687)
- radioactivity [radioactividad] s. forma de energía liberada mediante la descomposición de átomos. (pág. 765)
- Raj s. la autoridad británica despues que India estaba bajo el dominio del la Corona británica durante el reino de la reina Victoria. (pág. 794)
- **rationing** [racionamiento] s. limitación de la cantidad de bienes que la población puede comprar, generalmente impuesta por un gobierno durante una guerra debido a escasez. (pág. 854)
- **realism** [realismo] s. movimiento artístico del siglo 19 en que los escritores y pintores trataron de mostrar la vida como es, no como debiera ser. (pág. 700)
- **realpolitik** s. "política de la realidad"; posición política dura que no da lugar al idealismo. (pág. 695)
- **recession** [recesión] s. descenso de la economía de una nación. (pág. 1034)
- **Reconquista** s. campaña de líderes cristianos para expulsar a los musulmanes de España, que empezó en el siglo 12 y terminó en 1492. (pág. 384)
- **Red Guards** [Guardias Rojos] s. unidades de milicianos formadas por jóvenes chinos en 1966 en respuesta al llamado de Mao Zedong a llevar a cabo una revolución social y cultural. (pág. 975)
- **Reformation** [Reforma] s. movimiento del siglo 16 para realizar cambios religiosos que llevó a la fundación de iglesias cristianas que rechazaron la autoridad del Papa. (pág. 489)
- **refugee** [refugiado] s. persona que sale de su país a otro país para buscar seguridad. (pág. 1086)
- **Reign of Terror** [Régimen del Terror] s. período entre 1793–1794 en que Maximilien Robespierre gobernó a Francia casi como dictador, durante el cual fueron ejecutados miles de personajes políticos y de ciudadanos comunes. (pág. 660)
- **reincarnation** [reencarnación] s. en hinduismo y budismo, creencia de que el alma renace una y otra vez hasta alcanzar un conocimiento perfecto. (pág. 67)
- **religious toleration** [tolerancia religiosa] s. reconocimiento del derecho de otros a tener creencias religiosas diferentes. (pág. 190)
- **Renaissance** [Renacimiento] s. período de la historia europea de aproximadamente 1300 a 1600, durante el cual renació un interés en la cultura clásica que generó importantes cambios en el arte, la educación y la visión del mundo. (pág. 471)
- **republic** [república] s. forma de gobierno en que el poder está en manos de representantes y líderes elegidos por los ciudadanos. (pág. 156)
- **Restoration** [Restauración] s. en Inglaterra, período del reinado de Carlos II, después del colapso del gobierno de Oliver Cromwell. (pág. 616)
- **reunification** [reunificación] s. proceso de unir dos elementos que estaban separados, como la reunificación de Alemania oriental y Alemania occidental en 1990. (pág. 1054)

- **romanticism** [romanticismo] s. movimiento de principios del siglo 19 en el arte y las ideas que recalca la emoción y la naturaleza, más que la razón y la sociedad. (pág. 698)
- Roosevelt Corollary [corolario Roosevelt] s. ampliación de la doctrina Monroe, emitida por el presidente Theodore Roosevelt en 1904, en que declaró que Estados Unidos tenía el derecho de ejercer "poderes policiales" en el hemisferio occidental. (pág. 821)
- **Rowlatt Acts** [Leyes Rowlatt] s. leyes, ratificadas en 1919, que los permitían al gobierno británico en India encarcelar a manifestantes por dos años sin juicio. (pág. 887)
- **Royal Road** [Camino Real] s. carretera de más de 1,600 millas que cruzaba el imperio persa, desde Susa en Persia hasta Sardes en Anatolia. (pág. 101)
- **Russification** [rusificación] s. proceso que obliga a todos los grupos étnicos a adoptar la cultura rusa en el imperio ruso. (pág. 693)
- **Russo-Japanese War** [Guerra Ruso-Japonesa] s. conflicto de 1904–1905 entre Rusia y Japón, causada por el interés de los dos países de dominar Manchuria y Corea. (pág. 812)
- **sacrament** [sacramento] s. una de las ceremonias cristianas en que se trasmite la gracia de Dios a los creyentes. (pág. 371)
- **Safavid** [safávido] s. miembro de una dinastía musulmana shi'a que construyó un imperio en Persia del siglo 16 al 18. (pág. 512)
- **Sahel** s. región africana a lo largo de la frontera sur del Sahara. (pág. 213)
- **salon** [salón] s. reunión social de intelectuales y artistas, como las que celebraban en sus hogares señoras acaudaladas de París y otras ciudades europeas durante la Ilustración. (pág. 636)
- **SALT** s. Conversaciones para la Limitación de Armas Estratégicas: serie de reuniones durante la década de 1970 en que líderes de Estados Unidos y la Unión Soviética acordaron limitar el número de armas nucleares de sus países. (pág. 989)
- **Salt March** [Marcha de la Sal] s. manifestación pacífica en 1930 en India ocasionada por las Leyes de la Sal; Mohandas Gandhi condujo a sus seguidores, caminando 240 millas al mar, donde hicieron su propia sal del agua de mar evaporada. (pág. 889)
- **samurai** s. guerrero profesional que servía a los nobles en el Japón feudal. (pág. 343)
- sans-culottes s. en la Revolución Francesa, grupo político radical de parisienses asalariados y pequeños comerciantes que anhelaban más voz en el gobierno, bajas de precios y fin a la escasez de alimentos. (pág. 658)
- **satrap** [sátrapa] s. gobernador de una provincia en el imperio persa. (pág. 101)
- **savanna** [sabana] s. planicie con pastizales. (pág. 215)
- **Schlieffen Plan** [Plan Schlieffen] s. plan militar alemán al comienzo de la I Guerra Mundial, que preveía que Alemania derrotaría rápidamente a Francia y después atacaría a Rusia en el este. (pág. 846)
- **scholastics** [escolásticos] s. académicos que se reunían y enseñaban en las universidades medievales de Europa. (pág. 392)

- **scientific method** [método científico] s. procedimiento lógico para reunir información sobre el mundo natural, en que se usa experimentación y observación para poner a prueba hipótesis. (pág. 625)
- **Scientific Revolution** [Revolución Científica] s. profundo cambio en el pensamiento europeo que comenzó a mediados del siglo 16, en que el estudio del mundo natural se caracterizó por cuidadosa observación y cuestionamiento de teorías aceptadas. (pág. 623)
- **scorched-earth policy** [política de arrasamiento de campos] s. práctica de quemar campos de cultivo y de matar ganado durante la guerra para que el enemigo no pueda vivir de las tierras. (pág. 669)
- **scribe** [escriba] s. profesional especializado en llevar registros en las civilizaciones tempranas. (pág. 20)
- **secede** [seceder] v. retirarse formalmente de una asociación o alianza. (pág. 760)
- **secular** adj. relacionado con lo mundano más que con los asuntos espirituales. (págs. 355, 472)
- **segregation** [segregación] s. separación legal o social de gente de diferentes razas. (pág. 761)
- **self-determination** [autodeterminación] s. libertad de un pueblo para decidir libremente la forma de gobierno que desea. (pág. 858)
- **Seljuks** [seljucs] s. grupo turco que emigró al imperio abasida en el siglo 10 y estableció su propio imperio en el siglo 11. (pág. 315)
- **senate** [senado] s. en la antigua Roma, organismo supremo de gobierno formado inicialmente sólo por aristócratas. (pág. 157)
- **sepoy** [cipayo] s. soldado hindú bajo el mando británico. (pág. 791)
- **Sepoy Mutiny** [Motín de Cipayos] s. rebelión de 1857 de soldados hindúes y musulmanes contra los británicos en India. (pág. 793)
- **serf** [siervo] s. campesino medieval legalmente obligado a vivir en los dominios de un señor. (pág. 360)
- **Seven Years' War** [Guerra de los Siete Años] s. conflicto en Europa, Norteamérica e India de 1756 a 1763, en que las fuerzas de Inglaterra y Prusia lucharon con las de Austria, Francia, Rusia y otros países. (pág. 607)
- **shah** [sha] s. monarca hereditario de Irán. (pág. 513)
- **shari'a** s. conjunto de leyes que rigen la vida de los musulmanes. (pág. 268)
- **Shi'a** [shi'a] s. rama del islam que reconoce a los primeros cuatro califas como legítimos sucesores de Mahoma. (pág. 271)
- **Shinto** [shintoísmo] s. religión oriunda de Japón. (pág. 339)
- **Shiva** s. dios hindú considerado destructor del mundo. (pág. 194)
- "shock therapy" [terapia de shock] s. programa económico implementado en Rusia por Boris Yeltsin en la década de 1990, que implicó un cambio abrupto de una economía de mando a una economía de mercado libre. (pág. 1050)
- **shogun** [shogún] s. en el Japón feudal, jefe militar supremo que regía en nombre del emperador. (pág. 343)
- **Sikh** [sikh] s. miembro de un grupo religioso no violento cuyas creencias combinaban elementos del budismo, el hinduismo y el sufismo. (pág. 518)
- **Silk Roads** [Ruta de la Seda] s. sistema de antiguas rutas de las caravanas por Asia central, por las que se transportaban seda y otros productos comerciales. (pág. 196)

- **simony** [simonía] s. venta o compra de una posición en una iglesia cristiana. (pág. 379)
- **skepticism** [escepticismo] s. filosofía basada en la noción de que nada puede saberse con certeza. (pág. 597)
- slash-and-burn farming [agricultura de tala y quema] s. método agrícola de desbrozar terrenos talando y quemando árboles y pastos, cuyas cenizas sirven como fertilizante. (pág. 15)
- **Slavs** [eslavos] s. pueblo de los bosques al norte del mar Negro, origen de muchos pueblos de la Europa oriental de nuestros días. (pág. 307)
- **social contract** [contrato social] s. acuerdo mediante el cual el pueblo define y limita sus derechos individuales, creando así una sociedad o gobierno organizados. (pág. 629)
- **Social Darwinism** [darvinismo social] s. aplicación de las teorías de Charles Darwin sobre la evolución y la "sobrevivencia del más apto" a las sociedades humanas, particularmente como justificación para la expansión imperialista. (pág. 775)
- **socialism** [socialismo] s. sistema económico en el cual los factores de producción son propiedad del pueblo y se administran para el bienestar de todos. (pág. 736)
- **Solidarity** [Solidaridad] s. sindicato polaco de trabajadores que presentó la principal fuerza de oposición al gobierno comunista en Polonia en la década de 1980. (pág. 1052)
- **Songhai** s. imperio de África occidental que conquistó Malí y controló el comercio desde el siglo 15 hasta 1591. (pág. 417)
- **soviet** s. consejo local de representantes formado en Rusia después de la caída del zar Nicolás II. (pág. 870)
- **Spanish-American War** [Guerra Hispano-Americana] s. conflicto de 1898 entre Estados Unidos y España, en que Estados Unidos apoyó la lucha de independencia cubana. (pág. 818)
- **specialization** [especialización] s. desarrollo de conocimientos para realizar determinado trabajo, como comerciar o llevar registros. (pág. 20)
- **sphere of influence** [esfera de influencia] s. región extranjera en que una nación controla el comercio y otras actividades económicas. (pág. 807)
- **standard of living** [nivel de vida] s. calidad de la vida de una persona o población que se mide conforme a los bienes, servicios y lujos que tiene a su disposición. (pág. 1034)
- stateless societies [sociedades sin Estado] s. grupos culturales en los que la autoridad es compartida por linajes de igual poder, en vez de ser ejercida por un gobierno central. (pág. 410)
- **steppes** [estepas] s. llanuras secas de pastizales. (pág. 61)
- **strike** [huelga] s. paro de trabajo para obligar al patrón a acceder a ciertas demandas. (pág. 738)
- **stupa** s. estructuras de piedra en forma de cúpula, construidas sobre reliquias budistas sagradas. (pág. 193)
- **subcontinent** [subcontinente] s. gran masa que forma una parte claramente diferenciada de un continente. (pág. 44)
- **Suez Canal** [canal de Suez] s. canal marítimo que une al mar Rojo y al golfo de Suez con el mar Mediterráneo, cuya construcción terminó en 1869. (pág. 788)
- **suffrage** [sufragio] s. derecho al voto. (pág. 747)
- **Sufi** [sufi] s. musulmán que busca contacto directo con Dios por medio del misticismo. (pág. 271)

- **sultan** [sultán] s. "jefe supremo" o "el que tiene poder"; título de los gobernantes otomanos durante el auge del imperio otomano. (pág. 507)
- **Sunna** [sunna] s. modelo islámico de vida que se basa en las enseñanzas y vida de Mahoma. (pág. 268)
- **Sunni** [sunni] s. rama del islam que reconoce a Alí y a sus descendientes como sucesores legítimos de Mahoma. (pág. 271)
- **surrealism** [surrealismo] s. movimiento artístico del siglo 20 que se concentra en el inconsciente. (pág. 899)
- **sustainable growth** [crecimiento sostenido] s. desarrollo económico que satisface las necesidades de la población pero preserva el entorno y conserva recursos para futuras generaciones. (pág. 1080)
- **Swahili** [suahili] s. lengua bantú con influencias árabes que se usa en Africa oriental y central. (pág. 422)
- **Taiping Rebellion** [Rebelión Taiping] s. rebelión a mediados del siglo 19 contra la dinastía Qing en China, encabezada por Hong Xiuquan. (pág. 807)
- Taj Mahal s. bella tumba en Agra, India, construida por el emperador mogol Shah Jahan para su esposa Mumtaz Mahal. (pág. 519)
- **Taliban** [Talibán] s. grupo musulmán conservador que tomó el poder en Afganistán después de que la Unión Soviética retiró sus tropas; expulsado por el ejército estadounidense en diciembre de 2001 por darles amparo a sospechosos de terrorismo. (pág. 1026)
- **Tamil** [tamil o tamul] s. idioma del sur de India; grupo que habla dicho idioma. (pág. 191)
- **technology** [tecnología] s. formas de aplicar conocimientos, herramientas e inventos para satisfacer necesidades. (pág. 8)
- **Tennis Court Oath** [Juramento de la Cancha de Tenis] s. promesa hecha por los miembros de la Asamblea Nacional de Francia en 1789 de permanecer reunidos hasta que elaboraran una nueva constitución. (pág. 654)
- **terraces** [cultivos en andenes/cultivos en terrazas] s. en Aksum, una técnica nueva para cultivar la tierra, utilizando campos horizontales a manera de peldaños, cortados en laderas o pendientes de montañas, para retener agua y reducir la erosión. (pág. 228)
- **terrorism** [terrorismo] s. uso de la fuerza o de amenazas para presionar a personas o gobiernos a que cambien sus políticas. (pág. 1087)
- **theocracy** [teocracia] s. 1. gobierno en el cual se ve al gobernante como una figura divina (pág. 37). 2. gobierno controlado por líderes religiosos. (pág. 496)
- **theory of evolution** [teoría de la evolución] s. concepto propuesto por Charles Darwin en 1859 de que las especies de plantas y animales surgen debido a un proceso de selección natural. (pág. 765)
- **theory of relativity** [teoría de la relatividad] s. ideas de Albert Einstein acerca de la interrelación entre el tiempo y el espacio, y entre la energía y la materia. (pág. 897)
- **Theravada** s. secta del budismo que se adhiere al énfasis original de Buda en la estricta disciplina espiritual. (pág. 193)
- **Third Reich** [Tercer Reich] s. Tercer Imperio Alemán establecido por Adolfo Hitler en la década de 1930. (pág. 918)

- **Third Republic** [Tercera República] s. república establecida en Francia después de la caída de Napoleón III; acabó con la ocupación alemana de Francia durante la II Guerra Mundial. (pág. 749)
- **Third World** [Tercer Mundo] s. durante la Guerra Fría, naciones que no se aliaron ni con Estados Unidos ni con la Unión Soviética. (pág. 982).
- **Thirty Years' War** [Guerra de los Treinta Años] s. conflicto europeo de 1618 a 1648 por cuestiones religiosas, territoriales y de poder entre familias reinantes. (pág. 603)
- three-field system [sistema de tres campos] s. sistema agrícola de la Europa medieval en que las tierras de cultivo se dividían en tres campos de igual tamaño y cada uno se sembraba sucesivamente con un cultivo de invierno, un cultivo de primavera y el tercero se dejaba sin cultivar. (pág. 387)
- **Tiananmen Square** [Plaza Tiananmen] s. plaza pública en Beijing, China; sede en 1989 de un enorme levantamiento estudiantil en favor de reformas democráticas. (pág. 1061)
- **tithe** [diezmo] s. pago de una familia a la Iglesia de la décima parte de sus ingresos. (pág. 363)
- **Tokugawa Shogunate** [shogunato Tokugawa] s. dinastía de shogúns que gobernó un Japón unificado de 1603 a 1867. (pág. 544)
- **Torah** s. cinco primeros libros de la Biblia hebrea, los más sagrados de la tradición judía. (pág. 77)
- **totalitarianism** [totalitarismo] s. gobierno que controla todo aspecto de la vida pública y privada. (pág. 874)
- **total war** [guerra total] s. conflicto en el que los países participantes dedican todos sus recursos a la guerra. (pág. 853)
- **totem** [tóteme] s. la animale u otro objeto natural que sirven de símbolo de unidad de clanes u otros grupos. (pág. 445)
- tournament [torneo] s. justa deportiva entre grupos de caballeros. (pág. 367)
- **tragedy** [tragedia] s. obra dramática seria profunda acerca de la caída de un personaje heroico o noble. (pág. 136)
- **Treaty of Kanagawa** [Tratado de Kanagawa] s. acuerdo de 1854 entre Estados Unidos y Japón, que abrió dos puertos japoneses a los barcos de Estados Unidos y le permitió abrir una embajada en Japón. (pág. 810)
- **Treaty of Tordesillas** [Tratado de Tordesillas] s. acuerdo de 1494 entre Portugal y España que estableció que las tierras descubiertas al oeste de una línea imaginaria en el océano Atlántico pertenecerían a España y las tierras al este pertenecerían a Portugal. (pág. 533)
- **Treaty of Versailles** [Tratado de Versalles] s. acuerdo de paz firmado por Alemania y los Aliados después de la I Guerra Mundial. (pág. 858)
- **trench warfare** [guerra de trincheras] s. forma de guerra en la que dos ejércitos contrincantes luchan detrás de trincheras cavadas en el campo de batalla. (pág. 847)
- **triangular trade** [triángulo comercial] s. red comercial trasatlántica que transportaba esclavos y productos entre Africa, Inglaterra, Europa continental, el Caribe y las colonias de Norteamérica. (pág. 568)
- **tribune** [tribuno] s. en la antigua Roma, funcionario elegido por los plebeyos para proteger sus derechos. (pág. 156)
- **tribute** [tributo] s. pago de una potencia más débil a una potencia más fuerte para obtener una garantía de paz y seguridad. (pág. 82)

- **Triple Alliance** [Triple Alianza] s. **1.** asociación de las ciudades Estado de Tenochtitlan, Texcoco y Tlacopan, que dio origen al imperio azteca (pág. 454). 2. alianza militar establecida entre Alemania, Austro-Hungría e Italia antes de la I Guerra Mundial. (pág. 842)
- **Triple Entente** [Triple Entente] s. alianza militar entre Gran Bretaña, Francia y Rusia establecida antes de la I Guerra Mundial. (pág. 843)
- triumvirate [triunvirato] s. en la Roma antigua, grupo de tres líderes que compartían el control del gobierno. (pág. 161)
- **Trojan War** [Guerra de Troya] s. guerra, aproximadamente en 1200 a.C., en que un ejército al mando de reyes micénicos atacó la ciudad comercial independiente de Troya, ubicada en Anatolia. (pág. 125)
- **troubadour** [trovador] s. poeta y músico medieval que viajaba de un lugar a otro para divertir con sus cantos de amor cortesano. (pág. 367)
- **Truman Doctrine** [Doctrina Truman] s. política estadounidense de dar ayuda económica y militar a las naciones libres amenazadas por oponentes internos o externos, anunciada por el presidente Harry Truman en 1947. (pág. 968)
- **tyrant** [tirano] s. en la antigua Grecia, individuo poderoso que ganaba el control del gobierno de una ciudad Estado apelando al apoyo de los pobres. (pág. 127)
- **Umayyads** [omeyas] s. dinastía que gobernó el imperio musulmán del 661 al 750 d.C. y después estableció un reino en al-Andalus. (pág. 271)
- **union** [sindicato] s. asociación de trabajadores formada para negociar mejores salarios y condiciones de trabajo. (pág. 738)
- United Nations [Organización de las Naciones Unidas (ONU)] s. organización internacional fundada en 1945 con el propósito de ofrecer seguridad a las naciones del mundo. (pág. 966)
- Universal Declaration of Human Rights [Declaración Universal de Derechos Humanos] s. declaración en que la ONU proclamó en 1948 que todos los seres humanos tienen derecho a la vida, la libertad y la seguridad. (pág. 1084)
- unrestricted submarine warfare [guerra submarina irrestricta] s. uso de submarinos para hundir sin alerta previa cualquier barco (incluso barcos neutrales y de pasajeros sin armamento) que se encuentre en aguas enemigas. (pág. 852)
- **urbanization** [urbanización] s. crecimiento de ciudades y migración hacia ellas. (pág. 723)
- **U.S.A. Patriot Act** [Ley Patriota de E.U.A.] s. proyecto de ley antiterrorista de 2001 que hizo más fuerte los derechos gubernamentales para detener a extranjeros sospechosos de terrorismo y para procesar crímenes terroristas. (pág. 1092)
- **U.S. Civil War** [Guerra Civil de E.U.A.] s. conflicto entre los estados del Norte y el Sur de Estados Unidos desde 1861 a 1865, sobre el asunto de la esclavitud. (pág. 760)
- **utilitarianism** [utilitarismo] s. teoría, propuesta por Jeremy Bentham a fines del siglo 18, de que las acciones del gobierno sólo son útiles si promueven el mayor bien para el mayor número de personas. (pág. 735)
- **utopia** [utopía] s. tierra imaginaria descrita por Tomás Moro en su libro del mismo nombre; lugar ideal. (pág. 482)

- vassal [vasallo] s. en la Europa feudal, persona que recibía un dominio (tierras) de un señor a cambio de su promesa de lealtad y servicios. (pág. 360)
- **Vedas** s. cuatro colecciones de escritos sagrados secretos, realizados durante la etapa temprana del asentamiento ario en India. (pág. 63)
- vernacular s. lenguaje común y corriente de la gente de una región o país. (págs. 391, 475)
- **Vietcong** s. grupo de guerrilleros comunistas que, con la ayuda de Vietnam del Norte, pelearon contra el gobierno de Vietnam del Sur durante la Guerra de Vietnam. (pág. 980)
- **Vietnamization** [vietnamización] s. estrategia del presidente de E.U.A. Richard Nixon para terminar con la participación en la Guerra de Vietnam, mediante el retiro gradual de tropas estadounidenses y su reemplazo con fuerzas survietnamitas. (pág. 980)
- Vishnu [Visnú] s. dios hindú considerado responsable de conservar al mundo. (pág. 194)
- **vizier** [visir] s. primer ministro de un reino o imperio musulmán. (pág. 315)
- War of the Spanish Succession [Guerra de Sucesión Españolal s. conflicto de 1701 a 1713 en que varios Estados europeos lucharon para impedir que la familia Borbón controlara a España, como a Francia. (pág. 601)
- Warsaw Pact [Pacto de Varsovia] s. alianza militar formada en 1955 por la Unión Soviética y siete países de Europa oriental. (pág. 969)
- **Weimar Republic** [República de Weimar] s. república establecida en Alemania en 1919 que acabó en 1933. (pág. 905)
- **Western Front** [Frente Occidental] s. en la I Guerra Mundial, región del norte de Francia donde peleaban las fuerzas de los Aliados y de las Potencias Centrales. (pág. 846)
- **westernization** [occidentalización] s. adopción de las instituciones sociales, políticas o económicas del Occidente, especialmente de Europa o Estados Unidos. (pág. 610)
- **yin and yang** [yin y yang] s. en China, dos poderes que gobiernan los ritmos naturales de la vida; el yang representa las cualidades masculinas en el universo y el yin las femeninas. (pág. 107)
- **Yoruba** [yoruba] s. pueblo del África occidental que formó varios reinos en lo que hoy es Benin y el sur de Nigeria. (pág. 418)
- **Zapotec** [zapoteca] s. civilización mesoamericana centrada en el valle de Oaxaca de lo que hoy es México. (pág. 242)
- **ziggurat** [zigurat] s. estructura de gradas en forma de pirámide, que formaba parte de un templo sumerio. (pág. 23)
- **Zionism** [sionismo] s. movimiento fundado en la década de 1890 para promover la autodeterminación judía y el establecimiento de un estadso judío en la antigua patria judía. (pág. 750)

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Chapter 4

86 top © Andrea Jemolo/Corbis; bottom Mask of Agamemnon, (1500s B.C.), Mycenaean. National Archaeological Museum, Athens. Photo © Gianni Dagli Orti/The Art Archive; 87 top Ceramic jar from Grave 566, Meroitic Period, Karanog, Nubia. Courtesy of University of Pennsylvania Museum, Philadelphia (Neg. #T4-55OC.2); bottom Alexander III, King of Macedonia, (338 B.C.), Roman, copied from Greek statue by Eufranor. Staatliche Glypothek, Munich. Photo © Alfredo Dagli Orti/The Art Archive; 88 Illustration by Peter Dennis; 89 left Detail of procession road to the Ishtar gate, (600s B.C.), Neo-Babylonian. Louvre, Paris. Photo © Erich Lessing/Art Resource, New York; right © Corbis; 90 Hatshepsut. Egyptian; from Deir el-Bahri, western Thebes, New Kingdom, Dynasty 18, reign of Hatshepsut, ca. 1473-1458 B.C. Indurated limestone, H. 76.75 in. (195 cm). The Metropolitan Museum of Art, Rogers Fund, 1929 (29.3.2). Photo © 1997 The Metropolitan Museum of Art; 91 Temple of Pharaoh Ramses II at Abu Simbel (1279-1213 B.C.). Photo © Alfredo Dagli Orti /The Art Archive; 92-93 background © Hugh Sitton/ImageState; 92 left © Paul Almasy/Corbis; right Photo by Derek A. Welsby © Derek A. Welsby; 93 Shawabits of King Taharka, (690-664 B.C.), Nubian, Napatan Period. Museum of Fine Arts, Boston. Harvard University Museum-Museum of Fine Arts Expedition. Photo © 2008 Museum of Fine Arts, Boston; 94 Gold ring shield from Queen Amanishakheto's pyramid. Staatliche Museen zu Berlin, Preussischer Kulturbesitz, Aegyptisches Museum, Berlin. Photo © Margarete Buesing/Art Resource, New York; 95 left Detail of procession road to the Ishtar gate (600s B.C.), Neo-Babylonian. Louvre, Paris. Photo © Erich Lessing/Art Resource, New York; right © Corbis; 97 Warriors scaling walls with ladders fighting hand-to-hand. Ashurnazirpal's assault on a city. Stone bas-relief from the palace of Ashurnazirpal II in Nimrud. The British Museum, London. Photo © Erich Lessing/Art Resource, New York; 98 © Bettmann/Corbis; 99 left Detail of procession road to the Ishtar gate (600s B.C.), Neo-Babylonian. Louvre, Paris. Photo © Erich Lessing/Art Resource, New York; right © Corbis; 100 © Corbis; 102 © The British Museum; 104 left Detail of procession road to the Ishtar gate (600s B.C.), Neo-Babylonian. Louvre, Paris. Photo © Erich Lessing/Art Resource, New York; right © Corbis; 105 top British Library HIP/The Image Works; bottom The Granger Collection, New York; 107 top @ Photodisc/Getty Images; bottom Shi Huang-Di of the Oin Dynasty, By permission of the British Library; 108 left © Joseph McNally/Getty Images; right Illustration by Patrick Whelan; 111 Photo © Michael Holford/The British Museum, London; 111 MC1-111 MC2 © Ilya Terentyev/Getty Images; 112 left the gold mask, from the Treasure of Tutankhamen (c.1370-52 B.C.). Gold. Egyptian, 18th Dynasty. Egyptian National Museum, Cairo, Egypt, Bildarchiv Steffens. Photo © The Bridgeman Art Library; center © The British Museum, right Model of a cart pulled by two oxen, Harrappan. Mohenjo-Daro, Indus Valley, Pakistan. National Museum of Karachi, Karachi, Pakistan. Photo © The Bridgeman Art Library; bottom © The British Museum; 113 © John Slater/Corbis; 115 Miniature Torah Scroll, probably English (1765). Jewish Museum, London. Photo © The Bridgeman Art Library; 116 top left Man between tigers. Seal from Mohenjo-Daro. National Museum, New Delhi, India. Photo © Nimatallah/Art Resource, New York center right © Diego Lezama Orezzoli/Corbis; bottom left Hieroglyphs (Middle Kingdom). Thebes. Photo © Erich Lessing/Art Resource, New York; bottom

right Detail of the inscription from the sarcophagus of Eshmunazar recounting how he and his mother Amashtarte built temples to the gods of Sidon (3000-1200 B.C.). Phoenician. Louvre, Paris. Photo © Lauros-Giraudon/The Bridgeman Art Library; 117 left © Asian Art & Archaeology, Inc./Corbis; right Model of a Phoenician ship of 900 B.C. Museo della Scienza e della Tecnica, Milan, Italy. Photo © Scala/Art Resource, New York.

UNIT TWO

118-119 The Athenian Acropolis (1846), Leo von Klenze. Neue Pinakothek, Munich. Photo © Joachim Blauel/Artothek. Chanter 5

120 top Vase from Palaikastro, Minoan. Archaeological Museum, Heraklion, Crete. Photo © Nimatallah/Art Resource, New York; bottom, Hatshepsut (18th dynasty), from the temple of Hatshepsut. Deir el Bahari, West Thebes. Egyptian Museum, Cairo, Egypt. Photo © Scala/Art Resource, New York; 121 left Animal mask (about 1100-771 B.C.), Chinese, Western Zhou dynasty. Musée des Arts Asiatiques-Guimet, Paris. Photo by Richard Lambert © Werner Forman/Art Resource, New York; right Breastplate, Mixtec, Postclassic Monte Alban V, Yanhuitlan, Oaxaca. Museo Nacional de Antropologia, Mexico City. Photo © Réunion des Musées Nationaux/Art Resource, New York; 122 left American School of Classical Studies at Athens, Greece, Angora excavations; center Red-figure dish depicting Theseus slaying the Minotaur (400s B.C.). The British Museum, London. Photo © The Bridgeman Art Library; right, Minerva with the Pectoral, Pheidias. Louvre, Paris. Photo by Herve Lewandowski. Photo © Réunion des Musées Nationaux/Art Resource, New York; 123 left Young girl winning chariot race, Greek engraving from red-figure vase. Bibliothéque des Arts Décoratifs, Paris. Photo © Gianni Dagli Orti/The Art Archive; right © Corbis; 125 © Bettmann/Corbis; 126 Head of Polyphemos (about 150 B.C. or later), Hellenistic or Roman Period, Greece. Marble from Thasos, 15 1/8" (38.3 cm). Gift in Honor of Edward W. Forbes from his friends. Photo © Museum of Fine Arts, Boston; 127 left Young girl winning chariot race, Greek engraving from red-figure vase. Bibliothéque des Arts Décoratifs, Paris. Photo © Gianni Dagli Orti/The Art Archive; right © Corbis; 129 top right Funeral stele of Ktesileos and Theano (about 420). Greek, Attic, Classical. Marble, 93 cm H x 50 cm W. Found in Athens, 1921. National Archaeological Museum, Athens. Photo © Herve Champollion/akg-images, London; 130 background © Vanni Archive/Corbis; top Black-figured hydria (500s), Painter of Micali. Museo Gregoriano Etrusco, Vatican Museums, Rome. Photo © Scala/Art Resource, New York; 133 © AFP/Getty; 134 left Young girl winning chariot race, Greek engraving from red-figure vase. Bibliothéque des Arts Décoratifs, Paris. Photo © Gianni Dagli Orti/The Art Archive; right © Corbis; 135 Bust of Pericles (100s), Roman. Photo © British Museum, London/Bridgeman Art Library; 136 © Christie's Images/Corbis; 138 The Death of Socrates (1780), Francois-Louis Joseph Watteau. Musée des Beaux-Arts, Lille, France. Photo by P. Bernard © Réunion des Musées Nationaux/Art Resource, New York; 139 left © Museo Capitolino, Rome/SuperStock; center © Museo Capitolino, Rome/SuperStock; top right © SuperStock; 140 left, Hydra with the Rape of Europa. Museo Nazionale di Villa Giulia. Photo © Scala/Art Resource, New York; left, inset Fish plate. Red figure vase painting. (300s B.C.). Louvre, Paris. Photo © Réunion des Musées Nationaux/Art Resource, New York; right The Nike of Samothrace, goddess of Victory. Louvre, Paris. Photo © Erich Lessing/Art Resource, New York; 141 top Parthenon © Werner Forman/Art Resource, New York; center left © R. Sheridan/Ancient Art and Architecture Collection Ltd.; center right © The Lowe Art Museum, The University of Miami/Superstock; bottom © Steve Vidler/Superstock; 142 left Young girl winning chariot race, Greek engraving from red-figure vase. Bibliothéque des Arts Décoratifs, Paris. Photo © Gianni Dagli Orti/The Art Archive; right © Corbis; 143 Detail of Alexander, from the Battle of Issus mosaic, House of the Faun, Pompeii (about 80 B.C.). Museo Archeologico Nazionale, Naples, Italy. Photo © Scala/Art Resource, New York; 146 left Young girl winning chariot race, Greek engraving from red-figure vase Bibliothéque des Arts Décoratifs, Paris. Photo © Gianni Dagli Orti/The Art Archive; right © Corbis; 147 The Granger Collection, New York; 148 top MS D'Orville 301 f. 31v. Photo © Bodleian Library, Oxford, United Kingdom; bottom left The Granger Collection, New York; bottom right Smith Collection, Rare Book and Manuscript Library, Columbia University, New York; 150 © SuperStock; 151 top right Detail of warriors on Chigi vase, Greek. Museo Nazionale di Villa Giulia, Rome, Italy. Photo © Scala/Art Resource, New York; 151 MC1-151 MC2 © Goodshoot/Jupiterimages/Getty Images.

Chapter 6

152 Funerary figure (206 B.C.-220 A.D.), Han dynasty. Private Collection. Photo © Werner Forman/Art Resource, New York; 153 top left © Ancient Art & Architecture Collection Ltd.; top right Roman horseman (Soldier). Musée des Antiquities Nationales, Saint Germain-en-Laye, France. Photo © Erich Lessing/Art Resource, New York; bottom Small gold figure studded with turquoises in the form of a toucan (about 1400-1534 A.D.), Moche Culture. Private Collection. Photo © Werner Forman/Art Resource, New York; 154 Cicero Denouncing Catalina Before the Senate (1800s), Cesare Maccari. Wallpainting. Palazzo Madama, Rome. Photo © Scala/Art Resource, New York; 155 left © Vanni Archive/Corbis; right © Archivo Iconografico, S.A./Corbis; 156 Caesar's Forum and Temple of Venus Genetrix, Rome, Italy. Photo © Gianni Dagli Orti/The Art Archive; 158 Hannibal (about 1508-1513). Museo Capitolino, Rome. Photo © Gianni Dagli Orti/The Art Archive; 160 left © Vanni Archive/Corbis; right © Archivo Iconografico, S.A./Corbis; 161 The Death of Julius Caesar (1793), Vincenzo Camuccini. Galleria d'Arte Moderna, Rome. Photo © Alfredo Dagli Orti/The Art Archive; 162 Roman Emperor Augustus with laurel wreath (about 1000), German. Cameo from Lothair cross. Cathedral Treasury Aachen. Photo © Alfredo Dagli Orti/The Art Archive; 164 left © Charles & Josette Lenars/Corbis; right The Granger Collection, New York; 165 Gladiators fighting wild beasts (300s). Roman mosaic from Terranova, Italy. Galleria Borghese, Rome. Photo © Alfredo Dagli Orti/The Art Archive; 166-167 Illustration by John James/Temple Rogers; 167 top © Mimmo Jodice/Corbis; center, bottom © Dorling Kindersley; 168 left © Vanni Archive/Corbis; right © Archivo Iconografico, S.A./Corbis; 169 Christ's Charge to Saint Peter, Raphael. Photo © Victoria and Albert Museum, London/Art Resource, New York; 172 Saint Augustine of Hippo, Bishop and Doctor of the Church (1400s), Swiss. Musée des Beaux Arts, Dijon, France. Photo © Gianni Dagli Orti/The Art Archive; 173 left © Vanni Archive/Corbis; right © Archivo Iconografico, S.A./Corbis; 176 © Stiftung Schleswig-Holsteinische Landesmuseen, Archaologisches Landesmuseum, Schloss Gottorf, Schleswig, Germany; 177 © Charles & Josette Lenars/Corbis; 178 left © Vanni Archive/Corbis; right © Archive Iconografico, S.A./Corbis, 179 left © New Line Cinema/Courtesy of Photofest; top right El Cid in single combat with Martym Gomez at Callaforra (1344). From manuscript Chronicle of Spain. Science Academy, Lisbon, Portugal. Photo © Gianni Dagli Orti/The Art Archive; bottom right Illustration of the Mahabharata (1800s). Indian, Paithan school. Musée des Arts Asiatiques-Guimet, Paris. Photo by Richard Lambert. Photo © Réunion des Musées Nationaux/Art Resource, New York; 181 © Dennis Degnan/Corbis; 182 top © John Heseltine/Corbis; bottom Illustration by Phil Colprit/Wood Ronsaville Harlin, Inc.; 185 © Vittoriano Rastelli/Corbis; 185 MC1-185 MC2 © Images & Stories/Alamy.

Chapter 7

186 Bronze Galloping Horse with One Hoof Resting on a Swallow (100s). Chinese School. Late Han Dynasty, from the Tomb at Wuwei. Photo © Giraudon/The Bridgeman Art Library; **187** left Buff sandstone head of the Buddha (400s), Samath. National Museum of India, New Delhi, India. Photo © The Bridgeman Art Library; center Mask. Kuba people, West Africa. Wood with seashells and pearls. Rijksmuseum voor Volkenkunde Leiden (Leyden). Photo © Gianni Dagli Orti/The Art Archive; right, Shiva Nataraja, Indian, Tamilnadu, early 1200s, Chola period (ca. 890-1279). Bronze, height: 34.25 inches (87.0 cm). The Nelson-Atkins

Museum of Art, Kansas City, Missouri. Purchase: Nelson Trust, 34-7; 188 Illustration by Shannon Stirnweis; 189 left Brahma. Stone relief from Aihole (500s-600s A.D.), Gupta Period, Prince of Wales Museum, Bombay, Maharashtra, India. Photo © Art Resource, New York; right © The Image Bank/Getty Images; 190 top Column of Asoka (200s B.C.). Photo © Borromeo/Art Resource, New York; bottom Pillar of Asoka. Photo © Borromeo/Art Resource, New York; 192 Terracotta tile with a musician (400s A.D.), Central India, Gupta period. © The British Museum, 193 left Brahma. Stone relief from Aihole (500s-600s A.D.). Gupta Period, Prince of Wales Museum, Bombay, Maharashtra, India. Photo © Art Resource, New York; right © The Image Bank/Getty Images; 194 National Museum, New Delhi, India. Photo © Scala/Art Resource, New York; 195 © Monopole-Pathe/Photofest; 198 top Buddha (500s) Bronze. Gupta period. National Museum of India, New Delhi, India. Photo © The Bridgeman Art Library; bottom Stupe no. 3, Early Andhra dynasty. Sandhi, India. Photo © Scala/Art Resource, New York; 199 top © David Cumming/ Eve Ubiquitous/Corbis: center left Ganesa (400s A.D.). Gupta dynasty. From Itar, Museum and Picture Library. Photo © Borromeo/Art Resource, New York; center right © Arvind Garg/Corbis; 200 top left Brahma. Stone relief from Aihole (500s-600s A.D.). Gupta Period, Prince of Wales Museum, Bombay, Maharashtra, India. Photo © Art Resource, New York; top right © The Image Bank/Getty Images; bottom By permission of the British Library; 203 © Bettmann/Corbis; 204-205 The Granger Collection, New York; 205 The Granger Collection, New York; 206 left, Warrior (late Han dynasty, 206 BC-220 AD). Chinese, Terracotta, Musée Cernuschi, Paris, Photo © Gianni Dagli Orti/The Art Archive: right Bronze figurine of Roman legionnaire © The British Museum; 207 © Robert Harding Picture Library; 209 National Museum, Beijing, China. Photo © Erich Lessing/Art Resource, New York.

Chapter 8

210 left Massive stone head. Olmec. Anthropology Museum, Veracruz, Jalapa, Mexico. Photo © Werner Forman/Art Resource, New York; right Bust of Pericles (400s B.C.), Greek school. Vatican Museums and Galleries, Vatican City, Italy. Photo © Alinari/The Bridgeman Art Library; 211 top left Head (900 B.C.-200 A.D.), Nok. Nigeria. Entwistle Gallery, London. Photo © Werner Forman/Art Resource, New York; bottom left Bronze figurine of Roman legionnaire © The British Museum; right © Jane Taylor/Sonia Halliday Photographs; 212 top © David Turnley/Corbis; bottom © Paul Almasy/Corbis; 213 left Asian and Nubian soldiers in the Egyptian army. (second to first millennium B.C.) Collection of Norbert Schimmel, New York. Photo © Erich Lessing/Art Resource, New York; right © Michele Burgess/SuperStock; 214 top left © Martin Dohrn/Photo Researchers; top right © Photowood Inc./Corbis; bottom left © Michael Fogden/Bruce Coleman, Inc.; bottom right © Mary Ann McDonald/Corbis; 215 © Liba Taylor/Corbis; 216 Cave painting of Tassili n'Ajjer, (2nd millennium B.C). Musée de l'Homme, Paris. Henri Lhote Collection. Photo © Erich Lessing/Art Resource, New York; 217 Nok Figure. Private Collection. Photo Joshua Nefsky, New York. Courtesy Entwistle, London; 218 Illustration by Terry Gabbey; 219 Charles Santore/National Geographic Image Collection; 220 Mask. Kuba culture, Zaire. Private Collection. Photo © Aldo Tutino/Art Resource, New York; 223 top left © Joe Mc Donald/Corbis; top right © Photographers Library LTD/eStock Photography/PictureQuest/JupiterImages; bottom © Staffan Widstrand/Corbis; 224 Ngady Amwaash. Kuba Culture of Central Zaire. National Museum, Ghana. Photo © Werner Forman/Art Resource, New York; 225 top left Asian and Nubian soldiers in the Egyptian army (second to first millennium B.C.). Collection of Norbert Schimmel, New York. Photo © Erich Lessing/Art Resource, New York; top right © Michele Burgess/SuperStock; 227 © George Gerster/Rapho/Eyedea; 228 Stela at Axum. Axum, Ethiopia. Photo © Werner Forman/Art Resource, New York; 230 top Charles Santore/National Geographic Image Collection; center © Photographers Library Ltd/eStock Photography/PictureQuest/JupiterImages; bottom © George Gerster/Rapho/Eyedea.

Chapter 9

232 left The Giza Sphinz with the pyramid of Chephren (Old Kingdom, Fourth dynasty). Pyramid of Chefren, Giza, Egypt. Photo © Werner Forman/Art Resource, New York; right © National Museum of Anthropology, Mexico/Explorer, Paris/SuperStock; 233 top Gold monkey-head bead (100-600 A.D.), Mochia, La Mina, Jequetepeque Valley, north coast of Peru. Photo © Werner Forman/ Art Resource, New York; bottom Bust of Emperor Hadrian (100s A.D.), Roman. Galleria degli Uffizi, Florence, Italy. Photo © Alinari/The Bridgeman Art Library; 234 © Chase Studio/Photo Researchers; 235 left © Philip Beaurline/SuperStock; right © Mark Newman/SuperStock; 236 © Steve McCurry/Magnum Photos; 237 top right Kenneth Garrett/National Geographic Image Collection; center left © Warren Morgan/Corbis; center right J. M. Adovasio, Mercyhurst Archaeological Institute; bottom Kenneth Garrett/National Geographic Image Collection; 238 Dale Walde/University of Calgary; 240 left © Philip Beaurline/ SuperStock; right © Mark Newman/SuperStock; 242 © Robert Frerck/Odyssey/Chicago; 244 top Monolithic Olmec head found near La Venta, Mesoamerica, Pre-Columbian, La Venta, Mexico, Photo © SEF/Art Resource, New York; center Colossal Head. Olmec culture. Mesoamerica, Pre-Columbian. La Venta, Mexico. Photo © Scala/Art Resource, New York; bottom Dumbarton Oaks, Pre-Columbian Collection, Washington, D.C.; 245 top Altar no. 4 with Olmec lord in niche beneath jaguar pelt (about A.D. 500–1000), Pre-Columbian. Archaeological garden of La Venta in Villahermosa, Mexico. Photo © Gianni Dagli Orti/ The Art Archive; bottom Standing figure holding a masked "baby" (800-500 B.C.), Olmec, Mexico. Jade, 8 5/8" x 3 3/16" x 1 5/8". On loan to the Brooklyn Museum of Art from the collection of Mr. Robin B. Martin (L47.6); 246 left © Philip Beaurline/ SuperStock; right © Mark Newman/SuperStock; 247 top © Julio Donoso/Corbis Sygma; center © Jonathan Blair/Corbis; bottom © SuperStock; 248 top William Allard/National Geographic Image Collection; center © Philip Baird/ www.anthroarcheart.org; bottom © Yann Arthus-Bertrand/Corbis; 252 top Bust of Pericles (about 430 B.C.), Roman, copy of a Greek original. The British Museum, London. Photo © The Bridgeman Art Library; bottom left Dallas Museum of Art, gift of Ms. Eugene McDermott, The Roberta Coke Camp Fund, and The Art Museum League Fund; bottom right Emperor Liu Ban (1700s) China. British Library. Photo © The Art Archive; 253 top Augustus, Roman Emperor. Marble bust. Musei Capitolini, Rome. Photo © SEF/Art Resource, New York; bottom Courtesy Stephen Album Rare Coins, Santa Rosa, Calif.; 254 top left Pugilist resting (sixth -first century B.C.) Apollonios, or a Roman copy. Museo Nazionale Romano delle Terme, Rome. Photo © Erich Lessing/Art Resource, New York; top center © Archivo Iconografico, S.A./Corbis; top right Bronze figure of the seated Buddha (400s A.D.). Gupta Period. from Danesar Khera, Central India © The British Museum, London; bottom left, center © John Heseltine/Corbis; bottom right Vishnu Temple (400s A.D.) Gupta Period. Photo © Borromeo/Art Resource, New York; 255 top left Flying horse. Easter Han dynasty. China. National Museum, Beijing, China. Photo © Erich Lessing/Art Resource, New York; top right Jade ceremonial axe in form of feline monster. Olmec culture. Veracruz, Mexico. Museum of Mankind, London. Photo © Eileen Tweedy/The Art Archive; bottom left Green glazed model of a tower in three detachable sections. Han Dynasty. Private Collection. Photo © The Bridgeman Art Library; bottom right © Bob Krist/Corbis; 256 top left © Paul Almasy/Corbis; top right © Lindsay Hebberd/Corbis; bottom left © Reuters NewMedia Inc./Corbis; bottom right © Vittoriano Rastelli/Corbis.

UNIT THREE

258-259 Marco Polo leaving Venice. MS Bodl. 264, fol. 218r. Bodleian Library, University of Oxford, Oxford, United Kingdom. Chapter 10

260 top © Bettmann/Corbis; bottom Detail of Scepter of King Charles V of France, surmounted by a statue of Charlemagne. Louvre, Paris. Photo © Erich Lessing/Art Resource, New York; **261** top, Anatomy of the Eye (592), Arabian manuscript. Of the

Hegira (1214), Al-Mutadibih. Egyptian Museum, Cairo. Photo © Gianni Dagli Orti/The Art Archive; bottom © Stapleton Collection/Corbis; 262 Illustration by Yuan Lee; 263 left © Stone/Getty Images; right Steve Raymer/National Geographic Image Collection; 265 Abraham's elephants charging under the Ka'Bah (1368). From the Apostles Biography. Illuminated manuscript. Topkapi Museum, Istanbul, Turkey. Photo © Eileen Tweedy/The Art Archive; 266 top left © Ted Spiegel/Corbis; top right © Hanan Isachar/Corbis; bottom © Rostislav Glinsky/Shutterstock; 267 Qu'ran Ju/XXVII. Mamluk (1300s). Arabic School. Private Collection. Photo © Bonhams, London/The Bridgeman Art Library; 268 © Murat Ayranci/SuperStock; 269 left © Stone/Getty Images; right Steve Raymer/National Geographic Image Collection; 270 Battle of the tribes. Illumination from Add. Or 25900, f. 121v. By permission of the British Library; 272 © Sonia Halliday Photographs; 273 left © Stone/Getty Images; right Steve Raymer/National Geographic Image Collection; 274 Persian Garden Party. MS Elliott 189, f. 192. Photo © Bodleian Library, Oxford, United Kingdom; 275 top Photo © Gianni Dagli Orti/University Library, Istanbul, Turkey/ The Art Archive; center, bottom The Granger Collection, New York; 277 left © Arthur Thévenart/Corbis; top right © Peter Sanders; center right, bottom right © Arthur Thévenart/Corbis; 278 © Brian Lawrence/ImageState.

World Religions

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Chapter 11

298 © Ancient Art & Architecture Collection Ltd.; 299 top left, Moorish Archer on Horseback. Chinese, Ming Dynasty. Photo © Victoria and Albert Museum, London/Art Resource, New York; 299 top right Moorish forces surrounding Constantinople (1200s). folio 43V of Canticles of Saint Mary, manuscript by Alfonso X the Wise, King of Castile and Leon. Real Biblioteca de lo Escorial. Photo © Gianni Dagli Orti/The Art Archive; bottom Council of Clermont. Arrival of Pope Urban II in France. (1337) Miniature from the Toman de Godefroi de Bouillon. Bibliothéque Nationale, Paris. Photo © Giraudon/Art Resource, New York; 300 Timur's invasion of India. Victoria and Albert Museum, London. Photo © Eileen Tweedy/The Art Archive; 301 top left © Stone/Getty Images; top right, The Archangel Michael (2nd half 1300s). Russian Byzantine icon. Tretyakov Gallery, Moscow. Photo © Scala/Art Resource, New York; bottom Greek cross (1000s). Byzantine. Museo della Civilta Romana, Rome. Photo © Gianni Dagli Orti/The Art Archive; 302 © Sadik Demiroz/SuperStock; 303 Theodora. © R. Sheridan/Ancient Art & Architecture Collection Ltd.; 304 © Jonathan Blair/Corbis; 305 © Alessandro Bianchi/Reuters/Corbis; 306 Chalice (1000s). Byzantine. Basilica San Marco, Venice. Photo © Gianni Dagli Orti/The Art Archive; 307 left © Stone/Getty Images; right, The Archangel Michael (2nd half 1300s). Russian Byzantine icon. Tretyakov Gallery, Moscow. Photo © Scala/Art Resource, New York; 311 © Archivo Iconografico, S.A./Corbis; 312 top © Archivo Iconografico, S.A./Corbis; center © Massimo Listri/Corbis; bottom Scribe writing out the Gospel (late 1400s). Hermitage, St. Petersburg, Russia. Photo © The Bridgeman Art Library; 312-313 Church of the Assumption, Varzuga, Kola Peninsula, Russia. Photo © Vadim Gippenreiter/The Bridgeman Art Library; 313 © Elio Ciol/Corbis; 314 left © Stone/Getty Images; right, The Archangel Michael (2nd half 1300s). Russian Byzantine icon. Tretyakov Gallery, Moscow. Photo © Scala/Art Resource, New York; 315 © Jose Fuste Raga/Corbis; 316 top Or. MS 20, f. 124v. By permission of the Edinburgh University Library; 317 © The Image Bank/Getty Images.

Chapter 12

320 left Female polo player (700s). Tang Dynasty. Photo by Roger Asselberghe. Musée des Arts Asiatiques-Guimet, Paris. Photo © Erich Lessing/Réunion des Musées Nationaux/Art Resource, New York; right Quetzalcoatl, (post Classical period, ninth—13th century). Photo © Joseph Martin/The Art Archive; 321 left Pope Leo IX excommunicating Michael Keroularios (1400s). Greek manuscript. Biblioteca Nazionale, Palermo, Italy. Photo © Gianni Dagli Orti/The Art Archive; right Ariwara-no-Narihara, Japanese poet (1100s-1200s). Kamakura period. Silk painting. Photo © Gianni Dagli Orti/Paris/The Art Archive; 322 left © Dorling Kindersley; center © Keren Su/Corbis; right Photograph by Sharon Hoogstraten; 323 left © Kelly-Mooney Photography/Corbis; right © Ernest Manewal/SuperStock; 324 top Emperor Tang Taizong. National Palace Museum, Taipei. Photo © Wan-go Weng; bottom Empress Wu Zetian (1700s). Tang dynasty. Chinese. British Library. Photo © The Art Archive; 325 © William Whitehurst/Corbis; 326 top Tu Fu (1700s). Chinese. The British Museum, London. Photo © The Art Archive; bottom © Burstein Collection/Corbis; 328 inset Small plate. Northern Sung dynasty, China. Musée Guimet, Paris. Photo © Gianni Dagli Orti/The Art Archive; 328 top Porcelain flask (early 1400s), Ming dynasty. China. Photo © Victoria and Albert Museum, London/Art Resource, New York; bottom Ontario Science Center, Toronto, Canada; 329 Illustration by Peter Dennis; 330 top © Kelly-Mooney Photography/Corbis; right Temple of Angkor Wat, Cambodia. Photo © Ernest Manewal/SuperStock; 331 James L. Stanfield/National Geographic Image Collection; 332-333 Illustration by Patrick Whelan; 335 left © Kelly-Mooney Photography/Corbis; right Temple of Angkor Wat, Cambodia. © Ernest Manewal/SuperStock; 336 © The Granger Collection, New York; 337 top William H. Boyd/National Geographic Image Collection; bottom © Biblioteca Nazionale, Turin, Italy/Silvio Fiore/SuperStock; 339 left © Kelly-Mooney Photography/Corbis; right Temple of Angkor Wat, Cambodia. Photo © Ernest Manewal/SuperStock; 341 © Laurie Platt Winfrey, Inc.; 342 top Tomoe, a brave woman of the Genji and Heishi period (about 900 A.D.). Photo © The Art Archive; bottom Illustration by Peter Dennis; 344 left © Kelly-Mooney Photography/Corbis; right Temple of Angkor Wat, Cambodia. © Ernest Manewal/SuperStock; 345 top © Dave G. Houser/Corbis; bottom © Steve Vidler/SuperStock; 346 The man god Dangun, Korean School. Natural pigment on paper, 52 cm x 80 cm. Gahoe Museum, Jongnogu, South Korea. © The Bridgeman Art Library; 349 MC1-349 MC2 © Burstein Collection/Corbis.

Chapter 13

350 Feats of the noble prince Charles Martel. Musée Goya, Castres, France. Photo © Giraudon/Art Resource, New York; 351 top left Vendel warrior's helmet (600s). From the Vendel boat grave no. 1, Uppland, Sweden. Statens Historiska Museet, Stockholm, Sweden. Photo © Werner Forman/Art Resource, New York; top right Imperial orb (First half 1000s). Kunsthistorisches Museum, Vienna. Photo © Erich Lessing/Art Resource, New York; bottom, The Genies Gathering Over the Sea. Poem by Ma Lin on silk. (A.D. 960–1279), Chinese, Song dynasty. Calligraphy. Musée des Arts, Asiatiques—Guimet. Paris. Inv.: EG 2146. Photo by Michel Urtado. Photo © Réunion des Musées Nationaux/Art Resource, New York; 352 Month of June from the Grimani Breviary (1500s).

Biblioteca Marciana, Venice. Photo © Scala/Art Resource, New York; 353 left © Chris Bland/Eye Ubiquitous/Corbis; right The army leaves after sack of town (1300s), Manuscript, Biblioteca Nazionale Marciana, Venice, Photo © Alfredo Dagli Orti/The Art Archive; 354 Golden Bull, (about 1390). Illumination on parchment. Bildarchiv der Osterreichische Nationalbibliothek, Vienna, Austria; 355 left, Saint Benedict, Hans Memling. Uffizi, Florence, Italy. Photo © Scala/Art Resource, New York; right, St. Scholastica © National Gallery Collection; By kind permission of the trustees of the National Gallery, London/Corbis; 357 Portrait of Charlemagne, Albrecht Durer. © Germanisches Nationalmuseum, Nuremberg, Germany. Photo © Lauros-Giraudon, Paris/SuperStock; 358 top left © Chris Bland/ Eye Ubiquitous/Corbis; top right The army leaves after sack of town (1300s) Manuscript. Biblioteca Nazionale Marciana, Venice. Photo © Alfredo Dagli Orti/The Art Archive; bottom © Dorling Kindersley; 361 Illustration by Terry Gabbey; 361 Illustration by Terry Gabbey; 362 © North Wind Picture Archives; 363 Two men beating corn with flails (about 1320). From The Luttrell Psalter. The British Library, London. Photo © HIP/Art Resource, New York; 364 top left © Chris Bland/Eye Ubiquitous/Corbis; top right The army leaves after sack of town (1300s) Manuscript. Biblioteca Nazionale Marciana, Venice. Photo © Dagli Orti/The Art Archive; bottom Royal Armouries; 365 St. George and the Dragon (about 1460), Paolo Uccello. National Gallery, London. Photo © The Bridgeman Art Library; 366 Illustration by Wood Ronsaville Harlin, Inc.; 367 Courtesy of Photofest; 368 left © Archivo Iconografico, S.A./Corbis; right, Peasant Woman With Scythe and Rake, Alexei Venetsianov, Photo © The State Russian Museum/Corbis; 369 MS Bruxelles, B.R. 9961-62, fol. 91v. Photo © Bibliotheque Royal Albert ler, Brussels, Belgium; 370 top left © Chris Bland/ Eye Ubiquitous/Corbis; top right The army leaves after sack of town (1300s) Manuscript. Biblioteca Nazionale Marciana, Venice. Photo © Alfredo Dagli Orti/The Art Archive; bottom Museo Tesoro di San Pietro, Vatican State. Photo © Scala/Art Resource, New York; 371 © Aaron Horowitz/Corbis; 372 Mapping Specialists; 373 Frederick 1 Barbarossa and his Sons (1100s). German School. Landes Bibliothek, Fulda, Germany. Photo © Alinari/The Bridgeman Art Library.

Chapter 14

376 left © Gianni Dagli Orti/Corbis; right, William the Conqueror (1289). Cloister of the Church of the Annunciation, Florence, Italy. Photo © Gianni Dagli Orti/The Art Archive; 377 left Portrait of Genghis Khan. National Palace Museum, Taipei, Taiwan. Photo © The Bridgeman Art Library; right, Hours of Marguerite de Coetivy: The Final Moments (1400s). Ms. 74/1088 f. 90. Musée Conde, Chantilly, France. Photo © Giraudon/Art Resource, New York; 378 Richard Coeur de Lion on his way to Jerusalem, James William Glass. Phillips, The International Fine Art Auctioneers, United Kingdom. Photo © The Bridgeman Art Library; 379 left © Corbis; right © Archivo Iconografico, S.A./Corbis; 381 left Harry Bliss/National Geographic Image Collection; top right © Daniel Thierry/Photononstop/Photolibrary; center right, bottom right, Portrait of the Good Samaritan (1200s). Stained glass. Chartres Cathedral, France. Photo © Giraudon/Art Resource, New York; 382 Mary Evans Picture Library; 384 left © Bettmann/Corbis; right, Portrait of Saladin, Sultan of Egypt. Museo di Andrea del Castagno, Uffizi, Florence. Photo © SEF/Art Resource, New York; 385 Scene at Court (1710–1720), Alessandro Magnasco. Kunthistorisches Museum, Vienna. Photo © Erich Lessing/Art Resource, New York; 386 By permission of the British Library; 387 left © Corbis; right © Archivo Iconografico, S.A./Corbis; 388 Illustration by Peter Dennis/Linda Rogers Associates; 389 Fish Market, Joachim Beuklelaer. Museo Nazionale de Capodimonte, Naples, Italy. Photo © Alinari/Art Resource, New York; 391 Imaginary portrait of Avicenna Ibn Sina. French School. Bibliotheque de la Faculte de Medecine, Paris. Photo © Archives Charmet/The Bridgeman Art Library; 392 St. Thomas Aquinas from the Demidoff Altarpiece, Carlo Crivelli. Photo © National Gallery Collection/By kind permission of the Trustees of the National Gallery, London/Corbis; 393 left © Corbis; right © Archivo Iconografico, S.A./Corbis; 394 Eleanor of Aquitaine (1800s), French School. Bibliotheque Nationale, Paris. Photo © The Bridgemann Art Library; 395 National Archives; 396 MS français 6465, f. 212 v. Bibliotheque Nationale, Paris. Photo by AKG London; 398 left © Corbis; right © Archivo Iconografico, S.A./Corbis; 399 The Triumph of Death (late 1400s). Flemish. Musée du Berry, Bourges, France. Photo © Bridgeman- Giraudon/Art Resource, New York; 402 Illustration by Peter Dennis/Linda Rogers Associates; 403 © Christie's Images/Corbis; 405 MC1–405 MC2 © The Gallery Collection/Corbis.

Chapter 15

406 top © Paul Almasy/Corbis; bottom © Bettmann/Corbis; 407 top Mansu Musa, King of Mali. The Granger Collection, New York; bottom Death strangling a victim of the plague (1300s), Czechoslovakia. From the Stitny Codex. University Library, Prague, Czech Republic. Photo © Werner Forman/Art Resource, New York; 408 Illustration by Yuan Lee; 409 left, right © Michele Burgess/ SuperStock; 412 © Richard Bickel/Corbis; 413 left, right © Michele Burgess/SuperStock; 416 Mansu Musa, King of Mali. The Granger Collection, New York; 418 © North Carolina Museum of Art/Corbis; 419 © Seattle Art Museum/Corbis; 420 top Benin, Queen Mother head. Photo © The British Museum; bottom Plaque which decorated the palace of Benin Obas © Werner Forman/ Art Resource, New York; 421 top Illustration by Yuan Lee; bottom left Bronze figure of a horn blower (late 1500s-early 1600s A.D.), Edo. Benin Kingdom, Nigeria. Photo © The British Museum; bottom right Benin, cast figure, bronze aquamanile. Benin Kingdom, Nigeria. Photo © The British Museum; 422 left, right © Michele Burgess/SuperStock; 424, 425 The Granger Collection, New York; 426 top left © Colin Hoskins/Cordaiy Photo Library Ltd./Corbis; top right Anthony Bannister/Gallo Images/Getty Images; bottom © Robert Preston/Alamy Ltd; 433 top © Nik Wheeler/Corbis; center right Astrolabe (800s) Ahmad İbu Khalaf. Bibliotheque Nationale de Cartes et Plans, Paris, France. Photo © The Bridgeman Art Library; center left Camel (700s A.D.) from tomb of Cungpu, Shaanxi province, China. Genius of China Exhibition. Photo © The Art Archive; bottom © Science & Society Picture Library, London; 434 top left Chinese moon flask decorated in famille rose colors with birds and flowers (1200s-1300s.) Yuan Dynasty. Percival David Foundation for Chinese Art/Harper Collins Publishers. Photo © The Art Archive; top right Spoon (1500-1600s) Edo peoples, Benin Kingdom, Nigeria. Bequest of Mrs. Robert Woods Bliss. National Museum of African Art, Smithsonian Institution, Washington, D.C. Photo © Aldo Tutino/Art Resource, New York; bottom Photograph by Sharon Hoogstraten.

UNIT FOUR

436–437 La Salle's Louisiana Expedition in 1684 (1844), J.A. Theodore Gudin. Photo © Réunion des Musées Nationaux/Art Resource, New York.

Chapter 16

438 *left* © Charles & Josette Lenars/Corbis; *right* Crown of the Holy Roman Empire (about 962). Kuntshistorisches Museum, Vienna, Austria. Photo © Erich Lessing/Art Resource, New York; **439** *top* Fertility goddess (pre-Columbian), Aztec. The British Museum, London. Photo © Werner Forman/Art Resource, New York; *bottom* © David Lees/Corbis; **440** Thunderbird Hamatsa headdress (early 1900s), Native American, Kwakwaka'wakw. Yellow cedar, cedar bark, cloth and paint, 10" x 14.5" x 24.5" (25.4 cm x 36.83 cm x 62.23 cm). Seattle Art Museum, Gift of John H. Hauberg. Photo © Paul Macapia; **441** *left* © Explorer, Paris/SuperStock; *right* © Tim Hursley/SuperStock; **443** © Corbis; **444** © Richard A. Cooke/Corbis; **446** *left* © Explorer, Paris/SuperStock; *right* © Tim Hursley/SuperStock; *bottom* Jade mask used in burial rituals (600s), Classic Maya. Excavated from the Temple of Inscriptions at Palenque. Museo Nacional de Antropologia, Mexico City. Photo © Werner Forman/Art Resource, New York; **448** (Detail of) Prisoners marching as a result of destruction of the land of Mu from Maya codex Troano or Tro-Cortesianus. Antochiw Collection, Mexico. Photo © Mireille Vautier/The Art Archive; **450** *left* The Granger Collection, New York;

right Two-headed jaguar throne from Uxmal, Yucatan, Maya. Photo © Danielle Gustafson/Art Resource, New York; 450-451 © Alison Wright/Corbis; 451 left © Ludovic Maisant/Corbis; right Ball court at Chichen Itza, Maya, Yucatan, Mexico. Photo © Dagli Orti/The Art Archive; 452 top left © Explorer, Paris/SuperStock; top right © Tim Hursley/SuperStock; bottom Quetzalcoatl (900s), Toltec. Western Yucatan, Mexico. Photo © Dagli Orti/The Art Archive; 453 © Angelo Hornak/Corbis; 454 Eagle warrior (pre-Columbian), Aztec. Mueseo del Templo Mayor, Mexico City. Photo © Michel Zabe/Art Resource, New York; 456 Detail of The Aztec World (1929), Diego Rivera. Mural. National Palace Museum, Mexico City. © Banco de Mexico Trust. Photo © Schalkwijk/Art Resource, New York; 457 top (Detail of) Codex Vaticanus Mexico (before 1500), Aztec. Mexican National Library. Photo © Mireille Vautier/The Art Archive; center Aztec Calendar Stone, from Tenochtitlan (Mexico City), carved after 1502 under Montezuma II. Diameter, 11.5' (3.5 m). Museo Nacional de Antropologia, Mexico City. Photo © Michel Zabe/Art Resource, New York; bottom Solar calendar (reconstruction), Aztec, Mexica culture. National Anthropological Museum, Mexico. Photo © Dagli Orti/The Art Archive; 459 left © Explorer, Paris/SuperStock; right © Tim Hursley/SuperStock; 460 Pachacutic Inca IX, detail from Geneaology (1700s), Cuzco School. Museo Pedro de Osma, Lima, Peru. Photo © Mireille Vautier/The Art Archive; 462 Machu Picchu, Peru, seen from royal quarters and House of the Inca. Photo © Gianni Dagli Orti/The Art Archive; 464 top Parading a sacred Inca mummy on a litter (1565), Felipe Guanman Poma de Ayala. From El Primer Nueva Coronica y buen Gobierno, Perus codex facsimile. Royal Library, Copenhagen, Denmark. Photo © Nick Saunders Barbara Heller Photo Library, London/Art Resource, New York; bottom Stephen Alvarez/National Geographic Image Collection; 465 top © 2003 Ira Block; center Illustration by John Dawson/National Geographic Image Collection; bottom The Granger Collection; 466 top © Corbis; 2nd Jade mask used in burial rituals (600s), Classic Maya. Excavated from the Temple of Inscriptions at Palenque. Museo Nacional de Antropologia, Mexico City. Photo © Werner Forman/Art Resource, New York; 3rd Quetzalcoatl (900s), Toltec, Western Yucatan, Mexico. Photo © Dagli Orti/The Art Archive; bottom Machu Picchu, Peru, seen from royal quarters and House of the Inca. Photo © Gianni Dagli Orti/The Art Archive; 467 Map of Tenochtitlan and the Gulf of Mexico, from Praeclara Ferdinadi Cortesii de Nova maris Oceani Hyspania Narratio (1524), Hernando Cortes. Color lithograph. Photo © Newberry Library, Chicago/Bridgeman Art Library; 467 MC1-467 MC2 © imagebroker/Alamy.

Chapter 17

468 top Bust of Lorenzo de Medici (1400s or 1500s). Museo di Andrea del Castagno, Uffizi, Florence, Italy. Photo © Scala/Art Resource, New York; bottom Jar (1426–1435), Ming dynasty, Xuande mark and period. Chinese. Porcelain painted in underglaze blue; 19" high: Diameter 19 in. Gift of Robert E. Tod, 1937 (37.191.1), The Metropolitan Museum of Art, New York. Photo © 1986 The Metropolitan Museum of Art; 469 left, Gutenberg Bible (about 1455). Volume II, f. 45v-46. PML 818 ch1 ff1. The Pierpont Morgan Library, New York. Photo © The Pierpont Morgan Library/Art Resource, New York; right Detail of Nobles entertained in garden by musicians and dancers (about 1590), Mughal. Photo © British Library/The Art Archive; 470 The Madonna of Chancellor Rolin (about 1434), Jan van Eyck, Louvre, Paris. Photo © Scala/Art Resource, New York; 471 left © Photodisc/Getty Images; right © Ulf E. Wallin/The Image Bank/Getty Images; 472 (Detail of) Lorenzo de Medici and the Arts in Florence (about 1634) Giovanni da Sangiovanni. Palazzo Pitti, Florence, Italy. Photo © Alfredo Dagli Orti/The Art Archive; 473 left, Portrait of Baldassare Castilione, Raphael. Louvre, Paris. © Scala/ Art Resource, New York; right The Granger Collection, New York; 474 Marriage of the Virgin (1504), Raphael. Pinocoteca di Brera, Milan, Italy. Photo © Scala/Art Resource, New York; 475 top © Stephano Bianchetti/Corbis; bottom The Granger Collection, New York; 476 Portrait of Niccolo Machiavelli, Santi di Tito. Palazzo Vecchio, Florence, Italy. Photo © Erich Lessing/Art Resource, New York; 477 The Granger Collection, New York; 478 left, Mona Lisa (1503-1506), Leonardo da Vinci. Louvre, Paris. Photo by R. G. Ojeda. Photo © Réunion des Musées Nationaux/Art Resource, New York; 478-479 © SuperStock; 479 top, The School of Athens (1400s), Raphael. Stanza della Segnatura, Vatican Palace, Vatican State. 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Wallin/The Image Bank/Getty Images; 489 Portrait of Martin Luther (1529) Lucas Cranach the Elder. Museo Poldi Pezzoli, Milan, Italy. Photo © The Bridgeman Art Library; 492 left, Portrait of Henry VIII, King of England (1540), Hans Holbein the Younger. Galleria Nazionale d'Arte Antica, Rome. Photo © Scala/Art Resource, New York; right, Anne Boleyn (about 1530), unknown artist. Oil on wood panel. National Portrait Gallery, London. © National Portrait Gallery/SuperStock; 493 top left © Stapleton Collection/Corbis; bottom left, Mary I Tudor (1554), Antonis Moro or Mor. Museo del Prado, Madrid. Photo © Gianni Dagli Orti/The Art Archive; right, Elizabeth I, Queen of England, Federico Zuccari. Pinacoteca Nacionale di Siena. Photo © Gianni Dagli Orti/The Art Archive; 494 Elizabeth l (about 1588), George Gower. Oil on wood panel. National Portrait Gallery, London. © National Portrait Gallery/SuperStock; 495 left © Photodisc/Getty Images; right © Ulf E. Wallin/The Image Bank/Getty Images; 496 John Calvin as a young man, Flemish School. Bibliotheque Publique et Universitaire, Geneva, Switzerland. Photo © Erich Lessing/Art Resource, New York; 498 Marguerite d'Angouleme, Queen of Navarre (1500s). Musée Condé, Chantilly, France. Photo © Réunion des Musées Nationaux/Art Resource, New York; 499 Pope Paul III Farnese at the Council of Trent (1560-1566), Taddeo and Federico Zuccari. Farnese Palace, Caprarola, Italy. Photo © Aİfredo Dagli Orti/The Art Archive; 500 © Richard T. Nowitz/Corbis; 501 Martin Luther, German priest and Protestant reformer, caricature as seven-headed monster. Photo © The British Library/The Art Archive.; 502 top © SuperStock; 2nd, Illustration by Peter Dennis/Linda Rogers Associates; 3rd, Portrait of Martin Luther (1529) Lucas Cranach the Elder. Museo Poldi Pezzoli, Milan, Italy. Photo © The Bridgeman Art Library; bottom Detail of Pope Paul III Farnese at the Council of Trent (1560-1566), Taddeo and Federico Zuccari. Farnese Palace, Caprarola, Italy. Photo © Alfredo Dagli Orti/The Art Archive; © Bettmann/Corbis.

Chapter 18

504 top Topkapi Palace Museum, Istanbul, Turkey. Photo © Sonia Halliday and Laura Lushington; bottom left Pectoral ornament in the form of a double-headed serpent. Aztec. British Museum, London. Photo © Werner Forman/Art Resource, New York; bottom right By permission of the British Library; 505 © Burstein Collection/Corbis; 506 Shah Tahmasp I receiving the Moghul Emperor Humayun (1660's). Period of Abbas II. Chihil Sutun, Isfahan, Iran. Photo © SEF/Art Resource, New York; 507 left James L. Stanfield/National Geographic Image Collection; right © SuperStock; 509 Taking of Constantinople by the Turks, MS Fr. 9087 f. 207. Voyage d-Outremer de Bertrand de la Broquiere Bibliotheque Nationale, Paris. Photo © Sonia Halliday Photographs; 510 Sulieman the Magnificent. Galleria degli Uffizi, Florence, Italy. Photo © Dagli Orti/The Art Archive; 511 © Sonia Halliday

Photographs; **513** Shah Abbas I (1640s). Safavid mural. Chihil Sutun, Isfahan, Iran. Photo © SEF/Art Resource, New York; **514** Mapping Specialists; **515** Dome of south Iwan (1611–1638). Safavid dynasty. Majid-i Shah, Isfahan, Iran. Photo © SEF/Art Resource, New York; **516** *left* James L. Stanfield/National Geographic Image Collection; *right* © SuperStock; **518** Portrait of Akbar and Prince Salim (1800s). India, Mughal. Gift of Sally Sample Aal, 1997. Inv. 97.19.16. The Newark Museum, Newark, New Jersey. Photo © The Newark Museum/Art Resource, New York; **519** *left* © Bettmann/Corbis; *center left, center right, right* AP/Wide World Photos; **520** © Brian A. Vikander/Corbis; **522** *top* Dagger handle in the form of a horse's head. Mughal. India. Victoria and Albert Museum, London. Photo © Victoria and Albert Museum, London/The Bridgeman Art Library; bottom © Abbie Enock/Travel Ink/Corbis; **523** *left* Akbar on the elephant Hawai pursuing the elephant rau Bagha (about 1590). Double page miniature from the Akbarnama. Mughal. Photo © Victoria and Albert Museum, London/Art Resource, New York; *right* Tent hanging (early 1700s). Mughal dynasty. Victoria and Albert Museum, London. Photo © Victoria and Albert Museum, London/Art Resource, New York.

Chapter 19

526 left Helmet (about 1500) Turkish. Photo © Victoria and Albert Museum, London/Art Resource, New York; right Detail of St. Vincent Polyptych (1400s), Nuno Goncalves. Museu Nacional de Arte Antiga, Lisbon, Portugal. Photo © Scala/Art Resource, New York; 527 left © The Flag Institute; right, Washington Crossing the Delaware (1851), Eastman Johnson. Copy after the Emmanuel Leutze painting in the Metropolitan Museum, New York. Private collection. Photo © Art Resource, New York; 528 India Orientalis (1606) Gerard Mercator and Jodocus Hondius from Atlas sive cosmographicae Meditationes; 529 top left © Culver Pictures, Inc./SuperStock; top right K'ossu (about 1600), Late Ming dynasty. China. Victoria and Albert Museum, London. Photo © Sally Chappell/The Art Archive; bottom Globe (about 1492), Martin Behaim. Bibliotheque Nationale, Paris, Photo © Giraudon/Art Resource, New York; 530 Detail of St. Vincent Polyptych (1400s), Nuno Goncalves. Museu Nacional de Arte Antiga, Lisbon, Portugal. Photo © Scala/Art Resource, New York; 531 top Demonstrating the usage of a sextant. Illustration from Les Premieres oeuvres de Jacques Delvaux pillote en la marine. 1583. Ms. fr. 150, fol. 21 r. Bibliothèque National, Paris, France. Photo © Bridgeman-Giraudon / Art Resource; bottom left Compass with sextant and dial (1617), Elias Allen. Photo © Victoria and Albert Museum, London/Art Resource, New York; bottom right © Dorling Kindersley; 532 © Bettman/Corbis; 533 © Stapleton Collection/Corbis; 535 © Morton Beebe/Corbis; 536 top left © Culver Pictures, Inc./Superstock; top right K'ossu (about 1600), Late Ming dynasty. China. Victoria & Albert Museum, London. Photo © Sally Chappell/The Art Archive; bottom Ming vase. Chinese School. Musée Guimet, Paris, France. Photo © The Bridgeman Art Library; 538 top left © Brian A. Vikander/Corbis; bottom left © John T. Young/Corbis; bottom right © Harvey Lloyd/Getty Images; 539 Portrait of emperor Kangxi in casual dress reading books, Qing Dynasty. Photo © Hu Weibiao/Panorama/The Image Works, Inc.; 540 Marriage ceremony (1800s), China. Victoria and Albert Museum, London. Photo © Eileen Tweedy/The Art Archive; 541 The Granger Collection, New York; 542 top left © Culver Pictures, Inc./SuperStock; top right K'ossu (about 1600), Late Ming dynasty. China. Victoria and Albert Museum, London. Photo © Sally Chappell /The Art Archive; bottom Japanese armor (1550, Muromachi period). Steel, silk and bronze, height 66". The Granger Collection, New York; 543 © B.S.P.I./Corbis; 544 © Asian Art & Archeology/Corbis; 545 left © Asian Art & Archaeology/Corbis; right © Michael S. Yamashita/Corbis; 546 © 1995 Christie's Images Limited; 547 Monk Tokiyori. Musée des Arts, Asiatiques-Guimet, Paris. Photo by Richard Lambert. Photo © Réunion des Musées Nationaux/Art Resource, New York; 548 Dutch Merchant ship plate (1756), Qing dynasty. China. Musée des Arts Asiatiques-Guimet, Paris. Photo by Richard Lambert. Photo © Réunion des Musées Nationaux/Art Resource, New York; 549 The Granger Collection, New York.

Chapter 20

550 top © Archivo Iconografico, S.A./Corbis; bottom, Portrait of Tokugawa Ieyasu (1600s), Japanese. Private Collection. Photo © The Bridgeman Art Library; 551 top The Granger Collection, New York; bottom, The Taking of the Bastille, 14 July 1789 (1700s), French school. Musée de la Ville de Paris, Musée Carnevalet, Paris. Photo © The Bridgeman Art Library; 552 Battle for Tenochtitlan between Cortes and Spaniards and Aztecs. Antochiw Collection, Mexico. Photo © Mireille Vautier/The Art Archive; 553 left © Bettmann/Corbis; right (Detail of) Letter from Christopher Columbus to his son Diego (February 5, 1505). General Archive of the Indies, Seville, Spain. Photo © Gianni Dagli Orti/The Art Archive; 554 Christopher Columbus (1400s), Sebastiano del Piombo. Metropolitan Museum of Art, New York. Photo © The Bridgeman Art Library; 557 left The Granger Collection, New York; right South American Pictures; 558, 560 The Granger Collection, New York; 561 left © Bettmann/Corbis; right (Detail of) Letter from Christopher Columbus to his son Diego (February 5, 1505). General Archive of the Indies, Seville, Spain. Photo © Gianni Dagli Orti/The Art Archive; 562 The Granger Collection, New York; 563 North Carolina Collection, University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill; 566 left © Bettmann/Corbis; right (Detail of) Letter from Christopher Columbus to his son Diego (February 5, 1505). General Archive of the Indies, Seville, Spain. Photo © Gianni Dagli Orti/The Art Archive; 567 The Granger Collection, New York; 569 left The Granger Collection, New York; right The Newberry Library, Chicago; 571 right © Bettmann/Corbis; left (Detail of) Letter from Christopher Columbus to his son Diego (February 5, 1505). General Archive of the Indies, Seville, Spain. Photo © Gianni Dagli Orti/The Art Archive; 573, 577 The Granger Collection, New York; 577 MC1-577 MC2 © Cummer Museum of Art & Gardens/SuperStock; 578 Portrait of the last Inca Chief, Atanualpa. Private Collection. Photo © The Bridgeman Art Library; 579 top left, Cosimo de' Medici the Elder, Agnolo Bronzino. Uffizi, Florence. Photo © Scala/Art Resource, New York; top right © Sakamoto Photo Research Laboratory/Corbis; bottom © Bettmann/Corbis; 581 top © Araldo de Luca/Corbis; bottom left Nautilus Pitcher (about 1570). Francesco I de Medici Collection. Museo degli Argenti, Florence. Photo © Erich Lessing/Art Resource, New York; bottom right John Bigelow Taylor/American Museum of Natural History, NO. 4959(2); 582 top © Steve Vidler/SuperStock; bottom © Yann Arthur-Bertrand/Corbis; 583 © Archivo Iconografico, S.A./Corbis.

UNIT FIVE

584–585 The Taking of the Bastille, July 14, 1789, Anonymous French painter. Chateaux de Versailles et de Trianon, Versailles, France. Photo © Erich Lessing/Art Resource, New York.

Chapter 21

586 top, Philip II, King of Spain and Portugal (1500s), Alonso Sanchez Coello. Museo del Prado, Madrid, Spain. Photo © Erich Lessing/Art Resource, New York; bottom, Francisco Pizarro (1835), Amable-Paul Coutan. Chateau de Versailles et de Trianon, Versailles, France. Photo by Franck Raux. Photo © Réunion des Musées Nationaux/Art Resource, New York; 587 top The Granger Collection, New York; bottom © Pallava Bagla/Corbis; 588 Louis XIV, King of France (1701), Hyacinthe Rigaud. Louvre, Paris. Photo © Erich Lessing/Art Resource, New York; 589 left (detail of) Marriage of Louis XIV, King of France and Marie Therese of Austria (1600s), unknown artist. Musée de Tesse, Le Mans, France. Photo © Gianni Dagli Orti/The Art Archive; right © Todd A. Gipstein/Corbis; 590 The Granger Collection, New York; 591 Las Meninas or The Family of Philip IV (about 1656), Diego Rodriguez de Silva y Velasquez. Prado, Madrid, Spain. Photo © The Bridgeman Art Library; 592 Tulipa gesaeriana no. 1908 (late 1500s-early 1600s), Jacopo Ligozzi. Gabinetto dei Disegni e delle Stampe. Ufizzi, Florence. Photo © Scala/Art Resource, New York; 593 The Granger Collection, New York; 596 left (detail of) Marriage of Louis XIV, King of France and Marie Therese of Austria (1600s), unknown artist. Musée de Tesse, Le Mans, France. Photo © Gianni Dagli Orti/The Art Archive; right © Todd A.

Gipstein/Corbis; 597 Cardinal Richelieu (1636), Phillippe de Champaigne. Musée Condé, Chantilly, France. Photo © Erich Lessing/Art Resource, New York; 598 Louis XIV, King of France (1600s), follower of Pierre Mignard. Contemporary copy after a lost portrait by Mignard. Oil on canvas, 105 cm x 90 cm. Cat. 2299. Museo del Prado, Madrid. Photo © Erich Lessing/Art Resource, New York; 599 Louis de Rouvroy, Duke of Saint-Simon (1887), Viger du Vigneau. Chateaux de Versailles et de Trianon, Versailles, France. Photo © Réunion des Musées Nationaux/Art Resource, New York; 600 top right © Ben Mangor/SuperStock; top center © Adam Woolfitt/Corbis; top left © Archivo Iconografico, S.A./Corbis; bottom © Archivo Iconografico, S.A./Corbis; 601 Battle of Denain, 24th July 1712 (1839), Jean Alaux. Chateau de Versailles, France. Photo © Giraudon/The Bridgeman Art Library; 603 left (detail of) Marriage of Louis XIV, King of France and Marie Therese of Austria (1600s), unknown artist. Musée de Tesse, Le Mans, France. Photo © Gianni Dagli Orti/The Art Archive; right © Todd A. Gipstein/Corbis; 605 Flag of the Imperial Hapsburg dynasty (about 1700). Heeresgeschichtliches Museum, Vienna, Austria. © The Bridgeman Art Library; 606 top (detail of) Empress Maria Theresa of Austria. Museum der Stadt Wien. Photo © Alfredo Dagli Orti/The Art Archive; bottom Frederick the Great © Gianni Dagli Orti/Musée des Beaux Arts, Nantes, France/ The Art Archive; 608 left (detail of) Marriage of Louis XIV, King of France and Marie Therese of Austria (1600s), unknown artist. Musée de Tesse, Le Mans, France. Photo © Gianni Dagli Orti/The Art Archive; right © Todd A. Gipstein/Corbis; 609 The Granger Collection, New York; 612 top © Dorling Kindersley; center Costumes of Crimean tribes (1888), A. Racinet. From Historical Costumes vol, V. Musée des Arts Décoratifs, Paris. Photo © Dagli Orti/The Art Archive; bottom © Historical Picture Archive/Corbis; 613 top, Shrovetide (1919), Boris Kustidiev. The I. Brodsky Museum, St. Petersburg, Russia. Photo Courtesy of the Smithsonian Institution Traveling Exhibition Service; bottom © Scheufler Collection/Corbis; 614 left (detail of) Marriage of Louis XIV, King of France and Marie Therese of Austria (1600s), unknown artist. Musée de Tesse, Le Mans, France. Photo © Gianni Dagli Orti/The Art Archive; right © Todd A. Gipstein/Corbis; 615 The Granger Collection, New York.

Chapter 22

620 left, Portrait of a Princess Holding a Wine Cup (1600s-1700s), Mughal. India. The Newark Museum, Newark, New Jersey. Photo © The Newark Museum/Art Resource, New York; right Isaac Newton's reflecting telescope (1672) Royal Society. Photo © Eileen Tweedy/The Art Archive; 621 left Statuette of a Lohan, Ching dynasty. Musée des Arts Asiatiques-Guimet, Paris. Photo © Giraudon/Art Resource, New York; right © Leif Skoogfors/Corbis; 622 A Philosopher Gives a Lecture on the Orrery (1766), Joseph Wright of Derby. Canvas. Derby Museum and Art Gallery, Derby, Great Britain. Photo © Erich Lessing/Art Resource, New York; 623 left Copernican Solar System (1661). From Harmonia Macronici, Andreae Cellarius. Page 30. Photo © Victoria and Albert Museum, London/Art Resource, New York; right © Bettmann/Corbis; 625 Galileo before the Holy Office of the Vatican. John Nicolas Robert-Fleury. Oil on canvas. Louvre, Paris. Photo by Gerard Blot. Photo © Réunion des Musées Nationaux/Art Resource, New York; 626 left © Bettmann/Corbis; right Isaac Newton's reflecting telescope (1672). Royal Society. Photo © Eileen Tweed/The Art Archive; 627 © Bettmann/Corbis; 628 The Anatomy Lesson of Dr. Tulp (1632), Rembrandt van Rijn. Mauritshuis, The Hague, The Netherlands. Photo © Scala/Art Resource, New York; 629 left Copernican Solar System (1661). From Harmonia Macronici. Andreae Cellarius. Page 30. Victoria and Albert Museum, London. Photo © Art Resource, New York; right © Bettmann/Corbis; 630, 631 The Granger Collection, New York; 633 Mary Evans Picture Library; 635 The Granger Collection, New York; 636 top left Copernican Solar System (1661). From Harmonia Macronici. Andreae Cellarius. Page 30. Victoria and Albert Museum, London. Photo © Art Resource, New York; right © Bettmann/Corbis; 637 © Kevin Fleming/Corbis; 638 Joseph II, Emperor of Austria and of the Holy Roman Empire, King of Hungary and Bohemia (1700s), Austrian. Musée du Château de Versailles. Photo © Gianni Dagli Orti/The Art Archive; 639 © Anatoly Sapronenkov, Tomsk Regional Arts Museum/SuperStock; 640 top left Copernican Solar System (1661). From Harmonia Macronici. Andreae Cellarius. Page 30. Victoria and Albert Museum, London. Photo © Art Resource, New York; top right © Bettmann/Corbis; bottom Box with Medallion Top (1770-1800). French. 1" x 3 1/16". (2.5 x 7.8 cm). The Metropolitan Museum of Art, gift of William H. Huntington, 1883 (83.2.228). Photo © 1980 The Metropolitan Museum of Art; 641 Detail of Thomas Jefferson (1805), Rembrandt Peale. Oil on canvas, 71.1 cm x 59.7 cm. Photo © Collection of the New-York Historical Society/The Bridgeman Art Library; 644 © Corbis; 645 © Jon Feingersh/Stock Boston; 647 El sueño de la razon produce monstuos [The sleep of reason produces monsters] from Los Caprichos (1799) Francisco Jose de Goya y Lucientes. Etching and burnished aquatint, 21.5cm. x 15 cm. Bequest of William P. Babcock. Photo © Museum of Fine Arts, Boston; 647 MC1-647 MC2 © Ted Spiegel/Corbis.

Chapter 23

648 left, George Washington, George Healy. Musée du Château de Versailles. Photo © Gianni Dagli Orti/The Art Archive; right Reduced model of a guillotine. Musée de la Ville de Paris, Musée Carnavalet, Paris. Photo © Bridgeman-Giraudon/Art Resource, New York; 649 top Detail of Napoleon Bonaparte, Emperor of France. Musée du Château de Versailles. Photo © Gianni Dagli Orti/The Art Archive; bottom The Granger Collection, New York; 650 The Conquerors of the Bastille Before the Hotel de Ville (1839), Paul Delaroche. Musée du Petit Palais, Paris. Photo © Erich Lessing/Art Resource, New York; 651 left © SuperStock; right © Christie's Images/Corbis; 652 Detail of Caricature of the three estates: A faut esperer que jeu la finira bientot (1700s). Color engraving, Musée de la Ville de Paris, Musée Carnavalet, Paris. Photo by Bulloz. Photo © Réunion des Musées Nationaux/Art Resource, New York; 653 left, Louis XVI, King of France. Musée de Château de Versailles. Photo © Dagli Orti/The Art Archive; right, Marie Antoinette, Queen of France (replica of work painted in 1778) Musée du Château de Versailles. Photo © Gianni Dagli Orti/The Art Archive; 654 The Storming of the Bastille, Paris, France, July 14, 1789. Gouache. Musée Carnavalet, Paris. Photo © Gianni Dagli Orti/The Art Archive; 656 left © SuperStock; right © Christie's Images/Corbis; 657 Arrest of Louis XVI, King of France and his family attempting to flee the country at Varennes, France June 21-22, 1791. Musée Carnavalet, Paris. Photo © Gianni Dagli Orti/The Art Archive; 658 The Dead Marat (1793), Jacques Louis David. Louvre, Paris. Photo © Erich Lessing/Art Resource, New York; 659 Illustration by Patrick Whelan; 660 Portrait of Robespierre, Louis L. Boilly. Musée des Beaux-Arts, Lille, France. Photo R. G. Ojeda. Photo © Réunion des Musées Nationaux/Art Resource, New York; 661 Portrait of Danton (1700s), Anonymous. Musée de la Ville de Paris, Musée Carnavalet, Paris. Photo by Bulloz. Photo © Réunion des Musées Nationaux/Art Resource, New York; 662 © Bettmann/Corbis; 663 left © SuperStock; right © Christie's Images/Corbis; 664 Portrait of Bonaparte, premier consul (1803), Francois Gerard. Oil on canvas. Musée Conde, Chantilly, France. Photo by Harry Breja. Photo © Réunion des Musées Nationaux./Art Resource, New York; 665 Detail of Napoleon Crossing the Alps, Jacques Louis David. Chateau de Malmaison et Bois-Preau, Rueil-Malmaison, France. Photo © Erich Lessing/Art Resource, New York; 668 top left © SuperStock; top right © Christie's Images/Corbis; bottom, A Stoppage to a Stride over the Globe (1803). English School. Color lithograph. Private collection. Photo © The Bridgeman Art Library; 669 © Archivo Iconografico, S.A./Corbis; 671 © Public Record Office/Topham-HIP/The Image Works; 672 left © SuperStock; right © Christie's Images/Corbis; 673 © Christel Gerstenberg/Corbis; 676 left, Parisian sans culotte (1700s), unknown artist. Musée de la Ville de Paris, Musée Carnavalet, Paris. Photo © Giraudon/Art Resource, New York; right Reduced model of a guillotine. Musée de la Ville de Paris, Musée Carnavalet, Paris. Photo © Bridgeman-Giraudon/Art Resource, New York.

Chapter 24

678 left, Napoleon in his study at the Tuileries (1812). Jacques Louis David. Collection of Prince and Princess Napoleon, Paris. Photo © Bridgeman-Giraudon/Art Resource, New York; right, Miguel Hidalgo y Costilla (1895). From Mexica publication Patria

e Independencia, folleto illustrado. Antiochiw Collection, Mexico. Photo © Mireille Vautier/The Art Archive; 679 left © Francis G. Mayer/Corbis; right © Hulton-Deutsch Collection/Corbis; 680 Courtesy of the Flag Institute; 681 left © Michael S. Lewis/Corbis; right © Archivo Iconografico, S.A./Corbis; 682 Portrait of Francois-Dominique Toussaint, known as Toussaint Louverture, Anonymous. Musée du Quai Branly, Paris. Photo J. G. Berizzi. Photo © Réunion des Musées Nationaux/Art Resource, New York; 683 left © Christie's Images/Corbis; right The Granger Collection, New York; 684 © Bettmann/Corbis; 687 top left © Michael S. Lewis/Corbis; top right © Archivo Iconografico, S.A./Corbis; bottom, Klemens Metternich, Austrian prince and statesman. Museo Glauco, Lombardi, Parma, Italy. Photo © Gianni Dagli Orti/The Art Archive; 689 © Archivo Iconografico, S.A./Corbis; 690 Combat Before the Hotel de Ville, July 28th, 1830, Victor Schnetz. Musée du Petit Palais, Paris. Photo by Bulloz. Photo © Réunion des Musées Nationaux/Art Resource, New York; 691 © Corbis; 693 © Bettmann Corbis; 695 The Granger Collection, New York: 696 © Bettmann/Corbis: 698 top left © Michael S. Lewis/Corbis: top right © Archivo Iconografico. S.A./Corbis; bottom © Bettmann/Corbis; 699 Portrait of Ludwig von Beethoven (1819), Anonymous. Beethoven House, Bonn, Germany. Photo © Snark/Art Resource, New York; 700 © Hulton-Deutsch Collection/Corbis; 702 Lion Hunt (1860/1861) Eugene Delacroix. Potter Palmer Collection, 1922.404, Reproduction. The Art Institute of Chicago, Chicago, Illinois; 703 top, The Stone Breakers (1849), Gustave Courbet. Gemaldegalerie, Dresden, Germany. Photo © The Bridgeman Art Library; bottom © Francis G. Mayer/Corbis; 705 The Granger Collection, New York; 706 top, Portrait of James II (about 1685), Benedetto Gennari the Younger. Phillip Mould, Historical Portraits Ltd, London. Photo © The Bridgeman Art Library; left, The Bloody Massacre perpetrated in...Boston on March 5th, 1770 (1770), Paul Revere. Colored engraving. Private collection. Photo © Art Resource, New York; 706-707 The Granger Collection, New York; 707 The Granger Collection, New York; 708 left, Marie-Antoinette Standing in her Court Robe with a Rose in her Hand (1779) Louise Elizabeth Vigée-LeBrun. Châteaux de Versailles et de Trianon, Versailles, France. Photo © Réunion des Musées Nationaux/Art Resource, New York; center © Photodisc/Getty Images; 709 top Detail of Caricature of the three estates: Il faut esperer que le jeu finira bientot [Peasant carrying a nobleman and a cleric] (1789). Musée de la Ville de Paris, Musée Carnavalet, Paris. Photo © Giraudon/Art Resource, New York; bottom The Granger Collection, New York; 710 The Granger Collection, New York; 711 top The Granger Collection, New York; bottom, Maximilien Robespierre. Musée Carnavalet, Paris. Photo © Alfredo Dagli Orti/ The Art Archive.

UNIT SIX

712-713 Martyn Gregory Gallery, London.

Chapter 25

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Chapter 26

744 top Photograph of Queen Victoria (late 1800s). Photo © Victoria and Albert Museum, London/Art Resource, New York; bottom © The Stapleton Collection/Bridgeman Art Library; 745 top The Granger Collection, New York; bottom © Corbis; 746 A Paris Street in May, 1871 or The commune (1903-1905), Maximilien Luce. Oil on canvas. Musée D'Orsay, Paris. Photo © Erich Lessing/Art Resource, New York; 747 left © Hulton-Deutsch Collection/Corbis; right © Bettmann/Corbis; 748 © Bettmann/Corbis; 750 Arrival of Emile Zola at Quai des Orfevres, Paris, France (January 1898). Engraving from the French publication L'Illustration. Musée Carnavalet, Paris. Photo © Gianni Dagli Orti/The Art Archive; 751 left © Hulton-Deutsch Collection/ Corbis; right © Bettmann/Corbis; 753 © Sean Sexton Collection/Corbis; 756 top left Nouvelle-Hollande. Cour-Rou-Bari-Gal., Plate XVIII from Atlas historique: du Voyage de decouvertes aux terres australes, by Charles Alexandre Leseur and Nicolas-Martin Petit. Image Courtesy of State Library of South Australia; top right © Charles & Josette Lenars/Corbis; bottom Gold mining and panning in Australia, unknown artist. Photo © National Library of Australia/The Art Archive; 757 top © Graham Monro/photolibrary; bottom The Granger Collection, New York; 758 left © Hulton-Deutsch Collection/Corbis; right © Bettmann/Corbis; 761 Library of Congress; 762 left © Hulton-Deutsch Collection/Corbis; right © Bettmann/Corbis; 763 top The Granger Collection, New York; center left Institute of Experimental Physics/University of Innsbruck; center right Library of Congress; bottom The Granger Collection, New York; 764 left, center © Bettmann/Corbis; right The Granger Collection, New York; 765 The Granger Collection, New York; 766 © Bettmann/Corbis; 769 By permission of the British Library; 769 MC1–769 MC2 © Underwood & Underwood/Corbis.

Chapter 27

770 top Brass weight for weighing gold dust in the form of a horse and rider. Ashanti, Ghana. British Museum, London. © Werner Forman/Art Resource, New York; bottom, Portrait of Napoleon III, Emperor of France, Franz Xavier (after). Oil on canvas, Photo © Chateau de Versailles, France/The Bridgeman Art Library; 771 top © Bettmann/Corbis; bottom © Bettmann/Corbis; 772 © Robert Harris/Hulton Archive/Getty Images; 773 left Aboriginal Bark painting of abstract picture of body (1800s-1900s), Lipunja. Musée des Arts Africains et Océaniens, Paris. Photo © Alfredo Dagli Orti/The Art Archive; right, The Battle of Isandhlwana (1800s), Charles Fripp. National Army Museum, London. Photo © The Art Archive; 774, 775, 776 The Granger Collection, New York; 778 © Hulton-Deutsch Collection/Corbis; 783 © Culver Pictures; 785 The Granger Collection, New York; 786 left Aboriginal Bark painting of abstract picture of body (1800s-1900s), Lipunja. Musée des Arts Africains et Océaniens, Paris. Photo © Alfredo Dagli Orti/The Art Archive; right, The Battle of Isandhlwana (1800s), Charles Fripp. National Army Museum, London. Photo © The Art Archive; 788 Mehemet Ali, Viceroy of Egypt (1800s), Louis Charles Auguste Couder. Château de Versailles, France. Photo © Lauros-Giraudon/The Bridgeman Art Library; 789 Shipping on the Suez Canal (1869), Edouard Riou. Château de Compiegne, Oise, France. Photo © Lauros-Giraudon/The Bridgeman Art Library; 790 Portrait of Nasir Al-Din Shah (1800s), unknown artist. Louvre, Paris. Photo © Réunion des Musées Nationaux/Art Resource, New York; 791 top left Aboriginal Bark

painting of abstract picture of body (1800s-1900s), Lipunja. Musée des Arts Africains et Océaniens, Paris. Photo ©Alfredo Dagli Orti/The Art Archive; top right, The Battle of Isandhlwana (1800s), Charles Fripp. National Army Museum, London. Photo © The Art Archive; bottom, A Sepoy (an Indian Soldier in the French Battalion) at Pondicherry (1800s), Racinet. Photo © The Stapleton Collection/The Bridgeman Art Library; 793 © Hulton Archive/ Getty Images; 794 The Granger Collection, New York; 796 left Aboriginal Bark painting of abstract picture of body (1800s-1900s), Lipunja. Musée des Arts Africains et Océaniens, Paris. Photo ©Alfredo Dagli Orti/The Art Archive; right, The Battle of Isandhlwana (1800s), Charles Fripp. National Army Museum, London. Photo © The Art Archive; 798 © Corbis; 799 The Granger Collection. New York.

Chapter 28

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UNIT SEVEN

836–837 On the River Yser. Belgium, French troops crossing over pontoon bridges. August, 1917. Musée de L'Armée, Paris. Photo © Gianni Dagli Orti/Art Archive.

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